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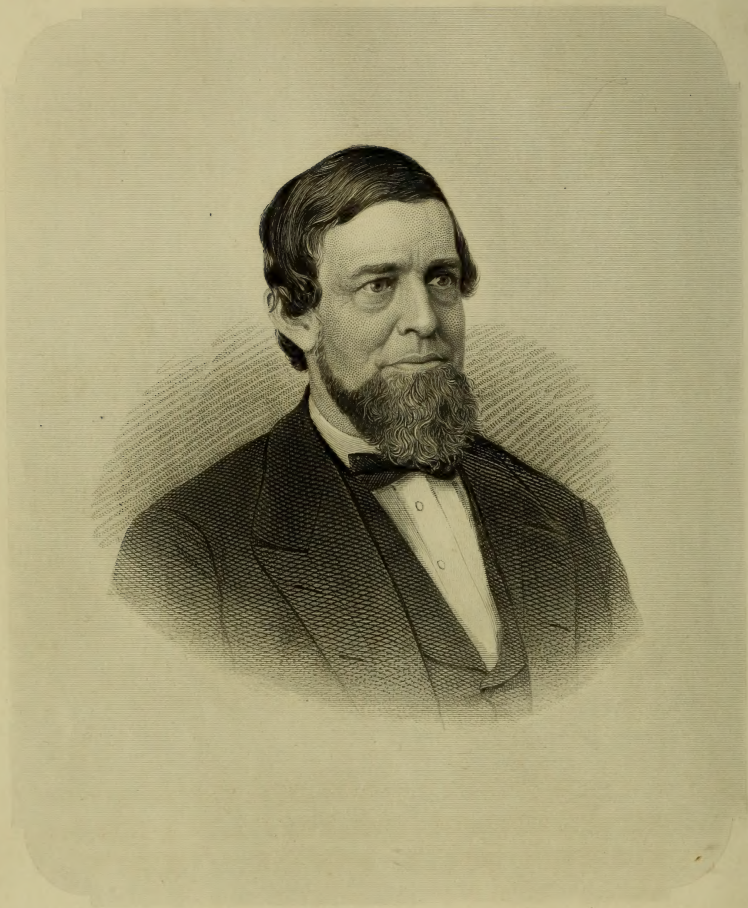
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AMERICAN

ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA

AND

REGISTER OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

OF THE YEAR

1868.

EMBRACING POLITICAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS; PUBLIC DOCUMENTS; BIOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, FINANCE, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AGRICULTURE, AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRY.

VOLUME VIII.

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PREFACE

THIS volume of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, for the year 1868, presents the complete restoration, as members of the Union, of all the Southern States except three, and the final disappearance of all difficulties between the citizens of those States and the Federal Government. The execution of the reconstruction acts of Congress was commenced near the close of the previous year, elections were held and delegates chosen to conventions in the several States; these conventions assembled; constitutions were drafted, discussed, amended and submitted to the people, and adopted. New and important principles, working a radical change in the society of the Southern States, were thus declared and enforced. The military rulers, quietly surrendering their authority to the civil officers, withdrew, and the several States thus reorganized again appeared by their representatives in the chambers of Congress and took an active part in its proceedings. In these pages will be found the details of all the steps taken to reach this end, such as the registration acts, and the qualifications required of voters in order to make the discrimination demanded by Congress; the orders of the military commanders, the proceedings of the conventions, the features of the new constitutions, and their adoption; the reorganization of the State governments; the removal of incumbents, and the inauguration of new executive officers; the assembling of the Legislatures; the cooperation of the colored men in all these proceedings; the strifes of factions, and the gradual restoration of order, with the final and complete amnesty proclaimed by the President.

The details of the internal affairs of the United States comprise the revenue and expenditure of the Government, the change in the nature and extent of its public debt, the fluctuations of its currency, and the receipts from its system of taxation, with its operation upon the industrial interests and prosperity of the people; the extent of the banking system; the fruits of agriculture and the activity of commerce; the proceedings in the Southern States to complete the reorganization of their social affairs; the various political conventions of

the year, both national and State; the results of the elections; the acts of State Legislatures; the rapid improvement of educational and charitable institutions under the care of the State governments; the debts and resources of the several States, and all those facts which show their surprising development.

In Europe and Asia movements commenced to throw off the burden of some of the old governments and secure a greater degree of freedom to the people. On the former continent these movements were comparatively peaceful, while on the latter they were attended with violent and bloody disturbances. The details of these events, together with the peaceful progress of affairs in other countries of the world, as well as the extent and influence of the public press in many parts of Europe, are fully narrated.

The progress of mechanical industry among civilized nations, especially as shown by such stupendous public works as the Suez Canal, the Pacific Railroad, the Mont Cenis and Hoosac Tunnels, and the sewage embankment of the Thames, is illustrated and fully shown.

Not less interest than usual has existed in the diplomatic relations of the Federal Government with foreign nations, especially in the negotiations relative to the Alabama claims, the purchase of territory from Russia and other countries, and the difficulties with Paraguay.

The developments in the various branches of Astronomical, Chemical, and other sciences, with the new applications to useful purposes, are extensively described.

The alarming and destructive earthquakes which have terrified the inhabitants of several countries are fully noticed, as also the scourge among the cattle of this country, and the measures taken to combat it.

Geographical discoveries have continued in all quarters of the globe, and the discoveries made have been fully related.

The record of Literature is as extensive as usual, and the titles of all the more important works have been arranged under the various classes to which they belong.

The interesting history of the religious denominations of the country, with an account of their conventions, branches, membership, views on social affairs, and the progress of their opinions, is presented from official sources.

A brief tribute has been given to the memory of deceased persons of note in every department of society.

All important documents, messages, orders, treaties, and letters from official persons, have been inserted entire.

THE
ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA.

A

ABYSSINIA, a kingdom or empire in Eastern Africa. Abyssinia proper has an area estimated at 158,392 English square miles, and a population of from three to four millions; but the whole of the Ethiopian plateau, which sometimes is also designated by the name of Abyssinia, has, according to the Roman Catholic Bishop Massaja, and most of the recent writers on Abyssinia, a population of about 12,000,000 of people, 9,000,000 of whom are Sidama and Gallas. Abyssinia proper consists of a high mountainous table-land, the eastern boundary of which may be considered roughly as following the fortieth degree of east longitude. Between this mountainous region and the sea there is a tract of arid, low lying, waterless country, inhabited by the savage Danakil tribes; this region at Massowah is only a few miles broad, but it widens out to two hundred or three hundred miles at Tajurrah. In climate, inhabitants, soil, cultivation, etc., these two regions are totally opposite, the highlands being salubrious, temperate, generally well watered and traversed by paths in every direction; while the low country is arid, waterless, with few exceptions trackless and uncultivated. This inhospitable region effectually cuts off the highlands from all communication with the sea except at three points, Massowah and its neighborhood on the north, Amphilla Bay, about one hundred miles to the southeast, and Tajurrah on the south. From these three points the roads into the interior are of a very different character, for at Massowah they very soon climb the eastern boundary of the highlands and continue along the elevated land, whilst from Tajurrah they have to traverse two hundred or three hundred miles, and from Amphilla Bay from fifty to one hundred miles of the low lying country before they reach the highlands. The western and southern boundaries of Abyssinia are very undefined, but they may be taken roughly as conterminous with the

edge of the highlands, and having the White and Blue Nile on the west and the Red Sea rather south by east. The following are some of the principal towns:

Gondar, in *Amhara*—the capital of the kingdom.—This town is stated by Heuglin, in 1862, to have contained from six thousand to seven thousand inhabitants, but it is said to have been within the last two or three years totally destroyed by the Emperor Theodore.

Debra Tabor, in *Amhara*.—Formerly a small village. It is now a place of considerable size, and was the residence of the Emperor Theodore. Near Debra Tabor is Gaffat, where the European workmen of the Emperor resided, and which was considered as his arsenal.

Adowa, the capital of *Tigré*.—This is the second city in the kingdom. It is stated by MM. Ferret and Galinier to have contained in 1840 not more than 4,000 inhabitants. Heuglin, in 1862, put the population at 6,000. The miserable nature of Abyssinian towns may be judged of by the description given by Mansfield Parkyns, in 1843, of this, the second city of the empire. He says: "I own I rather expected to see columns or obelisks, if not an acropolis, on some of the neighboring hills. Judge, then, of my astonishment when, on arriving at this great city, the capital of one of the most powerful kingdoms of Ethiopia, I found nothing but a large straggling village of huts, some flat roofed, but mostly thatched with straw, and the walls of all of them built of rough stones, laid together with mud, in the rudest possible manner. Being wet, moreover, with the rain, the place presented the most miserably dirty appearance."

Mr. Dufton, who visited Adowa, puts its population at 10,000.

Antalo—the capital of *Enderta*, and one of the principal towns of *Tigré*.—It is said by Ferret and Galinier to contain from two hundred to three hundred houses.

Ankobar—the capital of Shoa.

Angolala.—This is a place of considerable size in Shoa. It is said to contain from three thousand to four thousand inhabitants.

Aliya Amba.—This is a large market town in Shoa, and is said by D'Héricourt to contain from two thousand to three thousand inhabitants.

Political anarchy, which for centuries has been the normal condition of Abyssinia, prevailed throughout the country at the beginning of the year 1868. The larger portion of the country did not recognize the authority of Theodore, and many of the chiefs were in a state of war either against Theodore or against each other. The following was reported in January, 1868, to be the position of the more prominent chiefs:

Theodore, reported as holding only a small portion of Begamider and the two Ambas of Debra Tabor and Magdala; the latter on the border of the Wollo-Galla country.—*Menilek*, King of Shoa. It was reported that a treaty had been made between him and the Wagshum Gobazie, on condition that, if they should overcome Theodore, Magdala was to be made over to Menilek. The latter addressed a letter, with friendly overtures, to Queen Victoria, which was forwarded to the Queen by Colonel Merewether in July, 1866.—*Tirsoo Gobazie*, at this time exercised absolute sway over the provinces of Wolkait and Samien, while several minor chiefs between Mantamma and Massowah recognized his supremacy. Some time before he had applied to the Egyptians for aid against Theodore, and it was reported he still maintained friendly relations with the Viceroy.—*Kassai or Kassa*. This man was said to have joined the Wagshum Gobazie in his first rebellion against Theodore, and subsequently to have turned against Gobazie and set up to be a king on his own account, wresting from his former master the larger portion if not the whole of Tigré. His last feat was the sacking of Adowa, the capital. The relations between him and the Wagshum were any thing but friendly, and his overtures to the English were undoubtedly with a view to strengthen his position against his formidable antagonist.—*Gebra Mehdi* or *Gabra Mathan*. He seems to be the same individual who prevented Dr. Beke from proceeding inland from Halai. At that time he was governor on the part of the Wagshum of the adjoining Akula-Kossay (or Okulekusai)—the district in which Halai is situated, and he appeared to hold the same appointment still; but, as the tribes were determined to get rid of him, he sought the intervention of the British, who told him that, being in direct communication with his master, they declined having any thing to do with him.

Wagshum Gobazie (the hereditary Shum or Prince of Waag, a district of Lasta). This was one of Theodore's most formidable antagonists, and the most successful of the insurgent chiefs. Until a short time before he appears to have

exercised jurisdiction over the larger portion of Tigré, and several chiefs in northern Abyssinia acknowledged his supremacy. For some months past he had maintained a large army near Magdala, and had frequently boasted that he would attack the royal camp. Lieutenant Prideaux, one of the captives, in a letter, dated 18th October, 1867, reported that the Wagshum had marched into the Wollo-Galla country against the Queen Waizero Masteat. From the letter of the London *Times's* correspondent, writing from Senafé on the 15th December, it appeared that the British were in direct communication with Gobazie.

The difficulty between England and King Theodore of Abyssinia, during the past three years, directed the special attention of the civilized world, and, in particular, the attention of scholars, to the affairs of this country. The origin of this difficulty has already been briefly referred to in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1866. As, in the latter part of 1867, an important war grew out of the diplomatic disagreement, a fuller *résumé* of the chief facts in the progress of the difficulty will be found both interesting and useful. We begin this *résumé* with the year 1848, when Lord Palmerston appointed Mr. Walter Plowden consul for Abyssinia, "for the protection of British trade." Consul Plowden, November 2, 1859, concluded a treaty of friendship and commerce with Ras Ali, King Theodore's predecessor. In 1854, Ras Ali was defeated by Kasai, who then got himself crowned under the title of Theodorus, King of Kings, of Ethiopia. On June 25, 1855, Consul Plowden wrote to Lord Clarendon, describing King Theodore as a kind of warrior-saint, who had risen to reform Abyssinia. The King, however, declined to permit the British consul to reside in Abyssinia, on the ground that the consular power interfered with his own. Mr. Plowden stated to him that Massowah would be given up to him if he permitted the consulate to be established. Theodore proposed to send an ambassador to Queen Victoria, and wished to know whether he would be received. The conduct of Mr. Plowden was approved, November 27, 1855, by Lord Clarendon, who intimated the readiness of the British Government to receive an Abyssinian embassy, on condition that the King renounced all idea of conquest in Egypt, and at Massowah. On February 2, 1861, Captain Cameron was appointed consul in room of Mr. Plowden, who had been killed about 1856, in Abyssinia, by a rebel chief. To revenge Plowden's death, King Theodore killed the rebel chief with his own hand in battle, and executed 1,500 of his followers. He did this, he said, to win her Majesty's friendship. On February 20, 1862, Earl Russell wrote to King Theodore, thanking him for his kindness to Mr. Plowden, informing him of the appointment of Captain Cameron, but saying nothing about the reception of the ambassador. Consul

Cameron, on October 31, 1863, reported that he had been received with all honor by Theodore. Mr. Cameron committed the blunder of refusing to accept the King's presents, although he knew the refusal was of the nature of an insult. "His Majesty," wrote the consul, "made no reply for half an hour." On his return from Abyssinia, January, 1863, Consul Cameron was intrusted with a letter from King Theodore to Queen Victoria, asking for

a safe passage for his ambassadors. The King stated that he wished an answer by Mr. Cameron, who would conduct his embassy to England. This letter, received by Earl Russell, February 12, 1863, was never answered. In place of returning to Massowah with the King's letter to Queen Victoria, and to his consulate, Consul Cameron, March 31, 1863, proceeded to some of the Turkish tribes on the frontier, who were Theodore's bitter



enemies. He is accused of having spoken very unadvisedly of the King of Abyssinia when on this journey. On April 22, 1863, Earl Russell wrote to Consul Cameron, disapproving his meddling in the affairs of Abyssinia, and telling him he ought to have returned to Massowah when ordered to do so. Another and sharper rebuke was sent to Consul Cameron

by Earl Russell, on September 8, 1863, and he was told to return to Massowah. Toward the close of the year 1863, Mr. Cameron returned to Gondar to the King of Abyssinia, without any answer to the letter written by the latter to the Queen. On Mr. Rassam's arrival in 1864,*

* On Mr. Rassam, see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, p. 2.

the King gave the following as his reasons for imprisoning Mr. Cameron: "Captain Cameron I imprisoned because he went to Kasala to my enemies, the Turks, and I had given him a letter for the Queen, and he came without bringing me an answer. Messrs. Flad, Stern, Rosenthal, Makerer, and Kerons I had chained because they have abused me; and the rest of them I imprisoned because I found them together with the others. They have done nothing. I even don't know them." Mr. Cameron had quarrelled with his secretary, M. Bardel, a Frenchman, who entered the King's service, and tried to stir up enmity against England. He went to the Emperor Napoleon with a letter at the same time as the letter to the Queen was sent off, and the Emperor at once returned an answer. Mr. Cameron also sent back from the country of the Turks, to Abyssinia, an interpreter, Samuel, who had been given him by the King, and this man had repeated Cameron's expressions. When Mr. Cameron made his excuses to the King for going to the Turkish tribes, the King very justly replied, "It was not your business to interfere. Who told you to do so? Neither I myself nor your Queen gave you order to go down to Kasala." In January, 1864, Earl Russell's letters to Mr. Cameron arrived, and were taken to the King, who, after learning that there was nothing in them in answer to his letter, sent Mr. Cameron, as a prisoner, to Magdala. He appears to have suspected that treachery was at work. On January 1, 1866, Mr. Hormuzd Rassam, a Turk, but an English subject, formerly Deputy-Governor of Aden, was sent up with a very small retinue with a letter from her Majesty, requesting the release of Mr. Consul Cameron, and the other Europeans. Colonel Merewether, the resident at Aden, afterward spoke of Mr. Rassam's mission "as a great mistake," from its want of dignity. Mr. Rassam was received with every mark of favor by the King, and was always well treated by him. Colonel Merewether reported that "a regular constituted embassy from England could not have been treated with greater honor and attention." It seems that the letter from the Queen which Mr. Rassam delivered to King Theodore had been mistranslated, so as to make it read that any gift Theodore expressed a wish for through Mr. Rassam she would send to him. At the same time the King seems to have got into his possession a letter which Captain Cameron had given to one of the native chiefs, requesting that he might be protected if the Queen's troops came to the country to take revenge for his imprisonment. Under various pretexts Theodore detained Mr. Rassam and the other Europeans, while Mr. Flad was sent home with a letter, requesting that the Queen's "kasa," or presents, for the release of the prisoners should consist of artisans, "to give light to our eyes." On July 10, 1865, Mr. Flad arrived in England with the letters, and

made full report of all the difficulties, and the causes which had led to the complications. He gave it as his opinion that it was desirable "to finish with this man in peace." On August 13, 1866, Colonel Merewether, on the understanding that force was not to be thought of, reported to Lord Stanley that Theodore's requests should be frankly and most liberally met. He said: "It has been mentioned that it would be best to try and enter into some engagement with the King, that, before the people now going to work for him should enter his country, the Europeans there should have left it. I look upon it as most dangerous to the success of the whole scheme, should this be attempted." In August and September, 1866, the ministry, acting through Lord Stanley, expended over three thousand pounds upon presents for King Theodore, and engaged artisans to go to Abyssinia. On September 1, 1866, Mr. Flad wrote to King Theodore that he had been received by the Queen personally, that the artisans and presents were coming, and that he had promised, in the King's name, that after he had received those presents the captives would be liberated. On October 4, 1866, the ministry determined to adopt the policy which Colonel Merewether reported would be fatal to the whole scheme, viz., not to send the artisans and presents until the captives were sent to Massowah. Lord Stanley wrote to King Theodore, in the Queen's name, in this sense, although Mr. Flad, had previously reported that the presents were to be sent. In January, 1867, Mr. Flad, being unable to return to Abyssinia, sent a copy of the Queen's letter, which apparently had also been mistranslated. On its arrival Theodore wrote to Mr. Rassam: "As Solomon fell at the feet of Hiram so I, beneath God, fall at the feet of the Queen and her Government and her friends. I wish you to get them (the skilful artisans), *via* Matemma, in order that they may teach me wisdom, and show me clever arts. When this is done, I shall make you glad, and send you away by the power of God." On January 8, 1867, Mr. Rassam wrote in reply: "I have already written regarding Mr. Flad, and the articles which my Queen had ordered for your Majesty as a token of her friendship, and they are to be sent at once to Matemma." The artisans and articles were, nevertheless, detained at Massowah, and not sent to Theodore; the captives were in consequence not liberated, and thus the war between England and Abyssinia was brought on.

The first troops which were to form part of the expedition against King Theodore landed in the latter months of 1867.* In the first days of January, the chief commander, Sir Robert Napier, arrived from India, and in the course of January the remainder of the troops followed. The progress of the expedition, during the first weeks, was slow and devoid

* See ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

of interest. No enemy was encountered; the only difficulties to struggle against were a great mortality among the horses and mules, and a great scarcity of water. Both ceased when the expedition advanced farther into the interior. At the beginning of March, only one-half of the distance from the coast to Magdala had been marched through. The advance, under Colonel Phayre, were misled by a native guide, into a road leading to Messino, where inaccessible rocks put such obstacles to their march, that they preferred to return. The arrival of General Napier, with the vanguard, inspired new life into the expedition. For the march through the second half of the distance between Magdala and the coast, only as many weeks were needed as months had been consumed on the first half of the road. This result was greatly due to Consul Munzinger, a German-Swiss by birth, who has long resided in the country, is married to a native, and has a thorough knowledge of the whole country. Munzinger had preceded the army, and succeeded in concluding, in the name of England, a treaty with Gobazie, of Waag, the most powerful enemy of Theodore. Gobazie was at that time with his army between Magdala and Debra Tabor, and when Munzinger left him, to return to the British camp, Gobazie sent along with him a number of natives, to open roads for the British army. Henceforth the advance was rapid. General Napier, on March 28th, left the common road, ascended the highland of Wadda, and then, marching along the Djidda, reached a road which Theodore, with a great expense of time and labor, had made for his artillery. All this time Theodore had not yet made any serious attempt to check the English army. But now General Napier was informed, by a letter from Mr. Rassam, that a rapid advance of the Abyssinian troops, perhaps a surprise, was meditated. General Napier immediately crossed the river, and took up his headquarters between Djidda and the Bashilo, upon the elevated plain of Talanta. The troops marched upon the road of Theodore, which is thirty feet wide, but so steep that many beasts of burden tumbled down and perished. After a reconnoissance toward Magdala, General Napier, on April 8th, advanced to the Bashilo River. From a second reconnoissance toward Magdala, it was learned that the fortress was armed with 28 guns, and appeared to be unconquerable. But General Napier made all the preparations for an immediate attack. Previously Theodore was summoned to surrender unconditionally. To this demand no reply was made, and the British troops continued their advance. When the first brigade crossed the Bashilo, they saw the enemy in front of Magdala, occupying strong positions. Theodore did not wait until he was attacked, but on April 10th (Good Friday) opened the battle himself by a furious onset on the first brigade. He was repulsed with a loss of about 500 dead and 1,500 wounded, and would

have fared still worse had not darkness put an end to the pursuit. The English, according to an official report, had no dead, and only sixteen wounded, among whom was Captain Roberts. On the two following days Theodore, who had retired into the fortress, sent all the Europeans who were in his power, both captives and artisans, into the British camp; but Napier, not satisfied with this, insisted on unconditional surrender. When this was refused, and the truce which had been granted expired on the 13th of April, the British troops advanced toward the fortress. Theodore's prospects had been greatly injured by the discouragement which had spread in his army, in consequence of which thousands of his men had left him. One of the strongest positions around Magdala, the citadel of Islamgie, fell into the hands of the British by the treason of one of the Abyssinian chiefs. On the 14th, after a bombardment of three hours, an assault of the fortress of Magdala itself was made. Theodore made a brave resistance, but he could not arrest the onset of the English, who penetrated into the fortress. The Abyssinians laid down their arms. Theodore was found dead, having fallen, as the English were told, by his own hand. The English loss was small, from ten to fifteen wounded. The loss of the Abyssinians was sixty-eight dead and two thousand wounded. Two sons of Theodore were among the captives. Into the hands of the conquerors fell four golden crowns, twenty thousand dollars, twenty-eight guns, ten thousand shields, ten thousand spears, and a large amount of silver vessels, jewels, etc. The following extracts from the official report of General Napier give some details of the capture of Magdala and the death of Theodore:

"At the request of Dejach Alema (the son-in-law of Theodore) I had promised to abstain from hostilities for twenty-four hours. After the lapse of forty-eight hours, Theodore had not surrendered himself. Reliable information reached me that his army was recovering from their defeat; that many soldiers who had been unable to return to Magdala on the night of the 10th had since rejoined their ranks; that fresh defensive arrangements were being made, and that Theodore and his chiefs even contemplated a night attack on the second brigade, encamped on the lower ground. I, therefore, prepared to attack the enemy's position. I had originally intended first to assault Fahla from the side which fronted our camp, and was screened from the fire of Islamgie and Selassie. But under the altered condition of the enemy, Theodore having by death, wounds, and desertion lost half of his army and his bravest chiefs, I determined to attack Islamgie by the King's road. All arrangements for this had been considered and the positions for the artillery reconnoitred and fixed upon, when information was brought to me that Theodore had left Magdala, and that many of the chiefs, with their followers, wished to surrender. I agreed

to accept their submission, and ordered Sir Charles Staveley to advance on Islamgie, relaxing no precautions that I had considered necessary for the attack. The scarcity of water rendered it impossible to retain any considerable body of cavalry before Magdala; my personal escort, under a native officer, only remained, and, with a few details of other corps, was sent under the command of Lieutenant Scott, aide-de-camp, to watch the west side of Magdala, where they took up a good position until the arrival of the cavalry, under Colonel Graves, who completed the investment up to the Kaffir Burr Gate, which was watched by the Gallas. The Bashilo was held by the headquarters detachment of the Scinde Horse, under Major Briggs, and detachments of the Third Dragoon Guards, Third and Twelfth cavalry, under Major Miller, to secure that point and provide against the escape of the enemy in that direction by the Minjerra ravine. A detachment of the Beloochees, under Lieutenant Beville, ascended by the spurs of Fahla, and occupied that important position, where they were reinforced from the second brigade by the headquarters wing of the Tenth native infantry, under Colonel Field. The artillery was placed in position, and the troops advanced, preceded by Captain Speedy, of the intelligence department, with a small escort of the Third Light cavalry, under Lieutenant-Colonel Loch, to communicate with the chiefs who wished to surrender, and to prevent any misunderstanding. No resistance was offered. Sir Charles Staveley effected an entrance to Islamgie and Selassie through a difficult crevice in the rocky escarp. It would be impossible to arrive at any correct estimate either of the numbers of the armed men who laid down their weapons or of the mass of people, men, women, and children, whom we found on Islamgie. It was necessary to collect and guard the arms that were surrendered. It was also necessary to send down all the disarmed soldiers and the miscellaneous multitude that followed them to the plain below before I could proceed actively against Magdala.

"Theodore himself, having abandoned his attempt to escape, was making preparations for defence, and offering us defiance in front of Magdala. By three o'clock the Abyssinians having nearly all cleared away from Islamgie, I ordered the attack of Magdala to be at once carried out. The entrance of Magdala is three hundred feet above the terrepain of Islamgie, and the ascent is by an extremely steep and rugged path. Viewing the very difficult nature of the approach, I made the attack as strong as possible, and massed the whole of my artillery fire to cover it, in order to overpower the enemy's resistance and prevent the heavy casualties which I should otherwise have incurred.

"The assaulting force consisted of the second brigade, led by the Thirty-third (Duke of Wellington's) regiment, accompanied by detach-

ments of the Royal Engineers and Madras and Bombay Sappers and Miners, with means of clearing away obstacles, the first brigade to be in close support. I concentrated the fire of the artillery on the gateway and the north end of the fort, which were crowded with the houses of the soldiers, avoiding as much as possible the higher part of the interior occupied by the Abyssinian prisoners and non-combatants. The enemy carefully concealed themselves from view, so that the place seemed almost deserted, although, when entered by our troops, it was found to be thronged with soldiers who had thrown away their arms, released prisoners, and the numerous voluntary and involuntary followers of Theodore's fortunes. The artificial defences consisted of stone walls, loop-holed and surmounted by strong and thick barricades of thorny stakes, with narrow stone gateways; the lower one built up in the interior, the higher one being seventy feet above the lower, and approached by a very steep narrow path winding among the soldiers' huts. The attack was ably conducted by Sir Charles Staveley, and gallantly carried out by the troops. Fortunately, the defences were very unscientifically constructed, and, though the attack was met by a sharp fire from the enemy, yet they could not direct it on the head of the storming party without exposing themselves to the rapid and fatal fire of the Snider rifle, and our loss was, in consequence, very small. The Royal Engineers and Sappers and leading sections of the Thirty-third regiment were long before they could force an entrance, and during that time nine officers and men of the Royal Engineers and Sappers received wounds or contusions. At length an entrance was found by means of the ladders, near the gate and by the leading men of the Thirty-third, who scaled a rock and turned the defences of the gateway. The enemy was driven to the second barricade, and when that was carried all resistance ceased.

"Among the dead near the outer gateway were found several of Theodore's most devoted chiefs. One of them, Dejach Enjeda, had urged Theodore to massacre all the prisoners, a course from which he was dissuaded by others. Close to the second gateway lay the body of Theodore. At the moment when the barricade was forced by the Thirty-third, Theodore fell, as I have since learned, by his own hand. His troops immediately fled, some by the Kaffir Burr Gate, which was found choked with arms that had been cast away in their flight. Of these fugitives the greater part fell into the hands of the Gallas, and the remainder, seeing the fate of their comrades and hearing the taunting invitations of the Gallas, returned to Magdala and surrendered.

"The command of Magdala was intrusted to Brigadier-General Wilby, who held it with the Thirty-third and part of the Forty-fifth regiments. So thickly was the fortress inhabited, and so great was the crowd of people, that it

was no easy matter to establish order. Guards were placed at the gates and such places as required protection. The family of Theodore were committed to the care of Mr. Rassam, who was requested to do all that was in his power for their comfort and protection. The Abyssinian prisoners were released from their chains, and the very numerous body of Abyssinians whose histories and condition it was impossible at the time to investigate were collected in an open space in the centre of the fortress, where they could be protected, and where they quickly threw up small huts for themselves and remained until their final departure.

"On the 15th, the Fourth (King's Own) regiment relieved the Thirty-third in Magdala, and the Forty-fifth were removed to Islamgie to reinforce the detachment of the Tenth native infantry, under Colonel Field, for the protection of the captured arms and ordnance and to furnish working-parties for their destruction. The inhabitants of Magdala were collected at Arogie, where great vigilance was necessary to protect them from the Gallas, who were lying in wait both day and night for opportunities of plundering and destroying them. Notwithstanding the friendly relations with the Queens of the Gallas, their people were so little under restraint that it was frequently necessary to fire upon them to drive them from molesting our water-parties and carrying off the mules. A party of them, in search of plunder, even dared to make their way into Magdala, where they were captured by the guard of the Thirty-third regiment.

"On the 15th and 16th the disarmed soldiers and people of Magdala made their exodus from Arogie. Every consideration was shown them, and they were allowed to take all their property. The Arogie defile was guarded by infantry, and their procession, after crossing the Bashilo, was guarded by cavalry patrols until they reached Waddeba.

"On the morning of the 17th orders were issued to clear every one out of Magdala by four p. m. At that hour, the whole of the captured ordnance having been destroyed, the gates of Magdala were blown up, and the whole of the buildings were committed to the flames. The wounded Abyssinians who had no friends to take charge of them were conveyed into our hospitals. The elephants and heavier ordnance having been sent in advance on the 15th, on the 18th of April the force recrossed the Bashilo, on its return to the coast."

The object of the expedition having been attained, General Napier deemed it necessary that some provision should be made for the large numbers whose interests and safety had centred in Theodore's existence, and who remained disarmed and unprotected, and exposed to merciless plunder and slaughter at the hands of the wild tribes, which circumstances had for the moment converted into allies of England. The disposal of the fortress of Magdala first demanded attention. This strong position,

situated geographically in the country of the Wollo-Gallas, from whom it was finally wrested by Theodore about ten years ago, had imposed, in his hands, an effectual check upon the encroachments of the Gallas on Christian Abyssinia. General Napier desired, in the interests of Christianity, to place the stronghold in the possession of Wagshum Gobazie, the *de facto* ruler and principal chief of this portion of Abyssinia. But when he sent for his lieutenant, the Dajaz Mashashah, the latter excused himself, in his master's name, from accepting the charge, alleging as his reason that it would require so large a garrison to hold it, that it would be a source of weakness rather than of strength. Wagshum Gobazie himself, notwithstanding his repeated invitations to the English, through Brigadier-General Merewether, to come quickly to his aid, had removed himself and his army to a distant quarter in pursuit of objects of his own, and it was impossible for General Napier to await a reply to the letter which was addressed to him on the subject of Magdala. General Napier therefore destroyed the gates of the fort, burnt every thing on the mountain that was combustible, and abandoned it. Several claimants for its possession had, in the mean time, addressed General Napier regarding it. One of these was the Chief of Daoot, a small territory lying adjacent to Magdala. Werkait, one of the two rival Queens of the Gallas, had also put forward her claims, as likewise had Masteeat, the other and more powerful of the Galla Queens. Shortly after the arrival of Werkait's letter, soliciting that the fortress might be delivered to her, the queen herself arrived. She remarked to General Napier: "We fought with Theodore as long as we could, and when his power was too strong for us to resist any longer, my son submitted to him, on receiving a promise of good treatment, notwithstanding which he was inhumanly cut to pieces, and thrown over the precipice of Magdala; and now I come to see the grave of my enemy Theodore, and the place where my son fell." It was deemed inexpedient to comply with this wish. As news arrived of the approach of Queen Masteeat, Queen Werkait took a hasty departure, apprehensive lest she should be intercepted by her more powerful rival. Queen Masteeat had responded very effectually to the request of the English to close all avenues by which the late king could have escaped, and thus she came to General Napier in the character of an established ally. To her request for the possession of Magdala, it was replied that, Gobazie's lieutenant having declined to receive it, the place would be abandoned, after dismantling it and burning all of it that could be so destroyed, as a mark of the anger of the British at the ill-treatment of our countrymen, as well as of our abhorrence of the cruelties which Theodore had committed there.

General Napier with his staff, and Theodore's

son under the charge of Captain Speedy, arrived in England in the last days of June, and met with an enthusiastic ovation. He had conferred upon him the title of Lord Napier of Magdala. The son of Theodore, who was, soon after his arrival, presented to the Queen, will be educated in England. His mother had died in the English camp, on May 15th. The released Abyssinian captives, namely, twenty gentlemen, eight ladies, twenty-two children, and twenty-one followers, arrived in England a few weeks before Lord Napier.

The first effect of the death of Theodore, and the withdrawal of the English troops, upon the condition of Abyssinia, was a relapse into anarchy. Theodore had been the first ruler for many centuries who had acquired the power to make his authority felt all over the country, and to begin the consolidation of Abyssinia into one compact empire.

A letter from Massowah, dated September 17th, to the Paris *Moniteur*, gives the following review of Abyssinian politics at that time: "One of the three great provinces of Abyssinia, Amhara, is under the absolute sovereignty of Gobazie, who has taken advantage of the English expedition against Theodore, to extend his possessions.

"Magdala, after having been burnt by the English, has been occupied by Mastecat, one of the queens of the Wollo-Gallas, a Mohammedan tribe. The escarpments of this fortress being natural, they could not be destroyed. Immediately after the city was taken possession of by Mastecat, a rival, in the person of Queen Werkait, set up claims, in which she was supported by the King of Shoa. Werkait is one of the two queens ruling over the Wollo-Gallas, in the name of their sons, who are cousins. The frontier of the Wollo-Gallas tribe is Bashilo.

"The country to the north of Bashilo, Lasta, and Jidjou, were governed during the English expedition by the maternal uncle of Gobazie; but Tapis Ali has commenced to urge the rights which he pretends to have, through his mother, upon Lasta, and through his father upon Jidjou. This chief is popular in both these countries, but he is not in a position to resist the forces of Gobazie. On the other hand, the son of Theodore, Mechacha, who is in revolt against Gobazie, has returned to Kwara, his father's country. Gobazie has not yet succeeded in suppressing this revolt, and his power has been seriously compromised in the southeast and northwest, but it is secure throughout the whole of central Abyssinia.

"Gobazie has rebuilt Gondar, the ancient capital, and has proclaimed himself Emperor under the name of Hazie Tecla Giorghis. He has recently addressed a letter to Kassa, King of Tigré, and sent him at the same time a present of several horses. This latter, who now resides at Adowah, received and responded to these overtures in a friendly manner. These relations have given rise to different interpretations. According to some, Gobazie has simply

required of Kassa to make submission to him; according to others, he has demanded of the King, that he send an envoy with money to Cairo in order to obtain a bishop, and Kassa has refused to comply. Whichsoever may be true, the rainy season would not permit hostilities at present. Amhara, where grain is abundant, offers to Gobazie resources which he would not find in the Tigré; besides which, it appears preferable for both rivals to remain allies for some time yet in order that they might be better able to resist the rebels.

"In case war should break out in the future, more or less distant, it would take place under very nearly the following conditions: Gobazie, whose army is devoted to him and accustomed to fighting, has a strong cavalry force, but his troops are badly armed. The effective troops of Kassa are very numerous. He has a good supply of cannon and muskets, and he has the advantage of being near the sea. But in spite of his generous character and his proud courage, he is not yet completely master of his people. The province of Tigré has not only been ravaged for several years past by grasshoppers, but is, besides, devastated by partisans who, in virtue of certain ancient customs, levy ruinous contributions in grain upon the inhabitants, leaving many of them, frequently, without seed to sow."

ADLER, GEORGE J., Ph. D., a German scholar and philologist, born in Germany, in 1821; died at the Bloomingdale Insane Asylum, August 24, 1868. He came to the United States at the age of twelve years, after an excellent elementary course in the gymnasium of his native town, and eventually entered the University of New York, where he graduated with high honors in 1844. In 1846 he was appointed Professor of German in his Alma Mater, and continued in that position till 1854. Having a decided taste for philological studies, he very early commenced the preliminary studies for his elaborate German-English and English-German Dictionary, the first edition of which was published in 1848, when he was but twenty-seven years of age. He subsequently made considerable additions to it, and followed with a German grammar, reader, and other text-books. His dictionary, undoubtedly the best work of its kind extant, soon won him a reputation, to which his later works materially added. His works were in great demand in Europe, and several of them, his edition of Goethe's "Iphigenie," in particular, were translated into French and Spanish. He also wrote much for the periodical press. In 1860 his mind became affected, probably from excessive study, and he was sent to the Bloomingdale Asylum. His mania was of a religious character, but he had lucid intervals, in which he wrote magazine articles, or prepared works for the press, with all his former ability. In the last of these, he prepared for *Putnam's Magazine* an interesting review of Lessing's "Nathan the Wise."

AFRICA. The year 1868 is memorable in the history of Africa for the English-Abyssinian war. (See ABYSSINIA.)

It is now generally conceded that the Suez Canal, the greatest engineering work of history, will be a success. Vessels of light draught already pass it, but it will yet require a very large expenditure of money before the work is thoroughly completed so that a ship drawing twenty-five feet of water can pass from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea. When completed, the work cannot fail to have a powerful influence upon developing the resources of Egypt and promoting civilization in Eastern Africa. (See EGYPT.)

The states of Northern Africa, especially Algeria and Morocco, again suffered from a frightful famine. About Algeria, a letter from the Rev. J. B. Ginsburg, dated Algiers, July 10, 1868, gives the following information:

"The famine brought on by drought and the plague of locusts and cholera has exhausted the native resources, gradually assuming most distressing proportions, and literally decimating the native population. They die, not from any disease, but from starvation. They first fed on the grass of the field and the leaves of trees; the filth collected in dust-carts was a luxury. They then dug out and ate animals which had died from starvation. In travelling, I saw these creatures, shrunk to skin and bone, surrounding the dwarf palms and thistles, which they thought delicious fare. Voracious jackals are deprived of any chance animal lying dead in the country. Men attack carts laden with manure, and pull out the cabbage-stalks and turnip-tops. Women grub in the horse-litter for the undigested grains of corn and barley, and wash and eat them with avidity. Children throw themselves upon the sweepings of the house, and dispute with the dogs the bones and other pitiful refuse found upon the heaps of rubbish, smash and gnaw them. This appalling distress at last impelled the famished beings to acts of violence and unheard-of villainess and cannibalism. They attacked men and beasts, and even killed their own children, salted, and ate them. In spite of hundreds of thousands of francs sent over from France, the famished Bedouins perish in incredible numbers. Bodies are still found side by side in the ditches, on the high-roads, or in the brooks, devoured by hyenas or jackals."

In Morocco the situation was reported to be even worse than in Algeria. According to an account in the Paris *Constitutionnel*, numbers of persons were constantly dying of hunger. The roads were covered every morning with the dying and the dead. The rich were powerless to save these poor creatures; and the number of those who perished, either of hunger or the epidemic, was estimated at one-fourth of the entire population. "It is not, as will be seen," says the *Constitutionnel*, "Algeria alone which has just passed through a deplorable crisis. In Tunis, as in Morocco, the

populations, ravaged with cholera, ruined by invasions of locusts such as were never before seen in the memory of man, and suffering two years of drought, were, in the summer of 1868, plunged into the deepest suffering. Fortunately, in Algeria a good harvest repaired, so far as it was possible, the losses experienced by those tribes in the earlier months of the year, and it was hoped that the wants of the coming winter might be met by the provisions made for giving employment, by the exercise of charity, and various kinds of assistance judiciously rendered."

The insecurity of foreign residents in Tunis led to strong remonstrances on the part of France and other powers; for a time, the French consul broke off diplomatic relations with the Tunisian government, but in May a new convention was concluded, satisfying the demands of France.

An important change took place in the government of the island of Madagascar. The Queen Raosheima, who, though not a persecutor of Christianity, was opposed to its progress, died, and her successor showed herself at once a zealous patron of the Christian missions. In consequence of this change of policy, a strong feeling in favor of Christianity has set in among all classes of the population, and a speedy Christianization of the whole country is looked for. Madagascar has now treaties with many of the Christian countries. That with the United States was promulgated by President Johnson in October, 1868. (See MADAGASCAR.)

To put an end to the war between the Orange Free State and the Basutos, Governor Wodehouse, of the Cape colony, at the beginning of the year, declared the Basutos to be taken under the British protectorate. In defiance of this notice, President Brand, of the Orange Free State, continued the war, and met with marked success. The Basuto strongholds Tandjesberg and Treine were captured. At the former, Bushuli, the brother of Moshesh (chief of the Basutos), was killed. On February 22d, the Free State burghers captured, with the loss of only three men, the native stronghold Kilme, with 1,500 horses, 8,000 sheep and goats, and 11,000 head of cattle. In March Governor Wodehouse issued a proclamation, declaring the Basutos British subjects, and the country inhabited by them British territory. The commander of the English frontier police in Basuto-land, Sir Walter Currie, wrote to Commandant Joubert (of the Orange Free State), requesting him to abstain from any acts of aggression against the Basutos, and informing him that if any such were attempted he should feel bound to aid the Basutos in resisting them. To this the commandant replied that he had no instructions to acknowledge Sir Walter's authority, and requested that he would restrain the Basutos, and clear them out of the conquered territory. An offer of the governor of the Free State of three hundred farms in the Basuto territory,

to be held under British title, was submitted by the president to the *Volksraad* of the Free State, and rejected by them. The *Volksraad* decided to send a deputation to the British Government to represent their case; and they requested Governor Wodehouse to stay all proceedings till the result should be known. The governor said he would consent if the president would give guarantees for the preservation of peace in the mean time. The president's reply did not lead to a perfect understanding, but subsequently the Free State relinquished the hostile position it had assumed in reference to the British protection of Basutoland, and a deputation waited upon Governor Wodehouse to inquire if there was any possibility of the Free State joining the Federal Union with the South-African colonies, and annexing it to the British crown, to which the governor returned a very guarded reply.

The President of the Transvaal Republic, Prætorius, has annexed, by proclamation, a territory about three times the size of the present republic. It has become known that, in the northern districts of this republic, debased Europeans, taking advantage of the distance of the district from the centres of population and power, have revived the slave-trade in its worst form. A strong movement for putting down this new slave-trade has begun in the towns. The discovery of rich gold-fields in the republic and in the neighboring districts has, of late, called special attention to this republic (*see* TRANSVAAL REPUBLIC).

The expedition which the Portuguese, in Mozambique, undertook into the exterior, had a fatal issue, the larger portion of the expedition being massacred by the natives.

The following table exhibits the area and population of the principal divisions of Africa.*

Countries.	Square miles.	Inhabitants.
Morocco.....	259,593	2,750,000
Algeria.....	258,317	2,921,246
Tunis.....	45,710	950,000
Tripoli (inclusive of Barca and Fezzan).....	344,423	750,000
Egyptian Territory.....	659,081	7,465,000
Sahara.....	2,436,473	4,000,000
Mohammedan empires of the Middle Soudan.....	631,017	38,900,000
The Western Soudan, inclusive of Liberia, Dahomey, French, British, Portuguese, and Dutch possessions.....	818,536	38,500,000
Eastern Africa (including Abyssinia).....	1,594,550	29,700,000
South Africa (inclusive of the Orange Free State, the Transvaal Republic, and the Basuto Territory).....	1,965,974	16,000,000
Equatorial Territory.....	1,732,264	43,000,000
Islands in the Atlantic Ocean.....	2,721	115,063
Islands in the Indian Ocean (inclusive of Madagascar)....	227,994	5,599,300
Total.....	11,556,663†	190,950,609

* The above figures are taken from Behm's *Geographisches Jahrbuch*, vol. i (Gotha, 1868), which is generally acknowledged as a standard authority on geographical subjects.

† As several inland lakes are not included in the above list of countries, this total is somewhat larger than the aggregate of the above figures.

Among the most important of the native states belong, besides Morocco, Tunis, Tripoli, and Egypt, the area and population of which have been given in the above list, the following: Liberia, 9,567 square miles, 717,500 inhabitants; Abyssinia, 158,392 square miles, 3,000,000 inhabitants; the Orange Free State, 48,049 square miles, 50,000 inhabitants; the Transvaal Republic, 77,964 square miles, 120,000 inhabitants; Madagascar, 232,315 square miles, 5,000,000 inhabitants.

Christianity is steadily advancing in Africa. It is the ruling religion in the large possessions and dependencies of England, France, Spain, Portugal, Netherlands, in Abyssinia, Liberia, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal Republic. To these states Madagascar will soon be added, as the new Queen favors Christianity, and the Christianization of the country makes rapid progress. The population which is in connection with or under the influence of the Protestant Church is estimated as follows: British possessions, 500,000; Algeria, 10,000; Egypt, 10,000; Liberia, 40,000; Madagascar, 50,000; Orange Free State, 15,000; Transvaal Republic, 30,000; Kaffraria, and Basuto Territory, 30,000; total 685,000. The Roman Catholic population is estimated at 1,106,200: embracing 140,000 in the British possessions; 133,000 in the French; 439,000 in the Portuguese; 12,000 in the Spanish; 100,000 in Angola, Benguela, and Mozambique; 190,000 in Algeria; 50,000 in Egypt; 30,000 in Abyssinia; 200 in Morocco; 10,000 in Tunis and Tripoli; and 2,000 in Madagascar. About 3,000,000 in Abyssinia, and 200,000 in Egypt, are connected with Eastern Churches; making the total Christian population of Africa about 5,000,000.

AGRICULTURE. In the article AGRICULTURE, in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for the year 1867, it was found impossible to obtain accurate statistics of the crops of that year, owing to an unusual delay in making the returns to the Agricultural Department of the Government. They were not, in fact, collated and published in full till about the first of June, 1868. The estimates given were, however, a very close approximation to the actual figures, as a comparison of the following tables with the estimates of that volume will demonstrate. For further comparison, and as indicating the advance in the quantity of agricultural products, we give the aggregates of 1850 and of 1860 also:

ARTICLES.	1850.	1860.	1867.
Corn.....bushels.	592,071,104	838,792,740	768,320,000
Wheat.....do....	100,485,944	173,104,924	217,875,400
Rye.....do.....	14,188,813	21,101,380	23,490,000
Oats.....do.....	146,584,199	172,643,185	275,098,000
Barley.....do....	5,167,015	15,825,698	25,727,000
Buckwheat.....do...	8,956,912	17,571,818	21,359,000
Potatoes.....do....	65,797,896	111,148,867	67,783,000
Tobacco.....pounds.	199,773,655	434,209,461	323,724,000
Hay.....tons.....	13,698,642	19,083,896	26,277,000
Cotton.....bales...	2,445,793	5,287,052	2,300,000
Wool.....pounds.	52,516,959	60,264,913	112,000,000

Following the same order in regard to crops, we give our usual brief notes of the crops of 1868:

The MAIZE, or INDIAN CORN, crop, though much better than that of 1867, and of larger amount than the crop of 1859-'60 (specified above), is yet a decrease in proportion to the increase of population. The Pacific States and Territories are unsuited to the production of Indian corn, and the amount raised there is very slight. Leaving these States and Territories out of the account, the corn crop of 1868 was, in round numbers, 905,178,000 bushels. Its quality was generally very good, though in Iowa, Southern Illinois, and some other low lands, there was more smut than usual.

The WHEAT crop is slightly larger than last year, though it will not probably exceed 225,000,000 bushels. The promise of the early summer was not realized at the harvest. The acreage devoted to wheat was considerably greater than the previous year, but it is a fact which ought to excite alarm, that the yield to the acre in the older wheat-fields is rapidly decreasing. Land which, twenty years ago, yielded twenty-eight to thirty bushels to the acre, and ten years ago from eighteen to twenty-two bushels, now produces only from nine to twelve bushels, and wheat is ceasing to be a paying crop. The whole wheat-growing region east of the Mississippi has, within ten years past, barely held its own—Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, and Ohio, but just making up the deficiency in New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, and the other States of the Atlantic slope. The production of even the most fertile of these States, to the acre, is decreasing year by year, and their aggregates are only kept up or increased by the enlarged area devoted to this crop. On the other hand, the territory lying between the Mississippi River and the Pacific Ocean, which, in 1859, produced but 25,000,000 bushels, harvested, in 1868, above 65,000,000 bushels, more than one-fourth of the whole being yielded by California. The yield to the acre in that State is between thirty and forty bushels. The cause of this decreased production in the States east of the Mississippi is the abstraction, by continued cropping, of those constituents of the soil which go to the making of the wheat culm and berry. If these can be restored to the soil in full, the old yield per acre ought to be regained.

RYE, never a large crop, differs but little in amount from last year, with possibly a small gain from the greater plumpness of the berry. It may safely be put down at 24,000,000 bushels.

OATS are a very important crop. The yield was light in most of the Atlantic States; not a full average in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa, but west of the Mississippi above the average. In California, oats are extensively mowed for hay before the grain is ripe, the ordinary grasses not enduring the long dry

season. The crop was not far from 272,000,000 bushels.

BARLEY is one of the smaller cereal crops, except on the Pacific, where it takes the place to a great extent of Indian corn. In the Atlantic and central States it is mainly grown for malt. The crop east of the Mississippi was smaller than last year; west of that river, and especially on the Pacific coast, it was somewhat larger. It did not probably exceed 25,000,000 bushels.

BUCKWHEAT was deficient in several of the States where it is grown. In Connecticut, New Jersey, Minnesota, and California it was quite up to the average. The yield in the aggregate was nearly 21,000,000 bushels.

The POTATO crop has favorably disappointed the farmers. It was thought early in the season that it would prove seriously deficient in Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania, and that these great deficiencies would reduce the aggregate below that of last year, though Southern New England, New Jersey, Delaware, the Gulf States, and California reported a more than average crop. The aggregate production, however, proves to be about 11 per cent. in advance of last year, and though it does not approach to the enormous crop of 1859, it will probably not fall below 75,000,000 bushels. The sweet-potato crop is also larger than last year.

TOBACCO is an uncertain crop, though, when successful, a profitable one. The returns are incomplete, even from the States where it is most largely grown, but, so far as can be determined, indicate a crop of about 332,000,000 of pounds.

The HAY crop was almost uniformly good, Florida and Kansas being the only marked exceptions, and in neither State is the hay crop of prime importance. The returns indicate a yield of about 32,500,000 tons.

COTTON, concerning which there were serious apprehensions during the summer from the depredations of the army worm, proves to have somewhat exceeded the aggregate of last year, though upon fewer acres. The following is the estimate of the Commissioner of Agriculture in December, which, as he himself acknowledges, was undoubtedly below the truth. Later reports bring up the aggregate to fully 2,500,000 bales of 400 lbs. each.

	Bales.
North Carolina.....	140,000
South Carolina.....	180,000
Georgia.....	290,000
Florida.....	35,000
Alabama.....	285,000
Mississippi.....	400,000
Louisiana.....	250,000
Texas.....	260,000
Arkansas.....	265,000
Tennessee.....	200,000
Other States.....	75,000
Total.....	2,380,000

The WOOL crop is somewhat smaller than in 1867. This was due to the protracted depres-

sion in woollen manufactures, which has caused many wool-growers to sell both lambs and ewes to the butchers, as the most profitable method of disposing of them. The markets have been throughout the year glutted with carcasses of mutton; and the number of sheep, which had increased with great rapidity during the past seven or eight years, must have diminished during the year 1868. The wool-clip is stated at 104,000,000 pounds.

Of other crops less universally cultivated, SORGHUM seems to have been about the same in quality as last year; the SUGAR from the CANE, which is made in only five States to any extent, viz., Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas, was a much larger crop than in any previous year since 1860, in Louisiana the production being more than twice that of 1867, and in the other States from 15 to 30 per cent. more. The production of SUGAR from the SUGAR BEET, though it has not yet attained to any considerable prominence, is increasing, not only in Illinois, but also in California, where it bids fair to become an important branch of agricultural labor, and in several other States.

The HOP crop, in 1868, has been for the most part a failure; the blight and aphid have both seriously injured the crop, and the importation has been so large as to depress the price to about the cost of production. The hop-growers of the Wisconsin hop district, who in 1867 found hop-growing so profitable, were in 1868 completely in despair; many of them have abandoned their hop-yards or destroyed the vines.

FLAX has received in several States a new impulse from the new machinery for dressing and breaking it. In Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, and California, as well as in several of the Eastern States, a much greater breadth of land has been devoted to this crop than for many years past. The leguminous plants, BEANS and PEAS, have yielded a better crop than usual, though the demand is not so great for them as it was during the war.

Of FRUITS, the apple crop in Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Georgia, most of the Gulf States, Minnesota, Kansas, and California, was above the average, in all the other States far below. In Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Indiana, and Illinois, it was an entire failure, and in several other States where it was usually one of the most staple crops the product was not one-half that of the previous year. The PEAR crop was also deficient in most of the States, North Carolina, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and California being the only exceptions.

The PEACH crop was deficient, except in Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, and the Gulf States.

The yield of GRAPES on the Atlantic seaboard was very small, and they were of indifferent quality. In the interior, and especially in the Seneca Lake district, New York, in

the vicinity of Lakes Erie and Ontario, in Missouri, and in California, they were abundant and of excellent quality. The culture of the grape, both for the fruit and for wine, has attained such magnitude in our country that it must be regarded as one of the most important of the minor crops. Its annual product in fruit and wine is not less than ten millions of dollars, and it is increasing in a very rapid ratio. In the Southern States, grape-culture has excited less attention, especially with reference to the manufacture of wine. The varieties of the grape most in favor at the North have not generally proved as successful at the South; and though the Catawba, Norton's Virginia, and the Herbemont, were all grapes of Southern origin, neither the Southern Atlantic nor the Gulf States have given any great attention to their development. A native grape of very marked character, and though possessing some faults, yet apparently well adapted to the production of some classes of wines, has recently attained considerable notoriety, though it has long been cultivated rather negligently, in the South. It is called the *Seppernong*, and there seem to be three subvarieties of it, the white, the black, and the purple, all possessing similar characteristics, but differing in the degree of acidity, and in some of their qualities for the production of wine. This grape, which can only be cultivated successfully in the long and warm summers of the South, will doubtless greatly improve by careful cultivation. It has a positive character, is very hardy and full of vitality, and is said not to be subject to mildew or blight, to yield plentifully, and to be incapable of propagation except from seeds or layers. It is said also to be the only grape which is free from the attacks of the grape-vine borer (*Ageria polistiformis*), which gnaws the roots of the grape-vine, and does great mischief in Ohio and Missouri.

The number of bushels, acreage, and value of farm products for the year 1867, and also the average yield per acre of farm products in each State, the same year, was as follows. The value of these statistics in indicating the degeneration of the soil for staple crops, and the importance of the agricultural interest, cannot be overestimated:

Table showing estimated quantities, acreage, and aggregate value of the principal crops of the farm in 1867.

PRODUCTS.	No. of bushels.	No. of acres.	Value.
Indian corn.....	768,320,000	32,520,249	\$610,948,390
Wheat.....	212,441,400	18,321,561	421,796,460
Rye.....	23,184,000	1,689,175	32,499,700
Oats.....	278,698,000	10,746,416	172,472,970
Barley.....	25,727,000	1,131,217	22,850,130
Buckwheat.....	21,359,000	1,227,826	23,469,650
Potatoes.....	97,783,000	1,192,195	89,276,330
Total.....	1,427,512,400	66,828,639	\$1,373,314,130
Tobacco....pounds.	313,724,000	494,333	41,233,431
Hay.....tons...	26,277,000	20,020,554	372,864,670
Cotton.....bales..	2,450,000	7,000,000	220,000,000
Total.....		94,343,526	\$2,007,462,231

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE YIELD OF FARM PRODUCTS PER ACRE FOR THE YEAR 1867.

STATES.	Corn.	Wheat.	Rye.	Oats.	Barley.	Buckwheat.	Potatoes.	Tobacco.	Hay.
	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Bush.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Maine.....	33.4	10.6	14.8	22	18.3	21.9	86.6	1
New Hampshire.....	35.5	12.1	14.7	27.5	24.5	22.3	97.5	500	1
Vermont.....	36.2	15.8	15	30.1	23.4	25.4	116.9	500	1
Massachusetts.....	35.7	16	15.6	26.7	22.6	18	96	1,100	1.3
Rhode Island.....	25.7	16.9	15	27	25	15.5	72.5	1.1
Connecticut.....	33	17.5	14	27.5	23.2	13	68	1,266	1.3
New York.....	30.4	14.5	15	26.2	20	20	84	533	1.2
New Jersey.....	33.1	14	13.7	27	21.5	19.3	56.6	600	1.3
Pennsylvania.....	32	12.5	13.7	30	20	16.3	74.4	725	1.3
Delaware.....	16.3	9.3	7	16.6	23.8	16.6	41.6	500	1.6
Maryland.....	23.4	11	13.4	23.2	26	18.3	71	453	1.3
Virginia.....	20.9	8	8.5	17	12.3	12.3	67	690	1.2
North Carolina.....	11.6	6.9	7.7	13.3	9	17.5	93	652	1.5
South Carolina.....	9.6	6.4	5.7	11.1	6	89.4	500	1
Georgia.....	13.1	8	8.1	12.4	14.3	101	515	1.3
Florida.....	11.8	7.9	8	17	14.3	143	500	1.2
Alabama.....	16.2	7.8	7.9	11.7	14.4	72.4	600	1
Mississippi.....	15.7	9.5	11.5	13	8	85	500	1.3
Louisiana.....	15.6	8	12.5	14	101	500	1.5
Texas.....	28.2	9.5	16.3	23.5	24.8	130.3	500	1.7
Arkansas.....	26.5	9.2	13.2	16.7	15	94	714	1.8
Tennessee.....	23.7	8.5	10.5	15.4	19.5	15	72.4	620	1.3
West Virginia.....	29.7	10.5	12.4	21.5	20.8	14.8	69.6	690	1.4
Kentucky.....	24.7	8.2	10.7	18.8	17	12.3	50.7	552	1.3
Missouri.....	27.2	12.4	16.2	30	21.1	21	73.9	802	1.7
Illinois.....	23.8	11.4	15	30.1	22.3	15.2	60.5	573	1.5
Indiana.....	29.2	10.5	14.1	10.9	21.1	16.7	73.2	809	1.4
Ohio.....	28.7	11.6	13.4	31.1	24	13.5	75.4	667	1.4
Michigan.....	31.4	12.4	17.2	29.5	20.9	17.2	97.5	1,000	1.3
Wisconsin.....	33.6	12.3	16.5	35	25.8	15.6	96	650	1.6
Minnesota.....	30	12.5	18.8	38	23.6	14.4	110	600	1.8
Iowa.....	33.8	12.7	19.4	42	29	20.6	108.7	656	1.9
Kansas.....	33.6	14	20.3	36	26.7	19.7	109	550	1.9
Nebraska.....	36	15	25.2	39.2	27	95	434	1.9

The stock-raisers of the country have met with heavy losses during the past year from the splenic or Texan fever, pleuro-pneumonia, and other diseases among horned cattle, for a full account of which see "CATTLE, RECENT EPIDEMIC DISEASES OF," in this volume; the mortality among swine, from *Hog Cholera*, has also been very great, amounting, according to the statement of the Commissioner of Agriculture, to not less than \$15,000,000. There have been also complaints of heavy losses in the flocks of sheep in Illinois, Texas, and some other States from grub, scab, and foot-rot. In Texas and Georgia an epidemic which seems to partake of the character of cerebro-spinal meningitis, has prevailed with very fatal results among the horses.

The new textile fibre, *Ramie*, is attracting much attention, and is likely to be very thoroughly tested during the coming year. Senator Sprague, of Rhode Island, one of the largest manufacturers of cotton and woollen goods in the United States, has become so fully satisfied of its good qualities, that he has purchased a large estate in Florida to be devoted exclusively to its cultivation. It is said to be very hardy, not liable to be attacked by any of the known insect depredators, to produce a fibre intermediate in character between silk and linen, and to yield somewhat more than three times as large a quantity to the acre as cotton, and in the extreme South to produce three or four crops a year. It is cultivated much in the

same way as sugar-cane. How much of all this is true will probably be known a year hence.

The immense waste of sewage matters, especially in our great cities, and the startling decrease in the fertility of our cultivated lands, after a few years of liberal crops, despite the attempts to renew their productiveness by artificial or carefully-husbanded natural manures, have properly excited the solicitude of large-minded and intelligent agriculturists. The most promising plan for restoring in part to the soil the elements of fertility, which have been drawn from it by the consumption of food, would seem to be the adoption of some method of deodorizing and disinfecting human excrementitious matters, and using them as fertilizers. This is very perfectly and readily accomplished, wherever they can be used, by Rev. Henry Moule's earth-closets. The disinfectant and deodorizer which he uses is simply dried earth, which possesses great power of absorption, and prevents any unpleasant odor. It can be used by his system repeatedly for this purpose by simple drying, and then becomes a more active and perfect fertilizer than the best guano. The fertility of the cultivated lands of China and Japan, which have been for three or four thousand years under cultivation, has been maintained by the use of these manures. Many of the failures of our great staple crops, from rust and blight, from midge and Hessian fly, from army and boll worm, from caterpillars

and grasshoppers, are due primarily to the waning fertility of the soil, and the fact that these depredators find in the great decrease of the grasses and weeds, which are their natural aliment, the necessity of preying upon the more precious crops, and that these in their turn cannot derive from the impoverished soil the means of replacing the tissues which the ravenous insects have devoured. This leads us to speak of the terrible plague of insects injurious to vegetation experienced during the past year. To a considerable extent these were new enemies. The army-worm and the boll-worm preyed upon the cotton as they had done before; the midge and the Hessian fly committed ravages among the cereal grains; the aphid or plant-louse family, universal pests, destroying with equal zest the life-juices of the hop, the rose, the potato, and the grape; and the grasshoppers were almost universally prevalent and destructive to grass, to herbage and foliage, not only on the plains of Kansas, Nebraska, and Iowa, but in the hills and valleys of the Eastern States. These were old foes. But the newer comers were the ten-lined spearman, or potato-bug, which has for some years committed such havoc upon the potato crop; the great variety of beetles large and small, which have attacked the roots of grasses and other plants; the larvæ of innumerable moth and butterfly tribes, from the odious measuring-worm, the *Procris* (those yellow worms with black dots which are found in colonies of from 15 to 100 on the under side of the grape leaves); the eight-barred *Alypia*, whose light-blue color banded with black renders him less disgusting than his depredations warrant; to the giant larvæ of the sphinx tribes, huge loathsome creatures of various shades, from light-green to velvety brown, and, prettier but equally destructive, the larvæ of the beautiful wood-nymphs. When we add to these the whole race of hairy caterpillars, and the crickets which devour so voraciously every green thing, we have an army of enemies, which will almost drive the horticulturist, the grape-grower, and the farmer, to despair.

How shall we rid ourselves of these pests? The birds, especially the sparrows, the swallows, the wrens, and the robins are good friends in this extremity, and if they claim a few strawberries, cherries, or grapes as toll, they have richly earned them by their activity and zeal. But the insect tribes were too abundant in the summer of 1868 to be completely kept under by any family of birds. The song-sparrows, the most active of these destroyers of noxious insects and worms, so glutted themselves that after a time they lost their appetite and became discouraged. Birds, too, do not readily find or seize those larvæ which colonize the under side of the leaves of the grape, the pelargonium, and other large-leaved plants. For these, other measures of destruction or prevention are needed. So far as the eggs, from which these depredators are hatched, are deposited in the

ground, or on the roots of plants, trees, and shrubs, the free use of the Phoenix disinfectant or some other powder, containing a considerable quantity of the carbolate of lime in fine powder, seems to be the most effectual remedy. But the greater part are hatched from eggs deposited on the plants themselves. For these, syringing or sprinkling with sulphur is the only effectual remedy. There are many washes or solutions recommended as certain to destroy these insect pests; some of them are doubtless effective, but they kill the plant as well as the insects. A solution of tobacco-soap, a filthy, disgusting compound, is largely advertised, but is not always efficacious; the suds from whale-oil soap, which is also strongly recommended, frequently fails; that of cresylic soap is better, and is perhaps preferable to any thing else, but there is danger to the plants if it is applied in too great strength. Numberless nostrums have been advertised as sure to accomplish the object, but those which are best owe their value to the presence of either cresylic or carbolic acid in some form of combination.

For the destruction of the "ten-lined spearman" or potato-bug (which, though belonging to the family of the *Cantharidæ*, like the potato blister-fly, *Cantharis vittata*, was well known in the Eastern States, is now named by entomologists *Doryphora decim lineata*, from its peculiar markings), various means have been recommended, but none of them thoroughly effective. The use of slaked lime in powder, sprinkled over the vines, of sawdust saturated with coal-oil, of brine (which must be much diluted or it will kill the plants as well as the bugs), of powdered hellebore (somewhat dangerous, being an active poison), and of soot, have all been recommended. We believe the suds from cresylic soap as good as any of them. Another method of exterminating the bugs is to take a double scoop-net, made something like an eel-pot, and passing it swiftly and vigorously over the potato vines, sweep them into it, and then, when once caught, drop them into boiling water. This is effectual, but it is tedious work.

The year was more prolific than most of those which preceded it, in the publication of really able and valuable books on agriculture and horticulture. The following were the most important: "The Agricultural" and the "Horticultural Annual" for 1868; "The book of Evergreens," by J. Hoopes; "Cotton Culture," by Lyman; "Darwin's Variations of Animals and Plants," 2 vols.; "Gardening for Profit," by Peter Henderson; Harris's "Insects injurious to Vegetation," a new edition; "How Crops Grow," by Professor S. W. Johnson; "The Percheron Horse;" Harris's "Rural Annual," 2 vols.; "The Tim Bunker Papers"; "The Crack Shot," by Barber; Du Breuil's "Vineyard Culture," edited by Dr. Warder; "Farm Talk," by Brackett; Geyelin's "Poultry Breeding;" Waring's "Elements of Agriculture."

ALABAMA. At the close of the previous year, on December 28th, Major-General John Pope having been relieved by President Johnson from the command of the Third Military District, comprising the States of Alabama, Georgia, and Florida, Major-General Meade was assigned to the same, and a change of the district commander of Alabama soon followed, by assigning Brigadier-General Julius Hayden to the position held by Major-General Wagner Swayne.

Early in the month of January, Major E. W. Crittenden, post commandant at Montgomery, issued a general order, forbidding military organizations of any character, except troops of the United States. He further directed that all such organizations, in existence, should be immediately disbanded; and that all mayors, sheriffs, or other civil authorities, should report at once every violation of this order.

One of the earliest acts of General Meade was to reinstate the clerk of the District Court, Charles R. Hubbard, who had been removed by General Swayne.

The relations existing at this time between the civil and military authorities of the district are explained in an order issued by General Meade, on January 15th, which was as follows:

General Orders, No. 10.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT, }
ATLANTA, GA., January 15, 1868. }

The frequency of reported outrages, and the accompanying expression of opinion of subordinate officers, that no justice is to be expected from the civil authorities, require notice and action on the part of the major-general commanding.

1. The commanding general desires it to be understood that the trial and punishment of criminals is to be left to the civil authorities, so long as the said authorities are energetic, active, and do justice to the rights of person and property without distinction of race or color. Whenever the major-general commanding is satisfied, from evidence produced, that the civil authorities fail to do their duty, then prompt action will be taken by him, both for the punishment of criminals, and the removal from office of delinquent civil officers.

2. The military are to coöperate with, and aid the civil authorities in the detection, capture, and custody of criminals, and they are further authorized, in cases where they have reason to believe that the civil authorities are not disposed to do their duty, to retain criminals in custody until the fact becomes evident, whether the civil authorities will or will not perform their duty—immediately reporting their action on all such cases to these headquarters.

3. Writs of *habeas corpus*, issued against criminals in the custody of the military, will be obeyed so far as to produce the body of the prisoner in court, and the making of a respectful return, setting forth the grounds and authority by which the prisoner is held. Should the court fail to respect the authority under which the prisoner was held, the custody of the criminal will not be transferred to the court without a reference to these headquarters.

4. The major-general desires to impress on the officers under his command the exercise of a sound discretion and good judgment. It is his determination to afford the civil authorities every opportunity to discharge their duties untrammelled by any action on the part of the military, but such as they, the civil authorities, may invite and desire. He makes this public notice to the civil authorities that they may be

governed thereby—assuring them that they shall be respected in the exercise of their powers so long as impartial justice is meted out to all; but the commanding general is determined to exercise, to the fullest extent, the plenary powers with which he is intrusted, to secure protection of person and property in the district he commands.

By command of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

There was much excitement, and strong partisan feeling, throughout the State, relative to the adoption or rejection of the new constitution proposed by the convention, held in 1867, under the Reconstruction Act of Congress. Meetings were held and addresses delivered, for and against it. The Conservative State committee called upon the people to form clubs, and thus concentrate their opposition to the measure. A conference, in opposition to the constitution, was held at Montgomery, and attended by influential delegates from all parts of the State. It issued an address to the people, setting forth the reasons for their opposition. They said the Constitution was framed by delegates representing merely the blacks and non-residents, and not the white inhabitants; nearly forty thousand of whom were disfranchised by the article on franchise, passed by the convention that formed the instrument, in order to secure its success. They further declared that so sweeping was the disfranchisement, that its effect would be to place the State government in the hands of the blacks and their abettors. In addition, every person wishing to vote was required to take a test-oath. In the opinion of the conference, this oath or affirmation, of itself, was rigid enough to disfranchise several thousands of conscientious voters. The address further stated as follows:

By the law of Congress as it now stands, a majority of the registered voters of the State must vote in the election, or the constitution is not adopted. There are about 167,000 registered voters in the State, so that it will require 84,000 votes to adopt the constitution.

We could not, under the unfair influences arrayed against us, reasonably hope to secure more than 84,000 votes against the constitution, and unless we do we would not accomplish more by voting than we would by refusing to vote. Then, the most certain way of defeating the constitution, as the law now stands, is to refrain from voting.

But, in the event the law is changed by Congress, and it is enacted that the majority of the votes cast shall decide upon the adoption or rejection of the constitution, the Congress will then have been forced to a departure from the law which it has ordained, and the rule which it has presented for itself and the people of the State, in determining whether this constitution should be the constitution of Alabama, and will be compelled to exhibit to the world the fact that the constitution they impose is not the constitution of the people of Alabama, but the constitution of a minority of the whole people, and that, a negro minority.

Could the constitution be defeated by voting against it under the assumed change in the law of Congress, with the unpropitious and hostile influences opposed to us? We are constrained to the opinion that it could be:

1. Because the negroes, as a body, will vote for its

adoption. To this there might be exceptions, but this would be the rule.

2. The machinery for conducting the registries, and the elections, is in the hands of those who favor the adoption of the constitution, and there are no sufficient means of purging the polls, or preventing or detecting frauds in the registration or in the management of the election.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted by the conference:

Resolved, 1. That we recommend to the people of Alabama, opposed to the constitution proposed by the convention, lately in session at Montgomery, to abstain from voting at all the elections to be held on the fourth and fifth of February, either upon the question of ratifying or rejecting that constitution, or for candidates for offices under it.

2. That we also recommend to the opponents of said constitution, that they form and maintain effective political organizations among themselves in every portion of the State, until they are delivered from the perils which are impending.

The thirtieth day of January was recommended to the people of the State as a day of fasting and prayer to Almighty God, to deliver the people of Alabama "from the horrors of negro domination."

A petition also was prepared by the people opposed to granting suffrage to the blacks, and presented to the lower House of Congress, in which they complained of the grievances under which they considered that the people of Alabama were suffering. They professed the humblest submission and obedience to the laws, and portrayed the poverty prevailing on account of the unsettled condition of the State, owing to the political animosities and strife existing. In conclusion, they said:

We are beset by secret oath-bound political societies; our character and conduct are systematically misrepresented and magnified to you and in the newspapers of the North; the intelligent and impartial administration of just laws is obstructed; industry and enterprise are paralyzed by the fears of the white men and the expectations of the black that Alabama will soon be delivered over to the rule of the latter; and many of our best people are, for these reasons, leaving the homes they love for other and strange lands. Continue over us, if you will do so, your own rule by the sword. Send down among us honorable and upright men of your own people, of the race to which you and we belong, and ungracious, contrary to wise policy and the institutions of the country, and tyrannous as it will be, no hand will be raised among us to resist by force their authority. But do not, we implore you, abdicate your rule over us, by transferring us to the blighting, brutalizing, and unnatural dominion of an alien and inferior race, a race which has never exhibited sufficient administrative ability for the good government of even the tribes into which it is broken up in its native seats; and which in all ages has itself furnished slaves for all the other races of the earth.

For the purpose of modifying order No. 49, issued during the previous year, Major-General Meade issued an order, dated February 2, 1868, in which he prohibits the insertion of official documents in all newspapers attempting to obstruct, in any manner, the civil officers in the discharge of their duties. He further said:

Opposition to reconstruction, when conducted in a legitimate manner, is not to be considered an offence;

but will be so considered when accompanied by violent and incendiary articles threatening the preservation of the peace, or by attempts to obstruct civil officers, as indicated in paragraph 1 of this order. Should any civil officer violate the provisions of this order, the case will be promptly reported to these headquarters.

On the 4th of February, the vote for and against the constitution, prepared in 1867, took place and passed off quietly. The whites, with unusual unanimity, abstained from the polls, and also a large number of blacks. The friends of the constitution made a most strenuous effort to poll as large a vote as possible, still they were defeated by about 15,000 votes. The time for taking the votes was also extended to four days, by order of Major-General Meade. About 70,000 votes were polled for the constitution, while it required about 85,000 to insure its success. The friends of the constitution elected the Governor, W. H. Smith, the Lieutenant-Governor, the members of Congress, and a large majority of the members of the Legislature.

About this time a bill, providing for the admission of Alabama as a State in the Union, was introduced in the lower House of Congress and referred to the Committee on Reconstruction. The majority of that committee submitted, on March 11th, to the House of Representatives, a report in favor of the bill, which was to establish the constitution thus rejected at the polls, chiefly on the ground that a severe storm prevented the attendance of the voters in the Republican part of the State.

A minority report was also submitted against the bill. Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, opposed the bill, on the ground that it would be wrong to force on the people of Alabama a constitution in face of such a vote. The bill was referred back to the committee, and a substitute reported and passed in the House, but not acted upon by the Senate.

On the 17th of February the recently-elected Legislature of Alabama met in the office of the *Sentinel* newspaper, at Montgomery. The Lieutenant-Governor, A. J. Applegate, called the Senate to order, and in his address to them said that he regretted the absence of Governor Smith. The fact that Congress had not voted on the bill to admit the State could make no difference, as there was no doubt that the Assembly was legally elected, and Congress would undoubtedly recognize whatever they might do. It was absolutely necessary for the Assembly to act in advance of Congress, because the life of the nation was in danger, and there was a pressing "necessity for two Senators from Alabama to sit upon the trial of that renegade and traitor, Andrew Johnson." The Assembly would be sustained by Congress and by General Meade. "General Meade has been in consultation with many of us for the last few days, and stands ready to sustain our action. If any other assistance were needed, Major-General Dustan, commanding the militia, can at an hour's notice surround our body with

several regiments of loyal troops. Let us have no fear, but face the danger like men who are ready to do their duty at all hazards. It is now my duty to say that the Senate of Alabama is organized and ready for duty."

After some unimportant business, the Senate adjourned.

The proceedings were annulled by the subsequent action of Congress in the admission of Alabama.

On the 28th of February, General Meade issued an order instructing all officers, whose duty it is made by law to provide for the relief of paupers, to extend relief to all persons entitled to claim and claiming the same as paupers, without any discrimination as to race or color. And that in all public institutions supported by legislative appropriation or taxation, for the benefit of the deaf and dumb, the blind, or insane, indigent colored persons should be received on the same conditions and enjoy all the benefits which white persons were entitled to receive and enjoy in such institutions.

About this time some difficulty arose between the military authorities and judiciary. The Hon. B. T. Pope, Judge of the Twelfth Judicial Court, was arrested and incarcerated, by First-Lieutenant Charles J. Johnson, commanding at Jacksonville, for violation of General Order No. 53, which instructed all judges to see that juries were empanelled "without discrimination." Judge Pope interpreted the order as meaning, "without discrimination as to color, but requiring the other qualifications required by statute." In this view he was sustained by Major-General Meade, who ordered his discharge from arrest, and censured the conduct of Lieutenant Johnson.

A military commission was convened on the 13th, at Selma, for the trial of several persons charged with riot and assault and battery. The indictment contained several charges and specifications. The court found all the prisoners, except two, guilty, and sentenced them to terms of imprisonment varying from one to five years, and a fine of five hundred dollars each. General Meade approved of the proceedings and findings, but mitigated the sentences. These trials caused more than ordinary excitement, from the fact that they came within the civil jurisdiction.

A State convention assembled at Montgomery on the 3d of June. After two days' deliberation it adopted a resolution in favor of sending delegates to the National Democratic Convention, to be held at New York, on the 4th of July, and passed the following resolutions:

Resolved, That, having entire confidence in the principles and the patriotism of the Democratic party, we hereby pledge ourselves to support the candidates of that party for President and Vice-President of the United States, to be nominated at the coming convention in the city of New York on the 4th of July next.

Resolved, That slavery having been prohibited in the State of Alabama by a convention of the people

thereof, held in September, 1865, we hereby again proclaim our faithful adherence to that ordinance, and we assure the people of the United States that there are no laws in force in this State, enacted by our authority, which make any distinction in the protection which they give the person and property of both races, and we hereby declare our solemn purpose that these laws shall be faithfully and impartially administered as soon as the military are withdrawn, and we are permitted to manage our own affairs.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Southern people, as well as all friends of free government, are eminently due to Andrew Johnson for the unflinching courage and unsurpassable ability with which he has acquitted himself of his official oath to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States; that this convention pays to him its respects and admiration, both as a patriot and a man, being incorruptible in both capacities, as proven by the ordeal through which he has just triumphantly passed.

About this time a meeting was held at Montgomery in support of General Grant for the presidency, at which some soldiers attended, who gave expression to their feelings in opposition to General Grant, and were strongly censured in a military order issued by Major W. F. Hartz, commanding the sub-District of Montgomery.

In the early part of June, a bill, for the admission of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Alabama, and Florida, passed both Houses of Congress over the President's veto, and these States thus became entitled to representation in Congress.

Immediately upon the passage of this bill, the Governor-elect, W. H. Smith, issued the following proclamation, convening the Legislature, in order to conform to the conditions of the act of Congress, and to ratify the proceedings of the constitutional convention:

MONTGOMERY, ALA., June 26, 1868.

Whereas, by the terms of an Act of the Congress of the United States, entitled an "Act to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida to representation in Congress," it is provided as follows:

"That, if the day fixed for the meeting of the Legislature of either of said States, by the constitution or ordinance thereof, shall have passed, or have so nearly arrived before the passage of this Act, that there shall not be time for the Legislature to assemble at the period fixed, such Legislature shall convene at the end of twenty days from the time this Act takes effect, unless the Governor shall sooner convene the same."

Now, therefore, I, William H. Smith, Governor-elect for the State of Alabama, by the power and authority in me vested by said Act of Congress, do hereby convene the Legislature of this State at the capitol, at the hour of 12 M., Monday, July 13, 1868.

W. H. SMITH, Governor-elect.

The Legislature accordingly assembled on July 13th. Of the 84 members comprising the House, 26 were blacks. Mr. J. Carraway (colored) was elected Speaker of the lower House. The following message from the Governor was read in the Senate:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, STATE OF ALABAMA, }
MONTGOMERY, July 13, 1868. }

Gentlemen of the Senate and House of Representatives:
I have received from Major-General Meade, commanding the Third Military District, an official order,

numbered 100, in regard to organizing the General Assembly of this State. A duly verified copy of the order is herewith communicated for your information.

W. H. SMITH, Prov'l Gov'r of Alabama.

General Orders, No. 100.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, FLORIDA, AND ALABAMA,
ATLANTA, GA., July 9, 1868.

Whereas, by virtue of the Act of Congress, which became a law June 25, 1868, and of the proclamation of the Governor-elect of the State of Alabama, issued in conformity therewith, the two Houses of the Legislature are directed to assemble at Montgomery on the 18th instant; and

Whereas, in view of the fact that until the State of Alabama has complied with the requirements of the acts of Congress entitling it to representation, all governmental officers in said State are provisional and subject to the direct authority of the district commander; and

Whereas, The usual hope of organizing legislative bodies is in this instance impracticable:

It is ordered—1. That the Hon. William H. Smith, Provisional Governor of the State of Alabama, proceed at 12 M., on the 18th instant, to effect such preliminary organization of both Houses of the Legislature as will enable the same to enter on the discharge of the duties assigned them by law. 2. That before each House shall be considered legally organized, the Provisional Governor will require that, in conformity with the reconstruction acts and act which became a law June 25, 1868, each House, before proceeding to any business beyond organization, shall take measures to purge itself of all members who may be disqualified from holding office under the provisions of Section 3, an amendment to the Constitution known as Article 14.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The president then informed the Senate that they, having complied with the requirements of Congress, were vested with full authority to transact the civil business.

In the House and Senate a resolution was adopted ratifying the 14th Article of Amendments to the Constitution of the United States, and also another, ratifying the resolutions of the Thirty-eighth Congress abolishing slavery.

The Governor, W. H. Smith, in his message strongly recommended the removal of all disabilities from the people of Alabama, and opposed any disfranchisement except for crime. He urged the necessity of a sound and thorough common-school system of education, stating that 37,600 of the adult white population of Alabama, in 1860, could neither read nor write, and that the colored people were still more deficient. He recommended the development of the agricultural and industrial interests of Alabama. Not having reports from the institutions of the State, he could not state their condition, or the details of the financial affairs of the Treasury. "In conclusion, gentlemen," he said, "you will pardon me for again reminding you that you have assembled to legislate in the interest of the whole people. Knowing you as I do, and judging of your motives by what I know of my own, I am assured that you will perform your duty in no bitter or partisan spirit, and that your acts will one and all promote the prosperity and welfare of every citizen."

The direction of affairs in the State was now turned over to the new civil authorities by General Meade, in the following order, issued on July 14th:

Whereas, Official information has been received at these headquarters from the Governor-elect of the State of Alabama, that the Legislature of said State, elected under the provisions of General Order No. 101, series of 1867, from these headquarters, has assembled and complied with the requisitions of the Act of Congress, which became a law June 25, 1868, entitled an "Act to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida to representation in Congress;" and whereas, said act states that, on compliance with the conditions therein set forth by any State, the officers of said State, duly elected and qualified under the constitution thereof, shall be inaugurated without delay, *it is therefore ordered*:

1. That all civil officers holding office in the State, whether by military appointment or by failure to have successors qualified, shall promptly yield their offices and turn over to their properly elected and qualified successors all public property, archives, books, records, etc., belonging to the same.

2. Whenever the military commander of the sub-District of Alabama, is officially notified of the inauguration of the State government elect, military authority under the Acts of Congress, known as the Reconstruction Laws, will be at an end in said State; and it is the duty of the sub-District commander to transfer every thing appertaining to the government of said State to the proper civil officers, and to abstain in future, upon any pretext whatever, from any interference with or control over the civil authorities of the State, or the persons and property of the citizens thereof.

3. On the inauguration of the civil government, all prisoners held in custody or by bonds for offences against the civil law will be turned over to the proper civil authority. In the mean time writs of *habeas corpus* from United States Courts will be respectfully obeyed and the decisions conformed to. Writs from State courts will have respectful returns made, stating prisoners are held by authority of the United States, and can only be released by writs issued by United States Courts.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The following is an extract from an order of General Meade's defining the military jurisdiction:

The several States comprising this military district, having by solemn acts of their Assemblies conformed to the requisitions of the acts of Congress which became a law June 25, 1868, and civil government having been inaugurated in each, the military power vested in the district commander by the Reconstruction Laws, by the provisions of these laws ceases to exist; and hereafter all orders issued from these headquarters, and bearing upon the rights of persons and property, will have in the several States of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, only such force as may be given to them by the courts and Legislatures of the respective States.

The late Secretary of State, Micah Taul, and the Attorney-General, John W. A. Sandford, protested against this order on the ground that, if Alabama was entitled to representation in Congress, it was because she was a member of the Union. Among the reserved rights of States was the power in each State to ordain and establish a constitution for itself and laws for its domestic government. The people of the State of Alabama rejected the constitution

proposed, and General Meade, in his report to General Grant, stated that the proposed constitution failed to receive a majority of registered votes, and was, therefore, rejected under the terms of the very act which, it was claimed, gave the election vitality.

The Senate Committee on Fees and Salaries reported on the House bill in regard to the pay of members and officers as follows: chaplain, \$4; secretary, \$10; assistant secretary, \$8; clerk, \$8; page, \$4; doorkeeper, \$6; president, \$12; members, \$8; sergeants, \$6; mileage, 80 cents; which was passed, but vetoed by the Governor, as the pay of members was fixed by the law of 1861, and the constitution forbade an increase of pay during the sitting of the Legislature.

The Legislature also passed a bill, giving to itself the power of casting the electoral vote of the State for President of the United States, which was vetoed by Governor Smith. In his veto, dated August 12th, he said:

After the most mature reflection, I am forced to the conclusion that the bill is wrong in principle, and that it would be a dangerous precedent in a republican government. As my judgment does not approve the bill, it is my constitutional duty to return it to the Senate with my objections. It cannot but be regarded as remarkable that the first Legislature convened in Alabama shall, in face of the principles of its organization, which every republican professes to hold dear, deny not only to the colored but the white man the right, by his vote, to indicate his choice for President and Vice-President of the United States, and take the matter in its own hands. What excuse can there be for it? Is it mere party expediency? If so, then it is an abandonment of the principles and an acknowledgment that the material out of which the Republican party is composed cannot be trusted. In other words, it is to say that colored men will not do to be trusted. This action of the General Assembly will be regarded as still more remarkable when it is considered in connection with what seems to have been the almost unanimous opinion of the leading members of the Republican party of Alabama.

On the 11th, the Senate passed the following bill for the removal of disabilities, which was not adopted in the House:

Sec. 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Alabama, That all the disabilities imposed by the second clause of the Third Section of Article Seven of the constitution of the State of Alabama, shall be and the same are hereby removed, as fully to all intents and purposes as though no such disabilities had been imposed, from all citizens who shall file an application with the Judge of Probate of the county in which such citizens may reside, in the following terms, to wit: I, —, a citizen of — county, State of Alabama, do make this application for relief from the disabilities imposed upon me by the second clause of the Third Section of the Seventh Article of the constitution of the State of Alabama and to be restored to the rights of citizenship.

Sec. 2. Be it further enacted, That it shall be the duty of the Probate Judge to file all applications made in pursuance of the provisions of this act in his office, but he shall not be entitled to any fee or charge for receiving or filing such application.

Several unimportant measures were adopted, and on the 13th of August the Legislature adjourned until the 1st Monday in November. But it was again convened on September 16th,

by a proclamation of the Governor, chiefly to provide for the registration of voters at the presidential election. A committee of seven was appointed to consider that part of the Governor's message relating to registration. On the 21st September a joint resolution and memorial to the President of the United States passed the Legislature, calling upon him to detail a sufficient force of troops for the State, to secure protection, as the laws were neither respected nor obeyed, and violence had been committed, in many cases, upon human life. It stated that officers had been intimidated from the discharge of their duties, and many forced to resign.

No action was taken on the petition of the Legislature. On the 1st October, the registration bill passed both Houses, and subsequently received the Governor's assent. It empowered the Secretary of State to appoint one registrar in each county, who would have the power of appointing deputies. A bill providing for the election was passed. An amendment of the Senate made it a misdemeanor for any person to challenge a voter.

The political canvass for the presidential election was vigorously carried on by both parties throughout the State; clubs were organized, meetings held, and the greatest excitement and enthusiasm prevailed. The Legislature, which had adjourned after passing the registration law, met again on November 1.

The Governor's message chiefly dwelt upon the resources of the State, and the importance of encouraging Northern capital to develop them. It called attention to the outrages perpetrated by secret societies, particularly in Northern Alabama, and recommended a limited appropriation to the State agricultural fair to open at Montgomery on the 18th of the month.

The presidential election passed over more quietly than was anticipated from the strong feeling on both sides. The Democrats carried the State by a majority of about 4,000 votes; even a large number of blacks voted that ticket.

The financial condition of Alabama appears to be gradually improving. The indebtedness of the State consists of bonded, trust fund, and miscellaneous. The bonded indebtedness amounts to \$4,726,200; the trust fund and miscellaneous to \$3,051,746. Total, with temporary loans, \$7,904,116. The receipts for the year ending September 30, 1868, were \$1,577,144; of which there was collected from general taxes and licenses, \$726,327. The total assessment of real estate for the same period was about \$98,908,572, and of personal property, \$26,037,572.

The cotton returns for the year were also satisfactory. The three last years show that the supply is on the increase. The receipts at domestic and foreign ports were, for 1866, 429,102 bales; in 1867, 329,516 bales; in 1868, 400,000 bales. The tax on the cotton of Alabama, for the year 1868, at \$12.50 per bale, amounted to about \$5,000,000.

ALASKA. The treaty with Russia for the transfer of this territory to the United States, and the payment of \$7,200,000, in coin, were executed in full during 1867. The new north-western boundary of the United States, established by this treaty, may be described as commencing at a point between the Diomed Islands, nearly in the middle of Behring's Straits, about one degree south of the Arctic Circle, in latitude 66° ; it reaches from thence on the meridional line of $168^{\circ} 50' W.$, toward the North Pole of the earth; thence south to the shore of the Arctic Ocean, at about longitude 143° west, and latitude $69^{\circ} 30'$, including Kotzebue Sound, Cape Lisburne, Icy Cape, Point Franklin, Point Barrow, Smith's Bay, and other points which are regarded as historical in Arctic exploration, within the territory of the United States. From the Diomed Islands in a southwesterly direction, it extends to latitude 50° in longitude about 168° east, being about 30° of longitude farther to the west than the Sandwich Islands.

So that, at the present time, the territory of the United States extends in an east and west direction from longitude 67° west (at Eastport, Me.), to longitude 168° east, in the North Pacific Ocean (beyond the most westerly island of the Aleutian group), equal to 125° of longitude, which, on a parallel of 45° north, would be equal to about 5,303 geographical or 6,187 statute miles.

The population of Alaska is reported by the military commander to be 8,000 whites and 15,000 Indians. By an act of Congress the country is made a revenue district of the United States, and Sitka established as the port of entry. The military force of the United States in the territory consists of two full regiments of infantry and nine companies of cavalry.

The representatives of the Federal Government, when they went to Sitka to receive a transfer of the territory, were accompanied by scientific explorers, of whom Professor Davidson has made some interesting statements of his investigations to the Academy of Natural Science at San Francisco.

After describing the geographical features of the country visited by the Coast Survey party under his charge, the marks of glacial action, volcanoes, etc., he described the influence of the great current of warm water which crosses the Pacific Ocean from the coasts of Formosa (in latitude 22° , longitude 238° west) and the easternmost point of Japan, and strikes upon the coast of North America south of Sitka. It is this great, warm river of the ocean which gives the mild climate to Alaska, as the Atlantic Gulf stream makes Great Britain and Norway inhabitable.

This great, warm stream leaves the coast of Japan about latitude 35° , and passes eastward to the latitude of 48° and longitude 148° , where one branch turns sharply toward Sitka, and the greater volume of water passes southward along the coast of Queen Charlotte and Van-

couver islands, and the coasts of Washington, Oregon, and California.

The warm stratum of air above this vast mass of warm water is necessarily laden with aqueous vapor, and, coming in contact with the colder air from the continent, a condensation of vapor and precipitation of rain is the consequence. This humidity of the climate sustains the immense growth of timber with which the whole country along the seaboard abounds. The largest trees climb the steepest mountain-sides to elevations of two thousand five hundred to three thousand feet. The Sitka spruce was cut and measured four feet diameter and one hundred and eighty feet long, and others determined to be two hundred and fifty feet high and six feet diameter. The yellow cedar (*Cupressus sitchensis*) was found six feet in diameter and estimated to be one hundred and fifty feet high; it commences about latitude $54^{\circ} 34'$ and extends throughout the archipelago from $54^{\circ} 40'$ to $59^{\circ} 15'$ —how much farther north was not examined.

This is the best wood on the coast for ship-building and cabinet-work. Specimens of this wood from a wrecked vessel of the Russian-American Company were shown. The vessel had been built thirty-two years, and lying a wreck for six years, yet the timbers and keelson were as sound as the day when the vessel was built, and the iron and copper bolts were unoxidized, and the wood around them well preserved. Under ground its preservative qualities are equally remarkable, as was illustrated by timber at Fort Simpson, that had been under ground twenty years, and taken out as sound as the day it was cut.

When it is known that the shore line of the islands, bays, inlets, and straits of the archipelago amount to seven thousand eight hundred and sixty statute miles, the inexhaustible supply of this part only of the territory may be readily comprehended. For comparison it was stated that the shore line of Washington Territory, from Columbia River to the northern boundary, including Washington Sound, Admiralty Inlet, Puget's Sound, and Hood's Canal, amounted to only two thousand and twenty-eight statute miles.

Temperature and rainfall, etc., at Sitka, from fourteen years' observation at the Imperial Observatory at New Archangel.

Temperature Fahrenheit.	Rain in inches.	Total.
March..... $35^{\circ}.5$	4.8 14.0
April..... $41^{\circ}.2$	5.0Spring.
May..... $47^{\circ}.2$	4.1
June..... $47^{\circ}.2$	4.0
July..... $51^{\circ}.7$	4.1 15.4
August..... $55^{\circ}.3$	7.3Summer.
Sept'r..... $51^{\circ}.2$	10.5
October..... $44^{\circ}.2$	11.9 30.8
Nov..... $37^{\circ}.1$	8.5Autumn.
December..... $31^{\circ}.7$	8.2
January..... $31^{\circ}.1$	7.6 $22^{\circ}.9$
February..... $32^{\circ}.9$	7.1Winter.

83.1 for year.

* About the monthly average of Pennsylvania.

Yearly mean $42^{\circ}.9$, or 3° warmer than the middle of Norway, or six inches less than Astoria at the mouth of Columbia River. Greatest rainfall, ninety-six inches, in 1850; least, fifty-eight and six-tenths inches, in 1861. Greatest in one month, twenty-one and three-tenths, August, 1867; least, six and a half, in November, 1853. In the same month of August, 1867, the records of the Smithsonian Institution show that eighteen inches fell in Eastern Pennsylvania! The yearly average of days upon which rain, snow, and hail fell, or on which fog prevailed, for fourteen years, was two hundred and forty-five.

It is to be noted that the above results are from observations made hourly throughout the year.

The harbor of Sitka never freezes, and its ice is unfit for the San Francisco market, which derives its supply from Kodiak, in latitude $57^{\circ} 47'$, or 15° north of Boston.

At Kodiak, some years, thermometer never runs below zero. Lisiansky says that, in 1805, the thermometer did not fall below 38° until December 24th, when it reached 26° . The coldest day that year was January 22d, when the thermometer was above zero.

Ice forms from fifteen to twenty-four inches each year. Coldest temperatures noted are by the ice company's agents within the last fifteen years, when the thermometer has reached 18° below zero, but the men worked without extra clothing, as the air was perfectly calm. The ice is not thicker than that about Boston, although nine hundred geographical miles farther north!

Climate of Ounalaska from nine years' observation of Bishop Benjaminoff.

Temperature Fahrenheit.	
March..... $29^{\circ}.9$Spring $33^{\circ}.9$
April..... $33^{\circ}.4$	
May..... $41^{\circ}.3$	
June..... $46^{\circ}.2$Summer $49^{\circ}.6$
July..... $50^{\circ}.6$	
August..... $51^{\circ}.9$	
September..... $43^{\circ}.7$	
October..... $36^{\circ}.7$Fall $37^{\circ}.5$
November..... $32^{\circ}.4$	
December..... $29^{\circ}.0$	
January..... $29^{\circ}.5$Winter $30^{\circ}.1$
February..... $31^{\circ}.0$	

$37^{\circ}.8$ for the year, or $5^{\circ}.1$ below that of Sitka.

The highest temperature recorded is $77^{\circ}.0$, and the lowest only $0^{\circ}.6$ below zero, but only upon ten occasions was it recorded less than 10° above zero.

Seventy American whalers yearly fish on this coast, to ten English and French. At present the principal fishing-ground is in the region of Behring's Straits, on account of the shallowness of the Behring Sea and Arctic Ocean, which have only thirty fathoms of water. On the great Fairweather ground, between Sitka and the entrance to Cook's Inlet, in 60° , the greater depth of water enabled the whale to "sound" without touching bottom, and to come up far away and in uncertain

directions from the boat; but in the shoaler water he invariably struck bottom, came up, straight from the point struck, with his head enveloped in a mud coat, and was easily taken. But the "Fairweather ground" is so covered with whale when the "whale feed" covers those waters in June and July, that the old navigators frequently mistook the spouting of the hundreds around them for the surf breaking upon sunken rocks.—(See *Dixon, Meares, Portlock, etc.*)

The great value of the territory consists in the immense banks of cod, the woods, the furs, and the deposits of coal, of which persons found and brought away specimens. This coal was found close to navigable waters, and by analysis proved superior to any bituminous on the Pacific; the exact locality of the vein or veins was not discovered on account of the lateness of the season, etc., but the geologist and mining engineer with the officials of the Government reported that all the accompanying geological conditions existed for good coal. The specimens were found for a distance of between five and seven miles.

ALLEN, WILLIAM, D. D., an eminent scholar, teacher, and author, President successively of Dartmouth University and Bowdoin College, born in Pittsfield, Mass., January 2, 1784; died in Northampton, Mass., July 16, 1868. He was the son of Rev. Thomas Allen, the first minister of Pittsfield, a patriot of the Revolution. His mother was a daughter of Rev. Jonathan Lee, of Salisbury, Conn., a descendant, in the fifth generation, from Governor Bradford of Plymouth. Entering Harvard College at the early age of fourteen, Mr. Allen graduated in the class of 1802, and commenced his theological studies with Rev. Dr. Pierce, of Brookline, the famous genealogist. In 1804 he was licensed to preach by the Berkshire Association. In 1805 he received the appointment of Regent or Proctor of Harvard College, succeeding Rev. William Ellery Channing in this position, and was also Assistant Librarian of the College. He resided, in these capacities, in Cambridge for six years, devoting himself sedulously to intellectual pursuits. During this period he prepared the first edition of his *American Biographical Dictionary* (published in 1809), which contained biographical sketches of about seven hundred eminent Americans. He also contributed, in 1807, to Drs. Bogue and Bennett's (English) *History of the Dissenters*, "Historical and Biographical Sketches, or an Account of Religion in America," a manuscript of 180 pages. In 1810 he delivered the Phi Beta Kappa oration at Harvard College, Washington Allston being poet the same year. In October, 1810, he was ordained as successor to his father to the pastorate of the Congregational Church in Pittsfield. In 1813 he preached the annual election sermon before the Legislature of Massachusetts. He was married the same year to Maria Malleville Wheelock, daughter of Hon. John Wheelock,

second President of Dartmouth College. In 1816 the Legislature of New Hampshire altered the charter of Dartmouth College and made it a university, of which Dr. Allen was in 1817 appointed President, as successor to his father-in-law. When the legislation of the State of New Hampshire in the famous "Dartmouth College Case" was annulled in 1819, by the Supreme Court of the United States, and the rights of the college were maintained, Dr. Allen was appointed President of Bowdoin College, in which office he served from 1820 till 1839, when he resigned and removed to Northampton. In 1831 he was subjected to serious embarrassment in his official relations in consequence of certain acts of the Maine Legislature, touching colleges, which virtually took from him the office of President for about two years; but the subsequent action of the Supreme Court restored him to his place, and he continued to discharge his duties with all fidelity, till impaired health rendered a change necessary.

During his residence at Northampton, a period of nearly thirty years, he was constantly engaged in literary pursuits, but for some years preached occasionally in that and the adjacent towns. In all the benevolent enterprises of the day he was actively interested, especially in the cause of foreign missions, being a corporate member of the American Board, and the senior member of that body at the time of his death. He was an earnest advocate of peace, and represented the American Peace Society at the International Peace Congress, which assembled at Paris in 1849. He defended the rights of the African race throughout the world. He believed in the utility of planting colonies of free colored emigrants in Africa, as a means of redressing the unutterable wrongs done to that quarter of the globe by Christian nations, while he favored the speediest possible emancipation of every slave on earth. He was a careful observer of public affairs and political parties. He sympathized warmly with every token of progress in the anti-slavery movement of the present century, his memory covering the whole period of its history. His labors as a student and author were such as few men have been able to perform, and were undoubtedly too great for his health. He was an elegant classical scholar, and well versed in physical science, his knowledge of mineralogy and botany in particular being very thorough. Few men were more completely masters of English politics, history, and literature, than he, while his familiarity with modern languages enabled him to comprehend and enjoy the politics and literature of the Continental nations. In 1832 he published a revised and enlarged edition of his *American Biographical Dictionary*, in which the number of biographical sketches exceeded eighteen hundred, and in 1857 he issued a third revision, including seven thousand names. The preparation of such a work, involving as it did an immense

correspondence, was itself the sufficient labor of a lifetime; but Dr. Allen's intellectual activity enabled him to accomplish a vast amount of additional labor. In 1828 he published an elaborate essay entitled "Junius Unmasked," in which he attempted to demonstrate that Lord Sackville was Junius. In 1845 appeared his "Memoirs of Rev. Eleazar Wheelock, D. D.," the first President of Dartmouth College; in 1848 his *Historical Discourse at Dorchester, on the Fortieth Anniversary of the Second Church*; in 1853 a "Memoir of John Codman, D. D.," in 1854 an "Address at the Close of the Second Century since the Settlement of Northampton;" in 1856, "Wunnipoo, a Tale of the Hoosatunnuk;" in 1860, "Christian Sonnets;" in 1866, "Poems of Nazareth and the Cross;" and in 1867, "Sacred Songs." In addition to these, he had compiled a collection of "Psalms and Hymns," many of the latter original, long in use in Massachusetts; contributed at various times to Webster's Dictionary more than ten thousand words not found in other dictionaries of the English language, and had published at various times thirty-five other sermons, addresses, essays, and extended poems, besides numerous contributions to the *Panoplist* and other periodicals. "He was," says an intimate friend, "a thorough gentleman of the old school, a devout Christian, an old-fashioned New-England theologian, an antislavery republican, a wide and faithful student of New-England history, and a good and warm-hearted laborer in every true word and work."

ALLIANCE, EVANGELICAL.* At the general meeting of the Evangelical Alliance, held at Amsterdam, in 1867, an invitation was presented on behalf of the American branch, to hold the next meeting in New York. The invitation was favorably received, and a desire was generally expressed to hold the next meeting after a shorter interval than usual. The British branch, in particular, urgently recommended the holding of the next meeting in the year 1869. At a meeting held in London on July 8th, a series of resolutions to that effect was adopted assigning, among others, the following considerations, as having influenced their opinion:

1. The Council have rejoiced much in the laudable readiness which has been of late manifested on both sides of the Atlantic to seize upon every occurrence in the ordinary course of Providence, that might be improved for the purpose, to elicit the kind and generous sentiments cherished by the people of the two countries toward each other; and they cannot but think that the Alliance will be wise to take advantage of this state of public feeling, and by holding their meeting sooner, perhaps, than was at first contemplated, contribute all the more certainly, under the divine blessing, to strengthen and render it permanent.

2. The Council cannot look without anxiety on the state of the European Continental nations, and the many causes which, unless restrained by the Almighty arm, may in an unexpected moment disturb the pres-

* For a brief history of the Evangelical Alliance, see the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867.

ent tranquillity, and endanger the peace of the world, and thus prevent the possibility of the intended conference being held.

3. The attitude of the Papal power toward nations which have recently asserted the right of self-government, and are in various ways breaking off its yoke, and have proclaimed religious liberty to their subjects, together with its vigorous activity in Protestant countries, and the growth and prevalence still further of various forms of intellectual infidelity and practical atheism in all nations, strongly impress the Council with the conviction that evangelical Christians must be more than ever united and active, nor be slow to fulfil the great duties to which the times so loudly call them.

4. And, finally, the Council would be ungrateful not to recognize the manifold and rich blessings by which all the General Conferences of the Alliance have been attended and followed, thus leading to and justifying the inference, both that they are signalized by the approbation of our Divine Redeemer, and that their recurrence, as often as Providence permits, is pleasing to Him and tends to advance His glory.

For these and similar reasons, the council of the English branch inquired whether the autumn of 1869 might not be looked to, on the supposition that circumstances in the United States and in Europe should favor it, as the probable time of holding the conference.

The American branch, in compliance with this request, resolved to hold the next General Conference of the Alliance in the city of New York, in the autumn of 1869.

AMERICA. The transfer of the extensive possessions of Russia in Northwestern America to the United States, which had been provided for by the treaty of the 29th of March, 1867, was in 1868 ratified by the Senate of the United States. Thus the area of the independent American States has been considerably enlarged. The purchase of the two Danish islands, St. Thomas and St. John, was ratified by an almost unanimous vote of the inhabitants, but no action was taken upon it by the Senate of the United States. In Cuba, a war for establishing the independence of the island broke out in September, and at the close of the year the insurgents still held control of the town of Bayamo, and a considerable portion of the Eastern District. In Nova Scotia, the popular dissatisfaction with the establishment of the Dominion of Canada was so great that annexation to the United States was generally declared to be preferable to a union with Canada.

The war of Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and Uruguay against Paraguay, continued throughout the year. The progress of the allies was slow, and at the close of the year President Lopez was still a formidable opponent. Imprudently, President Lopez got into a serious difficulty with the minister of the United States in Paraguay, Mr. Washburn; but when the successor of Mr. Washburn, General McMahon, called upon him, he guaranteed full atonement for any outrage that might have been committed upon the American flag. (*See PARAGUAY.*)

No acts of hostility took place between Spain and the allied Republics of Chili, Peru, Bolivia, and Ecuador, although a formal peace

had, at the close of the year, not been concluded. The provisional government of Spain showed, however, a desire to come to an understanding, and it was announced that, in accordance with the proposition made by the Government of the United States, a peace conference, attended by representatives of all the belligerent powers, would meet, in the course of the winter, in Washington.

The number of civil wars in Spanish America was as great as ever. The established governments were overthrown in San Domingo, Costa Rica, Venezuela, Peru, and Uruguay. In the last-named state, President Flores lost his life together with his office. Civil wars also raged in Mexico, Hayti, and in the United States of Colombia. In Ecuador, the President was censured by Congress, and resigned.

Bloody wars with the Indians had to be sustained by the governments of the United States, Mexico, the Argentine Republic, and Chili; and in neither of these states is there yet a prospect of lasting peace.

The establishment of a regular monthly steamship line between the United States and China and Japan, the rapid progress of the Pacific Railroad, which it is thought may be complete in the course of the year 1869 or 1870, the connection of the United States with Cuba, are prominent events in the commercial history of America. The importance of these agencies of modern civilization is everywhere recognized. All the independent governments of America have directed their attention to the encouragement of new steamboat and telegraph lines, and to the increase of railroads; and the time seems to be very near when the capitals of all the American States will be connected by telegraph. Immigration also is encouraged by all the American states, though many of the South American states cannot expect to obtain any considerable results so long as they are not willing to establish religious toleration.

In the United States considerable agitation was kept up by a diversity of opinion between the President and the majority of Congress, relative to the reconstruction of the Southern States, and the constitutionality of some of the acts passed by Congress on this subject. In the progress of this conflict, President Johnson was impeached, but acquitted. The presidential election resulted in the triumph of the Republican party, and the choice of General Grant for President. At the close of the year, all the Southern States except three—Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas—having complied with the conditions demanded by the congressional Acts of Reconstruction, were represented in the national Congress. In December, President Johnson issued a proclamation of universal amnesty. At the beginning of the year 1869, the internal condition of the country was more quiet than at any previous period since the beginning of the civil war in 1861. (*See UNITED STATES.*)

The following table shows the area and population of each of the independent American states, and of the possessions of the European powers in 1868.

STATES.	Area.	Population.
<i>I. Independent American States.</i>		
Argentine Republic.....	826,828	1,465,000
Bolivia.....	535,769	1,987,352
Brazil.....	3,281,047	11,780,000
Chili.....	132,624	2,084,960
Colombia.....	357,179	2,920,473
Costa Rica.....	21,495	135,000
Ecuador.....	218,984	1,300,000
Guatemala.....	44,778	1,180,000
Haiti.....	10,205	572,000
Honduras.....	47,092	350,000
Mexico.....	773,144	8,137,853
Nicaragua.....	58,169	400,000
Paraguay.....	126,352	1,337,431
Peru.....	510,107	2,500,000
San Domingo.....	17,826	136,500
San Salvador.....	7,335	600,000
United States.....	3,578,392	34,560,000
Uruguay.....	66,716	350,000
Venezuela.....	368,235	2,200,000
Total.....	11,132,277	73,996,069
<i>II. European Possessions.</i>		
British Possessions.....	3,636,375	4,835,541
French Possessions.....	36,177	315,677
Spanish Possessions.....	52,085	1,979,833
Dutch Possessions.....	63,115	92,521
Danish Possessions.....	759,933	48,231
Swedish Possessions.....	16	2,898
Total.....	4,547,701	7,274,706

ANDERSSON, CHARLES JOHN, an eminent African explorer and author, born in Sweden, about 1812; died in or near Ondonga, one of the towns of the Ovambo, in Herero-Land, Southwestern Africa, in January, 1868. From his childhood, Andersson was fond of adventure, and delighted in field-sports, hunting, and the study of natural history in the field. He had achieved considerable reputation in his own country as a naturalist, when, in 1849, he visited England, of which country his mother was a native, bringing with him a fine collection of living animals and birds, as well as many prepared specimens, illustrating very fully the *fauna* of Sweden. He had long cherished the hope of being able to visit Africa, and then to explore new regions, and make collections in natural history, which should be unrivalled in their extent and perfection; but the expenses incident to such an expedition had deterred him; and he now desired to dispose, if possible, of his collections on such terms as to be able to explore Iceland, and study the habits of its rare birds. While making arrangements for this purpose, he fell in with an Englishman, named Galton, who was about to go to South Africa, on a hunting expedition, and invited Andersson to accompany him, offering to bear all the expenses of the journey. Andersson eagerly embraced this offer, and, sailing from England, in the early spring of 1850, reached Cape Town on the 24th of June in that year. For the next

four years he was engaged, most of the time, in hunting, and exploring the region lying north of the Orange River, in South Africa, and made many valuable contributions to our knowledge of that country. For the first two years he was accompanied by his friend Galton, but for the last two his only companions were his servants and the savages. He visited Lake Ngami, which no European, except Livingstone, had then explored; reaching it by a new route, and ascending the Tioge, its principal northern affluent, for a considerable distance. In 1855, he returned to England, and published his "Lake Ngami; or, Discoveries in Southwestern Africa," which was eagerly sought after. But the love of adventure was a ruling passion with him, and he presently returned to South Africa, revisited Lake Ngami, in 1858; ascended the Tioge River to a higher point than before, and then, in company with an English elephant-hunter, Mr. Green, who still survives, made his way up the Okavango, the principal tributary of the Tioge, from the northwest, to about lat. 18° S., and long. 18° E. from Greenwich. Here they left the river, and moving first southwest, and then south-southeast, traversed the province of the Ovambo, one of the principal red tribes of Herero-Land. At this time no European, except the German missionary Hugo Hahn, had visited this country. The region visited by Andersson was only the north-eastern portion of the country; but he was very favorably impressed by it. While here he was severely injured by a wounded elephant, and at first reported dead. He recovered, however, and published an account of his discoveries, with the title "The Okavango River, a Narrative of Travel." He returned to Herero-Land again, we believe, in 1861, by way of Walfisch Bay, and ascended the Zwachaub, a considerable distance. After exploring, with Mr. Hahn, various portions of the country, he purchased from Tjikongo, the King of Herero-Land, a large tract of land near the capital, Ondonga, and commenced breeding cattle on a large scale. The Namaquas made a raid upon his herds and drove off a great number of cattle, and in his pursuit and battle with the marauders, to recover his stolen property, he was severely wounded, his thigh bone being shattered so badly as to make him a cripple for life. He was removed to Cape Town for surgical aid; but, after his partial recovery, returned to Ondonga, and undertook to furnish the materials for an "Illustrated Fauna of Southwestern Africa." He had made considerable progress on this at the time of his death.

ANGLICAN CHURCHES. The following table, from the *Church Almanac* for 1869, exhibits the number of clergymen, parishes, communicants, teachers and scholars of Sunday-schools, and the amount of church, missionary and charitable contributions for each diocese:

DIOCESES.	Clergy.	Parishes.	COMMUNICANTS.		SUNDAY-SCHOOLS.		Contributions for missionary and church purposes.
			Increase.	Present number.	Teachers.	Scholars.	
Alabama.....	28	26	21	2,001	*183	*1,754	†\$20,000 00
California.....	42	40	...	†1,500	226	1,910	70,330 01
Connecticut.....	149	134	912	15,934	1,773	11,578	219,014 17
Delaware.....	25	31	125	1,472	293	2,838	23,348 59
Florida.....	16	14	226	738	116	613	7,394 30
Georgia.....	30	31	204	2,428	187	1,714	20,841 18
Illinois.....	*90	*32	1,320	5,280	880	6,674	196,993 79
Indiana.....	36	32	270	2,102	434	3,335	54,329 86
Iowa.....	38	54	224	1,684	293	2,122	26,604 32
Kansas.....	14	14	...	373	68	514	11,254 89
Kentucky.....	*38	*35	...	*2,796	*376	*2,767	†50,000 00
Louisiana.....	36	48	...	1,864	221	1,795	†30,000 00
Maine.....	19	20	105	1,632	224	1,769	66,236 45
Maryland.....	165	139	1,149	12,269	1,200	10,044	145,348 56
Massachusetts.....	121	87	440	10,867	...	8,254	247,313 53
Michigan.....	62	77	678	5,568	814	5,700	68,833 00
Minnesota.....	44	46	560	2,280	220	1,963	45,559 25
Mississippi.....	27	44	558	1,540	136	850	†10,000 00
Missouri.....	24	30	205	2,061	297	2,184	†70,000 00
Nebraska.....	20	15	...	701	73	669	14,327 54
New Hampshire.....	23	22	11	1,235	107	820	16,265 05
New Jersey.....	121	112	294	9,140	1,316	10,673	285,371 06
New York.....	446	341	1,575	33,300	3,759	39,532	1,005,138 21
North Carolina.....	49	73	201	3,033	...	2,752	28,714 81
Ohio.....	101	103	337	8,023	1,006	7,036	229,901 80
Pennsylvania.....	216	177	2,265	20,445	2,526	25,284	620,593 00
Pittsburg.....	50	51	254	2,883	433	3,298	145,243 00
Rhode Island.....	39	32	163	4,443	640	4,970	119,834 28
South Carolina.....	57	59	364	3,074	205	1,250	23,248 26
Tennessee.....	35	28	...	1,256	...	1,407	23,299 68
Texas.....	18	35	...	1,500	191	1,164	10,076 59
Vermont.....	24	36	101	2,361	...	1,809	†15,000 00
Virginia.....	116	172	1,053	7,575	925	5,596	52,331 00
Western New York.....	168	172	...	16,761	2,021	14,491	351,290 00
Wisconsin.....	69	60	750	4,573	568	4,287	133,852 10

The general statistical summary was as follows:

Dioceses.....	39
Bishops.....	47
Bishops-elect.....	2
Priests and deacons.....	2,687
Whole number of clergy.....	2,736
Parishes.....	2,472
Ordinations—Deacons.....	108
Priests.....	93
Total.....	206
Candidates for orders.....	331
Churches consecrated.....	33
Baptisms—Infants.....	26,835
Adults.....	7,067
Not stated.....	1,800
Total.....	35,702
Confirmations.....	21,958
Communicants—increase in 27 dioceses during past year.....	14,365
Present number.....	194,692
Marriages.....	9,945
Burials.....	15,346
Sunday-school teachers.....	21,711
Scholars.....	194,046
Contributions.....	\$4,457,888 23

The receipts of the *Board of Missions*, in its domestic department, during the years 1867 and 1868, were \$138,367: from legacies, \$9,005; in the foreign department, \$63,369; from legacies, \$3,558. The domestic department employs 162 missionaries. The statistics of the foreign department are as follows:

Stations, 28; missionaries, foreign, 17; native, 14; assistants, 42; teachers and catechists, 35; candidates for orders, 10; day-scholars, 1,300; Sunday-school scholars, 900; baptisms, 97; confirmations, 117; communicants, 628. The missions of the Board are in Liberia, China, Japan, and Hayti. The *American Church Missionary Society* reported, in 1868, an income of \$89,406, being an increase of \$7,081 from the previous year. This society employs 109 missionaries in the United States, and 1 in South America. The receipts of the *Evangelical Education Society* amounted to \$34,837, and had, at the end of the financial year (the second of its existence), 130 students dependent upon it for means to enable them to prepare for the ministry. The *Society for the Increase of the Ministry* had an income of about \$26,000; the *Evangelical Knowledge Society*, of \$44,635.

In Ireland there are two archbishops and ten bishops, divided among the two provinces as follows: *Armagh*.—Armagh, Derry, Down, Kilmore, Meath, Tuam. *Dublin*.—Dublin, Cashel, Cloyne, Killaloe, Limerick, Ossory.

Outside of the United Kingdom the following dioceses are in connection with the Church of England:

In Europe.—Gibraltar.

In Asia.—Calcutta (metropolitan), Bombay, Labuan and Sarawack, Madras, Colombo, Victoria; Jerusalem.

* Taken from the Convention Journal of 1867.

† Estimated.

In Africa.—Cape Town (metropolitan), Mauritius, Grahamstown, St. Helena, Orange River State, Central Africa, Natal, Sierra Leone, Niger region.

In Australia and Polynesia.—Sydney (metropolitan), Adelaide, Melbourne, New Castle, Perth, Brisbane; Goulburn, Tasmania, New Zealand (metropolitan), Christ Church, Nelson, Wellington, Waiaku, Dunedin, Melanesia, Honolulu, Grafton, and Armidale.

In America.—Montreal (metropolitan), Toronto, Newfoundland, Fredericton, Nova Scotia, Huron, Columbia, Quebec, Ontario, Rupert's Land, New Westminster, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Antigua, Nassau, Guiana.

The following table gives the names of the dioceses of the Church of England, the (total, not Anglican) population of the territory over which the diocese extends, and the number of the clergy and parishes in each:

DIOCESSES.	Population of diocese in 1861.	No. of clergy.	No. of parishes.
PROVINCE OF YORK.			
York	930,216	744	584
Durham	858,095	351	245
Carlisle	266,591	327	272
Chester	1,248,416	598	370
Manchester	1,679,326	601	385
Ripon	1,108,394	630	444
Sodor and Man	52,469	45	31
PROVINCE OF CANTERBURY.			
Canterbury	474,607	536	357
London	2,570,079	716	324
Winchester	1,267,794	1,012	599
St. Asaph's	246,337	250	185
Bangor	195,390	195	134
Bath and Wells	422,527	660	481
Chichester	363,735	592	311
St. David's	432,689	527	411
Elly	480,710	720	529
Exeter	953,763	954	694
Gloucester and Bristol	568,574	648	459
Hereford	232,401	466	353
Lichfield	1,221,404	879	625
Lincoln	706,026	1,029	801
Llandaff	421,336	319	230
Norwich	667,704	1,161	908
Oxford	515,083	856	609
Peterborough	486,977	715	536
Rochester	609,914	804	564
Salisbury	377,337	671	471
Worcester	857,775	661	442
Total for England and Wales	20,209,671	17,667	12,539

The Triennial General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States met in the city of New York, on the 7th of October. The new Diocese of Nebraska was admitted after considerable debate on the use of the word "council" instead of convention in the journal of its diocesan convention. The resolution of admission was, however, unconditional, making no reference to these terms. Four new dioceses were erected, one from the Diocese of Maryland (embracing the Eastern Shore of Maryland), two from the Diocese of New York (the one embracing Long Island, and the other the nineteen counties

of New York, north of the southerly boundaries of Columbia, Greene, and Delaware Counties), and one from the Diocese of Western New York. The election of the Rev. C. F. Robertson, as Bishop of the Diocese of Missouri, was confirmed, and two missionary bishops, the Rev. B. W. Morris for Oregon and Washington Territories, and the Rev. O. W. Whitaker for Nevada, were appointed. A canon was passed in regard to the formation of new dioceses, the main provisions of which are as follows: 1. Satisfactory evidence is to be submitted to the General Convention that adequate provision has been made for the support of the episcopate. 2. There must be within the limits of the new diocese at least six parishes and as many presbyters who have been canonically resident in the diocese at least one year. 3. There must be left in the old diocese at least twelve parishes and twelve presbyters. 4. There shall be but one bishop in any city. Dioceses existing within the bounds of any State were authorized to establish for themselves a federate council or convention, to decide and deliberate upon the common interests of the Church within the limits of their State, provided the powers they propose to exercise are approved by the General Convention before determinate action is taken. The canon on parochial boundaries was amended by adding to the second clause of the sixth section the following words: "But nothing in this clause shall be construed to prevent any clergyman of this Church from officiating in any parish church, or in any place of public worship used by any congregation of this Church, or elsewhere within the parochial cure of the minister of said congregation, with the consent of the clergyman in charge of such congregation, or, in his absence, of the churchwardens and vestrymen or trustees of such congregation, or a majority of them." The eleventh canon was repealed, and the following substituted in its place: "No minister in charge of any congregation of this Church, or in case of vacancy or absence, no churchwardens, vestrymen, or trustees of the congregation, shall permit any person to officiate therein without sufficient evidence of his being duly licensed or ordained to minister in this Church. Provided that nothing herein shall be so construed as to forbid communicants of the Church to act as lay readers." The clergymen of the Church of England in Canada were recognized as admissible to all the rights and privileges of their brethren of the Church in the United States. With reference to propositions for union with other branches of the Church, the House of Bishops were authorized to appoint a committee from among their own number, which shall be an organ of communication with the other branches of the Church, and with the different other Christian bodies who may desire information or conference on the subject; the said committee to be entitled "The commission of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the

United States of America on Church Unity." The House of Bishops subsequently appointed Bishops Mellvaine, Whittingham, Atkinson, Clark, and Coxe, the committee upon Church Unity. The joint committee on intercommunion with the Eastern Churches reported favorable progress for the project, and the committee were continued, with the power to correspond with the authorities of the Russian and other branches of the Oriental Church, for the acquisition of further authentic information, and to report the result to the next General Convention. A committee of bishops was appointed to confer with the Metropolitan and Patriarch of the Russian Church in regard to the Russo-Greek Diocese of Alaska and its proposed intercommunion with this Church, and also with the Anglican Bishop of Rupert's Land in regard to the transfer of the communicants of the Church of England in Alaska to the jurisdiction of this Church. The convention continues the recognition of the Protestant Church of Sweden. The following canon on divorce was adopted: "No minister of this Church shall solemnize matrimony in any case where there is a divorced wife or husband of either party still living; but this canon shall not be held to apply to the innocent party in a divorce for the cause of adultery, or to parties once divorced seeking to be united again." A new canon, similar to that for the trial of bishops, was adopted on the trial of ministers. Provision was made for the correction of typographical errors in the Prayer Book. A new canon on assistant bishops was adopted. They may be elected in case of disability of the bishop, and succeed him if they survive him, and may vote in his stead in the General Convention, but can have no additional vote if he is present. A commission of laymen, presbyters, and bishops was authorized to revise the version of the psalms and hymns, and report to the next General Convention. The preparation of Prayer Books in German, French, and Swedish was directed. Increased solicitude was expressed respecting the missionary work among the freedmen, and practical measures were recommended to advance it. The convention declined to act definitely on the subject of ritualism. The subject was referred to the House of Bishops, who were requested to set forth, for consideration and adoption by the next General Convention, such additional rubrics to the book of Common Prayer as in their judgment may be deemed necessary. It was resolved that, meanwhile, in all matters doubtful, reference should be made to the Ordinary, and no changes should be made against the counsel and judgment of the bishop.

The most important event in the history of the Church of England was the resolution of the House of Commons in favor of disestablishing the Anglican Church in Ireland and its appointment of a Liberal Ministry pledged to carry out this policy. The House of Com-

mons adopted, on April 28th, the resolution prepared by Mr. Gladstone, by a majority of sixty-five votes. The proposition was rejected by the House of Lords. The Bishops of the Established Church were unanimous and the Anglican clergy almost unanimous in their opposition. The Presbyterian Church of Scotland, which is the state church of Scotland, and the Irish Presbyterian Church, which annually receives from the state government a *regium donum* (a royal present) of £30,000, likewise passed resolutions against Mr. Gladstone's bill. The Wesleyan Connection were non-committal. All the other religious denominations of Great Britain strongly supported Mr. Gladstone and the Liberal party. At the election of a new House of Commons, in November, the Liberal party had a majority of over 110. The Conservative Ministry resigned, and Mr. Gladstone formed a new Liberal Ministry, which is pledged to carry through the disestablishment. Previously the report of the royal commissioners on the revenues and condition of the Church of Ireland had appeared (the report is dated July 27, 1868), and recommended important reductions as to the benefices of the Irish Church. The report is signed by the Earl of Meath, as chairman, by Earl Stanhope, Lord de Vesci, Sir Joseph Napier, and Messrs. Shafto Adair, John T. Ball, Evelyn Shirley, George Clive, and Edward Howes; and it forms, with summary, tables, and schedules, a bulky volume of more than six hundred pages. The report is replete with interesting information on the Irish Church. It states that the total revenue of the Irish Church from all sources is £613,984; 1,319 benefices have a church population of over forty, and extending to 5,000 and upward. The bishoprics suggested for abolition are Meath, Killaloe, Cashel, and Kilmore. The majority of the commissioners are in favor of leaving one archbishopric only, that of Armagh. All bishops are to receive £3,000 a year income, and an additional £500 when attending Parliament. The Primate is to get £6,000, and the Archbishop of Dublin, if continued, £5,000. The abolition is recommended of all cathedrals and deaneries, except eight. With a view to a rearrangement of benefices, it is proposed that ecclesiastical commissioners shall have extended powers to suppress or unite benefices. All benefices, not having a Protestant population of forty, to be abolished. The estates of all caputular bodies and of the bishoprics abolished are to be vested in ecclesiastical commissioners, and the surplus of all property vested in them to be applicable at their discretion to augmentation of benefices. The Ecclesiastical Commission is to be modified by the introduction of three unpaid laymen and two paid commissioners, one appointed by the Crown, the other by the Primate. The management of all lands is to be taken out of the hands of ecclesiastical persons and placed in those of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners. The commissioners expressly state that they

have conducted their inquiry, and that they report, on the assumption that the Irish Church will continue by law established and endowed.

The question of effecting a union between the Anglican and other divisions of the Christian world continued to be the subject of an earnest discussion. As regards the Eastern Churches, public opinion both in the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States and in the Church of England, clearly favors the project of, at least, intercommunion. The action of the Triennial Convention of the American Church has already been referred to. In England the subject was debated at considerable length, in the Convocation of Canterbury, on the 4th of July, at which the difference in the creed of the two churches, and the former and present relations to each other, received a thorough review. A committee had submitted a report, declaring the object sought by the movement to be not a fusion of the two bodies or a submission of either to the superior authority of the other, or a modification of the services of one to correspond with those of the other, but "simply the mutual acknowledgment that all churches which are one in the possession of a true episcopate, one in sacraments, and one in their creed, are, by their union in their common Lord, bound to receive one another to full communion in prayers and sacraments as members of the same household of faith."

A new project of this kind was brought forward in England, in the early part of the year, having for its object a union between the Anglicans and the Wesleyans. The plan was briefly advocated by an Anglican paper of High-Church tendencies, the *Guardian*, which proposed to the Wesleyans an adhesion to the established order of the Church of England, Episcopal supervision, confinement of the administration of the sacraments to persons Episcopally ordained, with ordination of such Wesleyan ministers as might desire it, who might retain their itinerancy, and minister in their churches as licensed chapels-of-ease, subordinate to the jurisdiction of the parish in which they are situated, other Wesleyans to be licensed as lay readers. The Anglicans would make no alterations in their services and Prayer Book, but would allow the Wesleyans the use of a set of subsidiary services. The attention of the Convocation of York, on the 6th of February, was directed to the subject, and the bishops resolved that they would cordially welcome any practical attempt to effect a brotherly reconciliation between the Wesleyan body and the Church of England. As this plan proposed to treat with the Wesleyans as an inferior body, the latter were not able to consider it with a view to adopting it. The same plan was the subject of considerable discussion in the Protestant Episcopal Church of the United States. A number of Anglican clergymen signed a memorial to the Quadrennial General Conference of the Methodist

Episcopal Church to appoint a commission, with a view to a reunion of the two churches. The Methodist Conference complied with this request; but the House of Bishops of the Triennial General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, to which a numerous signed petition for the appointment of a similar commission was presented, contented itself with the appointment of a General Committee on Christian Unity, without instructing the committee as to negotiations with any particular religious denomination. For the object of promoting a union between the Anglican, the Eastern, and the Roman Catholic Churches, the "Association for promoting the Unity of Christendom" was founded in 1857. In September of 1858—a year after the formation of the society—675 members had been enrolled, and the following numbers were added to the lists in the years enumerated below respectively: In 1859, 833 members; in 1860, 1,060; in 1861, 1,007; in 1862, 1,393; in 1863, 1,202; in 1864, 1,340; in 1865, 1,317; in 1866, 1,401; in 1867, 1,647; in September, 1868, 803; making a total of 12,684. The division of these, as given by the Rev. George F. Lee, D. C. L., who in 1868 retired from the office of general secretary, is interesting. Of the 12,684 members of the society, 1,881 belong to the Roman Catholic Church in various countries; 685 are Orientals; 92 are attached to such uncertain or miscellaneous communities, whose names the secretary was unwilling to take upon himself to decline; and 10,026 belong to the Church of England and other churches in communion with the same. The names have been obtained by a systematic circulation of the formal prospectus of the association in English, Latin, French, German, Spanish, and Italian. The following paragraph from Dr. Lee's report is indicative of the objects of the Association: "It has been the secretary's honor and privilege to correspond with a large number of distinguished Catholics of many rites, whose private letters to himself officially have been carefully preserved, as they may in future throw considerable light on the great movement for effecting corporate reunion, which the late Cardinal Wiseman theoretically inaugurated in 1841, and which the Association for promoting the Unity of Christendom first put in practical shape in 1857."

The ritualistic controversy continues to occupy a prominent place in all the branches of the Anglican Church. The action taken with regard to it, by the Triennial General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, has already been stated. It was regarded, by both parties in the Church, as favorable to the hopes of the ritualists. In England, the Royal Commission on Ritualism* presented their second

* On the appointment of this commission and their first Report, see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867. The recommendations of the commissioners with respect to the rubrics, orders, and directions contained in the Prayer Book will form the subject of the next report.

report to the Queen. The commissioners say that although there have been candlesticks with candles on "the Lord's table" during a long period in many cathedrals and collegiate churches and chapels, and also in the chapels of some colleges, and of some royal and episcopal residences, the instances that have been adduced to prove that candles have been lighted as accessories to the Holy Communion are few and much contested; but no sufficient evidence has been adduced to prove that at any time, during the last three centuries, have lighted candles been used in parish churches as accessories to the celebration of the Holy Communion, until within the last twenty-five years. The use of incense, too, in the public services of the Church, during the present century, is very recent, and the instances of its introduction very rare; and, so far as the commissioners have any evidence before them, it is at variance with the Church's usage for 300 years. They are, therefore, of opinion that it is inexpedient to restrain in the public services of the Church all variations from established usage in respect of lighted candles, and of incense. The "speedy and inexpensive remedy," which the commissioners suggest should be provided for parishioners aggrieved by the introduction of incense and candles, is as follows: "First, that whensoever it shall be found necessary that order be taken concerning the same, the usage of the Church of England and Ireland, as above stated to have prevailed for the last 300 years, shall be deemed to be the rule of the Church in respect of vestments, lights, and incense; and, secondly, that parishioners may make formal application to the bishop *in camera*, and the bishop, on such application, shall be bound to inquire into the matter of the complaint; and if it shall thereby appear that there has been a variation from established usage, by the introduction of vestments, lights, or incense, in the public services of the Church, he shall take order forthwith for the discontinuance of such variation, and be enabled to enforce the same summarily." The commissioners also think that the determination of the bishop on such application "should be subject to appeal to the archbishop of the province *in camera*, whose decision thereon shall be final; provided always, that if it should appear to either party that the decision of the bishop or archbishop is open to question on any legal ground, a case may be stated by the party dissatisfied, to be certified by the bishop or archbishop as correct, and then submitted by the said party for the decision of the court of the archbishop without pleading or evidence, with a right of appeal to the Privy Council, and with power for the court, if the statement of the case should appear to be in any way defective, to refer back such case to the bishop or archbishop for amendment." Precautions are suggested to prevent "frivolous applications" from being brought before the bishop. The commission-

ers intimate that their intention in making these recommendations is simply to provide a special facility for restraining variations from established usage, without interfering with the general law of the Church as to ornaments or the ordinary remedies now in force. No action of importance on the subject was taken by the convocations, but trials were instituted against several prominent ritualists. In the most celebrated of these cases, that of the Rev. Mr. Mackonochie (*Martin vs. Mackonochie*), the decision was against the ritualists. This decision by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is not only the most important which has yet been made in the Church of England on the subject of ritualism, but it is expected to involve grave consequences for the future of the Church. Mr. Mackonochie was originally charged: 1. With elevating the elements during the prayer of consecration. 2. With kneeling before them during the same prayer. 3. With using lighted candles on the communion-table during the celebration of the holy communion, when they were not required for the purpose of giving light. 4. With using incense in the same service. 5. With mixing water with the wine. The elevation by Mr. Mackonochie discontinued before the suit commenced, and he was admonished not to resume it. The judgment of the Court of Arches condemned the use of incense and of water. It admitted, however, the lawfulness of lighted candles, and considered the kneeling a minor point of order, which, if raised at all, should be referred to the discretion of the bishop. The Judicial Committee have now ruled that kneeling during the prayer of consecration is contrary to the rubric, and that lighted candles are not admissible. While giving its decision in this particular case, the Court also gave its opinion on several important general principles. With respect to the kneeling, the Court observe, that the posture of the officiating minister is prescribed by various directions throughout the communion service. He is directed when to stand and when to change this posture for that of kneeling. But it is expressly ordered that the prayer of consecration is to be said by the priest "standing before the table," and there is no indication that he is intended to change his posture during the prayer. To the objection made by the defence, that this was one of those minute details which the rubric could not be held to cover, the Court make the important answer, that it is not for any minister of the Church, or even for themselves, to assume that any departure from or violation of the rubric is trivial. The use of lighted candles raised a question of even greater significance and importance. They alleged that they are justified in adopting any practice which the prayer-book does not explicitly condemn—in other words, that whatever is not expressly abolished is retained as lawful. In this instance they appeal to certain injunctions issued in the first year of Edward VI., and their counsel even went so

far as to quote a constitution made by a council held under the Archbishop of Canterbury in 1322. The court dismissed those references as irrelevant, and lay it down, in direct opposition to the principle of the ritualists, that all ceremonies are abolished which are not expressly retained in the Prayer Book. This they regard as being placed beyond doubt by Elizabeth's act of uniformity, now applicable to the present Prayer Book, which prohibits any rite, ceremony, order, or form which is not mentioned in the Prayer Book, and declares void all prior usages and ordinances. The opening rubric, again, orders that "such ornaments of the Church and of the ministers thereof shall be retained, and be in use, as were in this Church of England, by authority of Parliament, in the second year of King Edward VI." The ritualists have argued from this, that whatever was lawful in the designated year of Edward VI. is lawful now. The Court, however, now distinctly explain that those things only possess the authority of Parliament which are expressly in the named Prayer Book referred to. It is nothing to the point, that the candles were lawful at the time when the Prayer Book was issued. They are not prescribed in it, and they are, therefore, abolished. In the Dominion of Canada, the Provincial Synod, which met at Montreal, adopted a resolution prohibiting the elevation of the elements, the use of incense, the mixing of water with wine, the use of the water-bread, of lights on the communion-table, and the wearing of vestments while saying prayers.

It is commonly stated, that the number of monastic and similar institutions in the Church of England is on the increase. According to a statement in the *Rock*, a Low-Church organ, the Order of St. Benedict, over which the Rev. J. L. Lyne (Father Ignatius) presides, numbers fifteen thousand Brothers and Sisters. For the daily use of Anglican Benedictines a volume has been published, entitled "The Monastic Breviary for all those Fighting against the World, under the rule of our Most Holy Father Benedict." This Benedictine office is now regularly used at the Monastery of Laleham, the nunnery at Feltham, the Convent of Second Order Sisters in London and in Scotland, and at the Convent of Benedictine Tertiaries in London, Newcastle, and Norwich. Among the new religious associations, is a "Confraternity of the Blessed Sacrament of the Body and Blood of Christ." The "Order for Intercessory Prayer," of which the Rev. R. Benson is Superior, has a home for the celibate clergy at Cowley, near Oxford. In London, the "Sisters of St. John the Evangelist" have been for several years under the patronage of Bishop Tait, of London, who in 1868 was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury. The city of New York has two Sisterhoods: the Sisterhood of the Holy Communion, established, in 1845, by the Rev. Dr. Muhlenberg, after the model of the Deaconesses of Kaiser-

werth, in Prussia; and the Sisterhood of St. Mary. The former comprise United or Full Sisters, Probationers, and Resident Associates. The superintending lady is styled the First Sister. The Sisters have charge of St. Luke's Hospital in the city of New York; and at St. John, L. I., have a house for crippled boys and girls. There is also the Parish Sisterhood of St. Luke's Hospital, and the Sisterhood of St. Luke's Hospital, at Cincinnati, Ohio. Dr. Muhlenberg, the pastor and founder of the Sisterhood, desires it to be understood that "it is distinctively an evangelical association, not an ecclesiastical organization." He has published a small work entitled "Evangelical Sisterhoods," in which he describes the character and principle of action of this community, and the mode in which he proposes to extend its operations. The Sisterhood of St. Mary consists of three orders: Sisters living in community and rigidly observing the rules of their order; Associate Sisters, who are unable to live in community, but who do so whenever they have the opportunity, and who are bound by less strict rules than the Sisters; and Associates who, having domestic ties, are nevertheless desirous of laboring among the poor, and gladly avail themselves of the advantages and assistance to be derived from working in connection with, and under the guidance of, the Sisters. The Sisterhood, which now comprises twenty Sisters of the first order, is entirely directed and governed by the Mother Superior. The Right Rev. Bishop Potter is the visitor; the Rev. Morgan Dix, Rector of Trinity Parish, is the chaplain. The Sisters occupy three separate houses, one of which is their home, and where they also have an educational establishment for young ladies; another where they have an asylum called The Sheltering Arms, in which they have at present ninety-four poor children; and the House of Mercy, for fallen women, where they have at present (January, 1869) forty-five penitents. The Sisters of St. Mary rigidly observe the canonical hours, and on Thursday they have always an early celebration of the Holy Communion. The walls of their oratory are hung with the Fourteen Stations of the Cross, and the little altar, which is beautifully vested, has all the proper accessories. The work that has been done by the Sisterhood since it was first established, four years ago, is highly appreciated by several bishops, and the Mother Superior is constantly receiving applications from all parts to open branches of the order.

The excitement which has been produced by the Colenso case has begun to subside. His standing in the Church was again the subject of a long discussion in the Convocation of Canterbury. The bishops, in reply to numerous petitions asking them to recognize the validity of the sentence of deposition pronounced by the Bishop of Capetown on Dr. Colenso, declared that they were of opinion—1. That substantial justice was done to the accused. 2.

That though the sentence, having been pronounced by a tribunal not acknowledged by the Queen's courts, whether civil or ecclesiastical, can claim no legal effect, the Church as a spiritual body may rightly accept its validity. Only the Bishop of London (now Archbishop of Canterbury) declared that he was unable to append his signature to the report of the committee which had recommended the above declaration; and stated his own views to be as follows: "1. I consider the trial to have been altogether set aside by the decision given by the highest court in the empire, that it was null and void in law. 2. I consider that if it had been thought right that a trial of a purely spiritual character was to take place, without reference to any binding legal authority on the part of the Metropolitan or his Suffragans assembled in Synod, such trial could only be held in virtue of a compact; and I find no proof that Bishop Colenso entered into such a compact with Bishop Gray, otherwise than on the supposition that the letters patent were valid and that Bishop Gray possessed coercive jurisdiction. 3. Independently of my views as to the general invalidity of the trial, I entertain grave doubts whether, in conducting the proceeding, Bishop Gray did not, in several important points, so far depart from the principles recognized in English courts of justice as to make it highly probable that, if the trial had been valid, and had become the subject of appeal on the merits of the case to any well-constituted court ecclesiastical, the sentence would have been set aside. These difficulties have all along made me feel that the case of Bishop Colenso cannot be satisfactorily disposed of without fresh proceedings in lieu of those which I understand to have entirely failed." The office of Bishop of Natal was accepted by the Rev. Mr. Macrorie, who accompanied the Bishop of Capetown to South Africa, and was there to be consecrated as bishop.

ANHALT, a duchy of the North-German Confederation. Area, 1,026 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 197,041 (in 1864, 193,046; increase, 2.07 per cent.). With regard to their religious denominations, the inhabitants were, in 1864, divided as follows: 143,305 Evangelicals, 21,265 Lutherans, 27,118 Reformed, 3,156 Catholics, 2,108 Israelites, and 89 members of Free Congregations. The capital, Dessau, had, in 1867, 16,904 inhabitants. In the budget for 1868, the revenue and expenditure are estimated at 3,698,558 each. The public debt, in 1865, amounted to 1,827,593 thalers for the duchy of Anhalt-Dessau-Cöthen, and 1,618,634 thalers for the duchy of Anhalt-Bernburg. (See GERMANY.)

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, a republic in South America. President, from 1868 to 1874, Domingo F. Sarmiento; Vice-President, Adolfo Alsina. The estimates of the area and population of the republic greatly vary. According to Behm (*Geograph. Jahrbuch*, vol. ii., Gotha, 1868), the area is 826,828 English square miles,

and the population, 1,465,000.* The following table shows the names of the provinces, with the number of inhabitants, and the name and the population of the capital of each State:

PROVINCES.	Inhabitants.	Capital.	Inhabitants.
1. River and maritime:			
Buenos Ayres.....	450,000	Buenos Ayres	120,000
Santa Fé.....	45,000	Santa Fé.....	8,000
Entreríos.....	107,000	Entreríos.....	16,000
Corrientes y Misiones	90,000	Concepcion..	8,000
2. At the foot of the Andes.			
La Rioja.....	40,000	La Rioja.....	4,000
Catamarca.....	97,000	Catamarca.....	6,000
San Juan.....	70,000	San Juan.....	20,000
Mendoza.....	58,000	Mendoza.....	10,000
3. Central:			
Cordova.....	140,000	Cordova.....	25,000
San Luis.....	58,000	San Luis.....	5,000
Santiago.....	90,000	Santiago.....	6,000
Tucuman.....	100,000	Tucuman.....	11,000
4. Northern:			
Salta.....	80,000	Salta.....	11,300
Jujuy.....	40,000	Jujuy.....	6,900
Total.....	1,465,000		

The number of the foreign-born population is considerable. The immigration, from 1858 to 1862, amounted to 28,066, and from 1863 to 1867 to 64,599; total from 1858 to 1867, 92,665. The immigration of the year 1867 was 17,022, and was larger than in any previous year. † During the first six months of 1868, the immigration again largely increased, amounting to 17,187, chiefly from Germany and Italy.

The revenue and the expenditures of the republic, from 1864 to 1867, were as follows: ‡

	Revenue.	Expenditures.
1864.....	7,005,330 pesos.	6,179,490 pesos.
1865.....	8,295,070 "	6,876,175 "
1866.....	6,763,830 "	8,265,750 "
1867.....	12,040,287 "	

The chief sources of revenue are the proceeds of the customs, which in 1865 constituted 95 per cent. of the entire income. The customs on imports, in 1867, were on an average 23 per cent. *ad valorem*, and those on exports 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. The public debt, in October, 1866, amounted to 32,483,710 pesos. Each of the fourteen provinces has its own budget. That of the province of Buenos Ayres amounts to about 2,000,000 pesos annually.

The army is estimated at 10,700 men, exclusive of the militia and national guard of Buenos Ayres. The republic has no war-vessels.

The imports of the chief port of the republic, Buenos Ayres, during the year 1865, were valued at 5,420,000 pounds sterling; the exports at 4,400,000; the imports of 1866, at 6,450,000, and the exports at 4,610,000. The value of the aggregate commerce of all the ports of the republic, in 1866, was estimated at 16,000,000 pounds sterling.§

* For further details, see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

† For other interesting information on immigration and foreign residents, see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

‡ 1 peso fuerte equals about one dollar. At the close of the year 1866, a law fixed the value of a Spanish silver peso at 25 paper pesos.

§ Additional commercial statistics may be found in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

The movement of shipping at the port of Buenos Ayres, in 1866, was as follows: Entrances, 1,190 vessels, 252,670 tons; clearances, 1,184 vessels, 343,451 tons. Among the arrivals were 56 vessels from the United States, 35 Argentine (7,958 tons); 252 English, 193 German (40,000 tons); 148 French (59,000 tons).

The most important event in the history of the republic, during the year 1868, was the election of a new President for the term from 1868 to 1874. Although the excitement ran very high, no disturbances took place. There were three candidates: Señor Elizalde, Minister of Foreign Affairs, a strong partisan of the alliance with Brazil; General Urquiza, the chief of the ancient Federalists and supposed to be opposed to the alliance with Brazil and the continuance of war; and Domingo F. Sarmiento, Argentine minister in Washington, whose policy, it was known, would chiefly consist in the promotion of popular education and agriculture. The preliminary elections (choice of electors) took place on the 12th of April; the election of the President by the electors on the 12th of July. General Urquiza received the votes of two provinces, Entreríos and Santa Fé; Elizalde, of three provinces, Santiago del Estero, Catamarca, and Tucumán; no election took place in Corrientes; seven provinces, Córdoba, Mendoza, San Luis, San Juan, Jujuy, Salta, Rioja, cast the entire electoral vote for Sarmiento, and, of the electors of Buenos Ayres (28), 24 voted for Sarmiento, 3 for Rawson, and 1 for Sarsfield. The following table gives the aggregate vote for each of the candidates for President and Vice-President:

President.		Vice-President.	
Sarmiento.....	91	Alsina.....	83
Elizalde.....	32	Paunero.....	55
Urquiza.....	16	Ocampo.....	3
Rawson.....	3	Alberdi.....	1
Sarsfield.....	1	Carreras.....	1
	143		143
Votes lost (12 in Corrientes and 1 in Jujuy, 13		Votes lost.....	13
Total.....	156	Total.....	156

President Sarmiento was installed on the 18th of October, amid great festivities, in which, in particular, the order of Freemasons took part, as both President Sarmiento and Ex-President Mitre are prominent members of the order. For the first time in the history of the republic, both the election and the installation of President passed off without the least disturbance.

The war which the Argentine Republic for some time has been carrying on, conjointly with Brazil and Uruguay against Paraguay, continued throughout the year. But, the opposition to the war greatly increasing in strength, Governor Alsina, of Buenos Ayres (now Vice-President of the republic), in his message to the Provincial Diet, thus expressed himself on the subject:

The war with the Paraguayan Government becomes

every day more barbarous, because so must be styled a war that can only end by the annihilation of one of the belligerents, however praiseworthy the heroism of those engaged in the struggle—a murderous war, since half the combatants have already succumbed—a fatal war, and I call it so because we are shackled to it by a treaty also fatal—not because our ally is an empire—I am not influenced by similar prejudices, but because its clauses seem calculated to prolong the war, until the republic shall fall an exhausted and lifeless victim.

And yet, Honorable Senators and Representatives, in stating this, I am far from wishing to lay the blame upon any individual person or party—a series of events, bound together by the hand of fate, have so willed it, and the truth is, that if the public powers committed an error in 1865, the country accepted it, and assumed its solidarity—it is the law that must rule where the people does not itself govern, but allows its delegates to govern.

But if this be true, not less true is it that the moment has arrived when those very public powers, should themselves decide upon the question of honor, the momentous question for every Argentine heart, whether the insult inflicted on the blue and white stripes by the brutal and cowardly attack upon our men-of-war has not been sufficiently washed off by the blood of a hundred thousand combatants, or re-vindicated by the occupation of the enemy's country.

At the close of the year it was reported that President Sarmiento was willing to accept the mediation of the United States.

The Argentine Congress adopted a bill, to make the city of Rosario the capital of the Republic. President Mitre sent the bill back to Congress, with a recommendation to amend it by a provision, securing to the national Government the necessary jurisdiction for the regular exercise of its functions in the territory of its temporary residence, while awaiting the transfer to the permanent capital. This jurisdiction, in the opinion of the President, should embrace the superintendence of the police and the direct command of the National Guard.

ARKANSAS. The general affairs of this State continued, at the end of 1867, to be managed by the civil authorities, in whose hands the administration had been placed by the people. They proceeded, however, in a provisory manner, consistently with their almost absolute dependence on the military power, to which Congress, by acts passed March 2 and 23, 1867, subjected Arkansas and the other once seceded States, until "a republican government could be legally established" therein.

Concerning the exercise of judicial power, the order from headquarters, dated September 6, 1867, wherein Major-General Ord enjoined the courts of the State to suspend proceedings against any offender, if two credible persons made affidavits that he would meet by them with unfair trial, and to transmit to headquarters all acts and papers thereunto belonging, that such offender might be tried by a military commission, was in January, 1868, rather modified in cases of horse-stealing, which seems to have been a frequent occurrence in the Fourth Military District, as appears from the following order of Major-General Gillem, successor to General Ord in that command:

General Orders, No. 3.

HEADQUARTERS FOURTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
MISSISSIPPI AND ARKANSAS, }
HOLLY SPRINGS, MISS., January 9, 1868. }

1. General order No. 9, series of 1867, from these headquarters, is hereby so modified and amended as to restore to the civil tribunals, properly having cognizance under the respective statute laws of the States of Mississippi and Arkansas, entire jurisdiction in all ordinary cases of horse-stealing, heretofore made triable under the provisions of that order before military commission. In case, however, any person charged with the crime of horse-stealing, and indicted therefor, shall make oath before a judicial officer that, by reason of service in the army of the United States, or of political sentiments entertained by him, or of his race or color, he cannot have an impartial trial at the hands of the civil authorities—then all action in the case shall be suspended, and the case reported at once to the nearest military post commander, who will cause an immediate investigation to be made by an officer of all the facts thereof. Should there be no military post within, say, fifty miles of the point, the case will be reported to the sub-district commander, who will order the investigation.

If, in the opinion of the officer making the investigation, the accused can have an impartial trial before the civil tribunal having cognizance, he will officially notify the proper civil officer; the suspension of the proceedings will cease from that time, and the case will proceed in due course.

But if, in the opinion of the investigating officer, an impartial trial cannot be had in the case before the civil authorities, a full and explicit report of all the facts of his reasons for his belief will be forwarded at once to these headquarters, for the consideration and further orders of the district commander.

2. The cases of all citizen prisoners, now in confinement under military guard, awaiting trial on the charge of horse-stealing, will be at once investigated by the respective commanding officers of the posts at which they are confined, and special report made to the sub-district commander of all cases which, in their judgment, will receive impartial justice at the hands of the civil authorities having cognizance.

The sub-district commanders are hereby authorized to give the necessary orders and instructions, to cause all such cases to be returned to civil jurisdiction with the least possible delay and expense. A report of the action taken in each case will be forwarded by the sub-district commander for file at these headquarters.

By order of Brevet Maj.-Gen. ALVAN C. GILLEM.
O. D. GREENE, Assistant Adjutant-General.

By a subsequent order, issued in the same month, General Gillem allowed the State courts to have cognizance and proceed undisturbed in other matters also, which his predecessor had taken away from them, as follows:

General Orders, No. 6.

HEADQUARTERS FOURTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
MISSISSIPPI AND ARKANSAS, }
VICKSBURG, MISS., January 27, 1868. }

Circulars Nos. 19, 22, and 24, series of 1867, from these headquarters, are hereby revoked—without prejudice, however, to any action which may have been already taken in accordance with said circulars. Hereafter, all questions arising from settlements of crops, and generally the relations of debtors and creditors of civil suitors, will be left to the proper civil courts—except such cases affecting the rights of freedmen, or others, as by acts of Congress are specially committed to the care of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands.

By order of Brevet Maj.-Gen. ALVAN C. GILLEM.
JOHN TYLER, A. A. A. G.

The great event of the year 1868, in Arkan-

sas, however, was the preparation of a new State constitution, intended to correspond with the Reconstruction Acts of Congress, mentioned above, as it vitally affected the political and social condition of her inhabitants. The matter being naturally of the highest importance to them, and they being divided concerning it into quite opposite parties, though not in equal numbers, every man in Arkansas took eager part in the struggle for carrying or defeating the measure; which contention, and the reciprocal efforts against each other to obtain victory, so engrossed, if not wholly absorbed, the people, that the ordinary affairs of the State were now little cared for, and allowed to remain in comparative neglect, except in so far as they could be used as means to serve in the present contest.

For the purpose of assembling the convention to frame a new State constitution, to be submitted to the people for ratification or rejection, an order was issued by General Ord, on December 5, 1867, in which, after stating that, in the election just closed, the people of Arkansas had decided by a majority of votes in favor of holding a convention, he fixed the 7th day of January, 1868, for the delegates to assemble at Little Rock. They met accordingly, and began their work. As they belonged, however, to opposite parties, called Democrats, Conservatives, and Republicans, the latter being in a large majority, the debate during the session, which lasted about six weeks, was warm throughout; the subjects of dispute among the members were, whether the new constitution should be framed and submitted to the people in general for their ratification or rejection, and also every provision offered to be inserted in it. Most prominent among the latter were the measures relating to the negroes, as, the extending to them the elective franchise; the necessity of the whites' and negroes' children attending one common school together; and the clause forbidding intermarriage between the two races.

It seems not out of place to notice here the sentiments entertained by the negroes of Arkansas (and the same apparently prevail among those of the other Southern States) concerning the Government of the United States, their own right to vote as citizens, their ability to use such right properly, their native intelligence and capacity, as well as that of the white men in general, and other things regarding the relations between the two races under one common government. Mr. Cypert, a delegate from White County, styled in the reports as Conservative, and of note in the convention, having offered, in its fifth sitting, an ordinance "to adopt and submit to the people for their ratification, as the constitution of the State of Arkansas, the same as now in force, being that adopted on the 18th day of March, 1864," and having, in the course of debate thereupon, said that "he was a friend to the negroes, had served in the Freedmen's Bureau, was glad they

were free, would have them protected in their just rights, as they were by law, but would never consent to see them enfranchised and made the rulers of white men"—not without referring also to the negroes' natural want of intelligence, their incapability of culture and development, and the consequent impossibility of their properly using the right of suffrage, on which points he and others had frequently spoken at length—William H. Gray, a negro, and delegate to the convention from Phillips County, rose and spoke as follows:

"It appears to me, the gentleman has read the history of his country to little purpose. When the Constitution was framed, in every State but South Carolina free negroes were allowed to vote. Under British rule this class was free, and he interpreted that 'we the people' in the preamble of the Constitution, meant all the people of every color. The mistake of that period was that these free negroes were not represented *in propria persona* in that constitutional convention, but by the Anglo-Saxon. Congress is now correcting that mistake. The right of franchise is due the negroes bought by the blood of forty thousand of their race shed in three wars. The troubles now on the country are the result of the bad exercise of the elective franchise by unintelligent whites, the 'poor whites' of the South. I could duplicate every negro who cannot read and write, whose name is on the list of registered voters, with a white man equally ignorant. The gentleman can claim to be a friend of the negro, but I do not desire to be looked upon in the light of a client. The Government has made a solemn covenant with the negro to vest him with the right of franchise if he would throw his weight in the balance in favor of the Union and bare his breast to the storm of bullets; and I am convinced that it would not go back on itself. There are thirty-two million whites to four million blacks in the country, and there need be no fear of negro domination. The State laws do not protect the negro in his rights, as they forbade their entrance into the State. [Action of loyal convention of '64.] I am not willing to trust the rights of my people with the white men, as they have not preserved those of their own race, in neglecting to provide them with the means of education. The Declaration of Independence declared all men born free and equal, and I demand the enforcement of that guarantee made to my forefathers, to every one of each race, who had fought for it. The constitution which this ordinance would reenact is not satisfactory, as it is blurred all over with the word 'white.' Under it one hundred and eleven thousand beings who live in the State have no rights which white men are bound to respect. My people might be ignorant, but I believe, with Jefferson, that ignorance is no measure of a man's rights. Slavery has been abolished, but it left my people in a condition of peonage or caste worse than slavery, which had its humane masters.

White people should look to their own ancestry; they should recollect that women were disposed of on James River, in the early settlement of the country, as wives, at the price of two hundred pounds of tobacco. When we have had eight hundred years as the whites to enlighten ourselves, it will be time enough to pronounce them incapable of civilization and enlightenment. The last election showed that they were intelligent enough to vote in a solid mass with the party that would give them their rights, and that too in face of the influence of the intelligence and wealth of the State, and in face of threats to take the bread from their very mouths. I have no antipathy toward the whites; I would drop the curtain of oblivion on the sod which contains the bones of my oppressed and wronged ancestors for two hundred and fifty years. Give us the franchise, and if we do not exercise it properly you have the numbers to take it away from us. It would be impossible for the negro to get justice in a State whereof he was not a full citizen. The prejudices of the entire court would be against him. I do not expect the negro to take possession of the government; I want the franchise given him as an incentive to work to educate his children. I do not desire to discuss the question of the inferiority of races. Unpleasant truths must then be told; history tells us of your white ancestors who lived on the acorns which dropped from the oaks of Didona, and then worshipped the tree as a God. I call upon all men who would see justice done, to meet this question fairly, and fear not to record their votes."

In the session of January 29th, he said: "Negroes vote in Ohio and Massachusetts, and in the latter State are elected to high office by rich white men. He had found more prejudice against his race among the Yankees; and if they did him a kind act, they did not seem to do it with the generous spirit of Southern men. He could get nearer the latter: he had been raised with them. He was the sorrier on this account that they had refused him the rights which would make him a man, as the former were willing to do. He wanted this a white man's government, and wanted them to do the legislating as they had the intelligence and wealth; but he wanted the power to protect himself against unfriendly legislation. Justice should be like the Egyptian statue, blind and recognizing no color."

Concerning intermarriage between whites and negroes, Mr. Bradley, a delegate to the convention, having offered to insert in the constitution a clause "forbidding matrimony between a white person and a person of African descent," on which point nearly all of the members spoke *pro* and *con*. in that and the following days, Mr. Gray said: "It was seldom such outrages were committed at the North, where there are no constitutional provisions of the kind proposed. He saw no necessity of inserting any in the present constitution. As

for his people, their condition now would not permit any such marriages. If it was proposed to insert a provision of the kind, he would move to amend by making it an offence punishable with death for a white man to cohabit with a negro woman." At another time he observed on the same subject, that "there was no danger of intermarriage, as the greatest minds had pronounced it abhorrent to nature. The provision would not cover the case, as the laws must subsequently define who is a negro; and he referred to the law of North Carolina, declaring persons negroes who have only one-sixteenth of negro blood. White men had created the difficulty, and it would now be impossible to draw the line which the gentleman desired established."

The new State constitution, as framed by the committee previously appointed for that purpose, having finally been put to the vote, was adopted by 46 yeas against 20 nays. Its chief provisions, which had also been the most hotly-contested points of debate in the convention, are the bill of rights, the article on elective franchise, which is extended to the negroes who are recognized politically and socially equal to the whites in the State, and the article on education, which is made common to the children and youth of both races. The following are extracts:

BILL OF RIGHTS.—*Section 1.* All political power is inherent in the people. Government is instituted for the protection, security, and benefit of the people, and they have the right to alter or reform the same whenever the public may require it. But the paramount allegiance of every citizen is due to the Federal Government in the exercise of all its constitutional powers as the same may have been or may be defined by the Supreme Court of the United States; and no power exists in the people of this or any other State of the Federal Union to dissolve their connection therewith or perform any act tending to impair, subvert, or resist the supreme authority of the United States. The Constitution of the United States confers full powers on the Federal Government to maintain and perpetuate its existence, and whensoever any portion of the States, or the people thereof, attempt to secede from the Federal Union, or forcibly resist the execution of its laws, the Federal Government may, by warrant of the Constitution, employ armed force in compelling obedience to its authority.

Sec. 3. The equality of all persons before the law is recognized and shall ever remain inviolate; nor shall any ever be deprived of any right, privilege, or immunity, nor exempted from any burden or duty on account of race, color, or previous condition.

FRANCHISE.—*Sec. 1.* In all elections by the people the electors shall vote by ballot.

Sec. 2. Every male person born in the United States, and every male person who has been naturalized or has legally declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, who is twenty-one years old or upward, and who shall have resided in the State six months next preceding the election, and who at the time is an actual resident of the county in which he offers to vote, except as hereinafter provided, shall be deemed an elector: *Provided,* No soldier or sailor or marine in the military or naval service of the United States shall acquire a residence by reason of being stationed on duty in this State.

Sec. 3. The following classes shall not be permitted to register or hold office, namely: First, those who during the rebellion took the oath of allegiance

or gave bonds for loyalty and good behavior to the United States Government, and afterward gave aid, comfort, or countenance to those engaged in armed hostility to the Government of the United States, either by becoming a soldier in the rebel army, or by entering the lines of said army, or adhering in any way to the cause of rebellion, or by accompanying any armed force belonging to the rebel army, or by furnishing supplies of any kind to the same. Second. Those who are disqualified as electors or from holding office in the State or States from which they came. Third. Those persons who during the late rebellion violated the rules of civilized warfare. Fourth. Those who may be disqualified by the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States known as article fourteen, and those who have been disqualified from registering to vote for delegates to the convention to frame a constitution for the State of Arkansas, under the act of Congress entitled "An act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the acts supplemental thereto. Fifth. Those who shall have been convicted of treason, embezzlement of public funds, malfeasance in office, crimes punishable by law with imprisonment in the penitentiary, or bribery. Sixth. Those who are idiots or insane: *Provided,* That all persons included in the first, second, third, and fourth subdivisions of this section, who have openly advocated or who have voted for the reconstruction proposed by Congress, and accept the equality of all men before the law, shall be deemed qualified electors under this constitution.

Sec. 4. The General Assembly shall have the power, by a two-thirds vote of each House, approved by the Governor, to remove the disabilities included in the first, second, third, and fourth subdivisions of section three of this article, when it appears that such person applying for relief from such disabilities has in good faith returned to his allegiance to the Government of the United States: *Provided,* The General Assembly shall have no power to remove the disabilities of any person embraced in the aforesaid subdivisions who, after the adoption of this constitution by the convention, persists in opposing the acts of Congress and reconstruction thereunder.

Sec. 5. All persons before registering or voting must take and subscribe the following oath: "I, ———, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States and the constitution and laws of the State of Arkansas; that I am not excluded from registering or voting by any of the clauses in the first, second, third, or fourth subdivisions of Article VIII. of the constitution of the State of Arkansas; that I will never countenance or aid in the secession of this State from the United States; that I accept the civil and political equality of all men, and agree not to attempt to deprive any person or persons, on account of race, color, or previous condition, of any political or civil right, privilege, or immunity enjoyed by any other class of men; and furthermore, that I will not in any way injure, or countenance in others any attempt to injure, any person or persons on account of past or present support of the Government of the United States, the laws of the United States, or the principle of the political and civil equality of all men, or for affiliation with any political party."

EDUCATION.—*Sec. 1.* A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence among all classes being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the General Assembly shall establish and maintain a system of free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this State between the ages of five and twenty-one years, and the funds appropriated for the support of common schools shall be distributed to the several counties in proportion to the number of children and youths therein between the ages of five and twenty-one years, in such manner as shall be prescribed by law, but no religious or

other sect or sects shall ever have any exclusive right to or control of any part of the school funds of this State.

Sec. 6. No township or school district shall receive any portion of the public school fund unless a free school shall have been kept therein for not less than three months during the year, for which distribution thereof is made. The General Assembly shall require by law that every child of sufficient mental and physical ability shall attend the public schools during the period between the ages of five and eighteen years for a term equivalent to three years, unless educated by other means.

An act, annexed to the new constitution, provided for its ratification by the people by ordering a general election to begin for that purpose on March 13, 1868, prescribing also that the voters should at the same time choose the State officers, the members of both branches of the Legislature, and the Representatives of Arkansas in the Federal Congress. To superintend and control this election it appointed by name two delegates of the convention and its president, as a Board of Commissioners, vested with ample power.

The framers of the constitution, anticipating the fact of its being both adopted by the delegates in convention, and then ratified by the people, made further provision that the members of the General Assembly, twenty-six Senators and eighty-two Representatives, should be elected every fourth and second year respectively, and should meet and commence their sessions on the first of April, 1868. And for the purpose of holding the first-mentioned and other elections, they grouped together and apportioned into twenty-two districts the fifty-eight counties of Arkansas somewhat differently than they had been before.

It seems worthy of notice that at the final voting in the convention for the adoption or rejection of this constitution, every member of that body accompanied his vote with remarks, objecting to one or more specified parts of it; the remarks also were recorded with the vote upon the journal: so that there is scarcely a point to be found in that instrument which is not condemned in express terms by one or many of the delegates—even those who voted for its adoption—seven of whom were negroes.

On February 11th, when the voting had taken place, the president communicated to the convention the answer of the military commander to whom he had previously applied for money wherewith to pay the delegates and defray the other expenses of the convention, in which he stated as follows:

That an ordinance to be entitled "an ordinance raising revenue for the purpose of defraying the expenses of the Constitutional Convention," and "an ordinance providing for the per diem and mileage of the members and the per diem of the officers of the Constitutional Convention of the State of Arkansas" are in his opinion in conformity with the "reconstruction laws."

Referring to the ordinance providing and making appropriation for the per diem and mileage of the members of the Constitutional Convention, the general commanding directs me to inform you that the Honorable Treasurer of the State has been instructed to pay

accounts to the amount of fifty thousand dollars in the manner therein provided, from funds to be obtained by the sale of United States bonds, now deposited to the credit of the State of Arkansas in the U. S. Treasury at Washington, D. C.

On the same day, in compliance with a provision purposely inserted in the constitution, the president informed the people of the election to be held for its ratification.

Agreeably to a measure previously carried in the convention, the president, on February 12th, appointed two boards, each consisting of three delegates, "for the purpose of digesting and arranging laws, and to arrange a code of practice for the State."

On the 14th of February, which was the thirty-first day of the session, the present work of the convention being at an end, the president, in accordance with resolutions adopted before, announced "the convention adjourned, subject to the call of the president, or, in case of his inability, of one of the six vice-presidents."

On the day of adjournment, but before the adjournment was announced, fifteen delegates, who had declined subscribing their names to the new constitution, caused a common protest, signed by themselves, to be read aloud by one of their number before the convention, of the following tenor: "We, the undersigned, delegates to the Constitutional Convention, do hereby protest against the above and foregoing constitution, and decline to indorse or sign it, as the same, in our opinion, is anti-republican, proscriptive, and destructive to the liberties, rights, and privileges of the people of this State." They requested also that the protest with their names should be attached to the constitution. This the convention refused to permit, but allowed the document "to be spread upon the journal."

On February 14, 1868, the military commander ordered the holding of the election for the ratification or rejection of the new constitution, and made dispositions to secure quiet and regularity in the voting.

The fifteen delegates, who, upon the adjournment of the convention, had entered a protest against the new constitution, published in the papers, of February 18, 1868, a common address to the people, "announcing their objections to the said constitution, and some of the reasons which should induce the people to vote against its ratification." Nor did their party, before and after that time, cease from exerting themselves to prevent the new order of things being introduced in Arkansas. Even before the end of 1867, the State Central Committee had called upon the Democratic State Convention to assemble at Little Rock, on January 27, 1868, "for the purpose of perfecting a more thorough organization," in order to put themselves in connection and act in unison with the Democrats and Conservatives of the North. On the appointed day they actually met, passed resolutions, and elected their officers, who, in this capacity, signed and pub-

lished a lengthy address to the people, explaining the importance of the political questions implied in the measures proposed for their State, and the manner in which they should meet and decide them.

Outside of these matters, immediately connected with the State Convention and its work, some occurrences of interest took place. The military commander appointed for Little Rock, the capital of Arkansas, another mayor and other aldermen in the place of those who were actually in charge of the said offices confided to them by the people. The following correspondence took place February 12, 1868, between the heads of the old and new boards:

LITTLE ROCK, ARKANSAS, *February 12, 1868.*
To the Honorable John W. Hopkins, Mayor of the City of Little Rock:

SIR: The undersigned would respectfully communicate to your honor, and through you to the board of aldermen over which you preside, the information that they have been appointed by the commanding general to relieve you and your associates from any further duties as mayor and aldermen of this city.

Our commissions, and authority for making this communication and request to you and your board, are subject to your inspection.

Be good enough to inform us at what time it will best suit your convenience, and that of the board, to transfer and deliver to us, your successors in office, the books, seals, records, city bonds, money, or other property that may belong to the corporation of said city.

Very respectfully,
 JOHN WASSELL, Mayor.
 John Donohue, R. A. Edgerton, Albert Adams, H. T. Gibb, Rufus S. Sayward, J. G. Botsford, George R. Weeks, R. L. Dodge, Aldermen.

MAYOR'S OFFICE, }
 LITTLE ROCK, ARKANSAS, *February 12, 1868.*
Messrs. John Wassell, Sayward, Botsford, Weeks, Dodge, Donohue, Edgerton, Adams, and Gibbs:

GENTLEMEN: I am in receipt of yours, dated February 12th, in which you are pleased to communicate to me, and through me to the board of aldermen of the city of Little Rock, the information that you have been appointed by the commanding general to relieve us and our associates of any further duties, as the mayor and aldermen of said city. To which I beg leave, on behalf of myself and the board of aldermen, to reply that we are in no manner engaged in the military service, and were elected to our several positions in accordance with the charter of the city, to hold during our term of service, and until our successors should be elected and qualified. That we are not aware that your fitness for the several places into which you would seek a forcible intrusion has ever been submitted to the people, whose affairs you propose to administer, in the formal manner required by the charter of the city. That upon our qualifying for our several offices, we were required to take an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and the State of Arkansas, a conspicuous feature in which is, that the military authorities shall always be kept in strict subordination to the civil, a remembrance of which makes it as difficult to us to approve the steps which you suggest, as it might be found embarrassing to you, under the circumstances, to take a similar oath on your proposed inauguration. We are pleased, however, to recognize the only semblance of right which you pretend to claim, and whose virtues are included in mere physical force, which suffices to excuse us from the further performance of duties which we are no longer able to discharge. Upon satisfactory evidence being presented, therefore, that you have been commissioned to subvert the rights of the city and her people, freely given,

exercised, we believe, with equity and firmness for many years, and resisting the destructive influences of violent times, not from any force of its own, but from that of the law, and the sense of justice and propriety which usually pervades the minds of men, and that your authority emanates from a military source, which implies absolute force; the property of the city will be transferred to you by such titles as you have been commanded to assume, or may choose to adopt. Very respectfully, your obd't serv't,

J. W. HOPKINS,
 Mayor of the City of Little Rock.

On the day next preceding his expulsion from office, Mayor Hopkins issued an ordinance, forbidding, under penalty of ten to twenty-five dollars, the practice of ringing bells and beating drums through the streets of Little Rock, "to attract custom;" as this could not be but of great disturbance, perhaps, actual injury to quiet people, and, especially, the sick. He limited to auctioneers the liberty of making such noise, and this only "for five minutes, before the door of the place of auction."

By an order dated March 31, 1868, the military commander of the Sub-District of Arkansas, the better to insure tranquillity and safety, during the impending election for the ratification or rejection of the new State constitution, provided for the disposition of troops, throughout the State, as follows:

General Orders, No. 5.
 HEADQUARTERS SUB-DISTRICT OF ARKANSAS, }
 LITTLE ROCK, ARKANSAS, *March 3, 1868.* }

During the period of the approaching election, commencing the 13th instant, post-commanders will distribute their troops, by small detachments, at such places within their respective jurisdictions as their services may be most needed for the purpose of assisting the commissioners of election and deputy sheriffs in preserving order, also for the purpose of protecting every voter in the exercise of his right to go to and return from the polls without restraint or molestation. Parties guilty of unlawful interference with the rights of voters at the polls, or elsewhere, will be promptly arrested and reported.

Post-commanders will notify the boards of registrars of their several counties, at once, for their information, what disposition of troops they propose to make, and immediately after the election will forward a full report of action, taken under this order, to these headquarters. The mounted troops will be sent to remote stations, while dismounted detachments will be sent to places of less distance. A commissioned officer will accompany each detachment when practicable.

By command of
 Brevet Brigadier-General C. H. SMITH, U. S. A.,
 SAMUEL M. MILLS, A. A. G.

The polls at this election were kept open unusually long, from the 13th day of March till the beginning of April; and when they had been finally closed, loud complaints were made by the Democrats against the Republicans of illegal and fraudulent voting, practised in several counties, but especially in two, to the extent of above 2,000 ballots.

A petition, signed on April 13th, by several prominent persons, was addressed to the military commander, requesting him to inquire into these frauds, of which the petitioners gave him some specimens and promised to furnish others, if time were allowed. General Gillem

dispatched Colonel Tourtelotte to Little Rock, for the purpose of investigating the matter, and the colonel, in his report of April 22d, said the petitioners assured him it would take above six weeks before the frauds complained of could be traced up, and months before the investigation could be completed; that persons registered in one county had been allowed to vote in another, upon the authority of the law of Congress, passed March 11, 1868, permitting registered persons to vote in any county by a ten days' residence in the same, which law, though not officially published, the judges of election knew of, and apparently assumed to execute it on their own responsibility; adding that the Republicans, on the other hand, had made complaints to him that, by intimidation, and in some cases by actual force, the opposite party had hindered them from going to the polls.

But concerning the occurrences and final result of this election, whereby the new State constitution of Arkansas is declared to have been ratified by the people by a majority of 1,316 votes, it may be proper to subjoin that part of the official report, transmitted by General Gillem to the army headquarters at Washington, in which, after stating the facts returned to him, the general seems to regard the above-mentioned result of the election questionable, remitting its decision to the proper authority as follows:

It will be perceived by the foregoing table that there were cast for the constitution twenty-seven thousand nine hundred and thirteen (27,913); against the constitution, twenty-six thousand five hundred and ninety-seven (26,597); total, fifty-four thousand five hundred and ten (54,510); majority for the constitution, one thousand three hundred and sixteen (1,316).

Had the election been conducted in strict compliance with General Order No. 7, and the result been indicated by the above figures, the adoption of the constitution would have been indisputable; but an examination of the foregoing table of returns shows that, in Pulaski County, the total vote exceeds the total number registered by one thousand one hundred and ninety-five (1,195). This is explained by the registrars, who admit that they permitted persons registered in other counties to vote on the presentation of their certificates of registration, and without taking their names, or the counties and precincts in which they claim to be registered; nor did the officers conducting the election in this (Pulaski) county comply with par. III., General Order No. 7, from these headquarters, providing for the manner of conducting the election, by "checking off the voter's name on the precinct-book serving as the poll-book." It is, therefore, impossible to ascertain the number of the registered voters in Pulaski County who availed themselves of the right of franchise, and therefore impossible to ascertain the number in excess of eleven hundred and ninety-five (1,195) who voted in that county, and who were registered in other places. It is also impossible to ascertain whether or not these persons have voted where registered.

The same irregularities occurred in Jefferson County, where seven hundred and thirty (730) votes were cast by voters claiming to be registered in other counties or precincts.

If these votes, eleven hundred and ninety-five (1,195) in Pulaski, and seven hundred and thirty (730) in Jefferson—making a total of one thousand

nine hundred and twenty-five (1,925)—there is no means of ascertaining whether they were cast for or against the constitution.

Prior to the act of Congress passed March 11, 1868, and which was promulgated in General Order No. 14, from the War Department, dated March 14, 1868, there was no law or order in existence permitting voters registered in one county or precinct to vote in any other county or precinct. The act above referred to authorizes "any person duly registered in the State to vote in the election district where he offers to vote when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding such election, upon his presentation of his certificate of registration, his affidavit, or other satisfactory evidence, under such regulations as the district commander may prescribe."

The order containing this law was not received until *after* the election, and the dispatch from the General-in-chief containing no intimation of this provision, I was unaware of the existence of the law, and therefore prescribed no regulation for persons voting at other precincts than those in which they registered.

It appears from the report of Colonel J. E. Tourtelotte that the registrars in Pulaski, Jefferson, and Washington Counties, learning unofficially of this law, determined, on their own responsibility, to receive the votes of persons registered in other counties.

Colonel Tourtelotte was ordered to Little Rock for the purpose of investigating the frauds alleged by those opposed to the constitution, and was informed, by the parties preferring the charges, that at least six weeks would elapse before they could be ready to proceed with the investigation, and that months would be required to complete them. Such delay was not deemed expedient. All the evidence bearing on the subject is transmitted herewith.

As there was no separate record kept of the 1,925 votes cast in Pulaski and Jefferson Counties by persons not registered in those counties, there are no means of ascertaining whether or not they were cast for or against the constitution; and, therefore, if the reception of these votes by the registrars, under a law of the existence of which they had no legal notification, is held not to invalidate the election in the two counties above named, the constitution appears to have been adopted by a majority of 1,316.

In a question of such importance, and one purely civil, in which the action to be taken by the district commander is not prescribed by section five of the act of March 23, 1867, I have determined to forward the entire record for the action of the proper authorities.

I am, General, very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

ALVAN C. GILLEM, Brevet Maj.-Gen. U. S. A.

Commanding Fourth Military District.

General U. S. GRANT,

Commanding Armies of the U. S.

Three weeks in advance of General Gillem's official report on this election, those who had been elected members of the State Senate and House of Representatives, upon the assumption that, in said election, the new State constitution had been ratified by the people, assembled together, on April 1, at Little Rock, to begin their sessions. The constitution had designated that day and place for their meeting. They would have commenced their sessions on this day, had not the superintendent of the public buildings refused to open for them the appropriate halls as they requested. He refused on the ground that he had no official knowledge of such assembly. Whereupon they caused the building to be opened by a smith with tools, and on April 2, 1868, began to hold

their respective sessions and make laws, among which is their adoption of the amendment to the Constitution of the United States known as "Article Fourteen." These sessions of the Assembly have been continued since without interruption, except by recesses or adjournments. Its acts from the beginning may be looked upon as legalized by the subsequent action of Congress; though influential papers of the State published the reports of its proceedings under the heading, "The Pretended Legislature."

Upon these grounds has Arkansas been recognized and readmitted by Congress as a State of the Union, and entitled to have her representatives sitting among those of the other States in both halls of the Federal Legislature; as appears from the following act passed in May and June, 1868:

Whereas, The people of Arkansas, in pursuance of the provisions of an act entitled an "Act for the more effective government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, have framed and adopted a constitution of State government which is republican in form, and the Legislature of said State has duly ratified the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and known as article fourteen: therefore,

Be it enacted and it is hereby enacted, That the State of Arkansas is entitled and admitted to representation in Congress, as one of the States of the Union, upon the following fundamental condition: That the constitution of Arkansas shall not be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof he shall have been duly convicted.

This bill was indeed vetoed by the President; it has, however, become a law notwithstanding; and the Representatives of Arkansas, on the basis of her new constitution, have taken their respective seats in Congress.

In consequence of the new condition of things thus introduced in Arkansas, the commander of the Fourth Military District, by an order dated June 30, 1868, its provisions, however, to be reckoned as from June 22d, turned that State over to her civil authorities, recognizing them to have the full power in the government and administration of her affairs, as follows:

General Orders, No. 25.

HEADQUARTERS FOURTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI AND ARKANSAS, }
VICKSBURG, MISSISSIPPI, June 30, 1868. }

1. Official information having, this day, been received at these headquarters, of the admission, on the 22d inst., of the State of Arkansas to representation in Congress, it is hereby made known to all concerned that so much of the Act of March 2, 1867, and of the several acts supplementary thereto, as provides for military government in certain States, have become inoperative as to said State of Arkansas; and that every thing in the hands of the military authorities concerning its civil affairs will be immediately turned over to the several duly elected officers of the State, to date as from the 22d instant.

2. Brevet Brigadier-General C. H. Smith, com-

manding Sub-District of Arkansas, will see to the immediate execution of this order.

By command of Brevet Maj.-Gen. McDOWELL.

JOHN TYLER, First Lieutenant 43d Infantry.

Brevet Major U. S. A., A. A. A. General.

Official:

NAT WOLF, Second Lieut. 34th Infantry, A. A. A. General.

By a subsequent order of August 4th, General Gillem, pursuant to directions from the army headquarters at Washington, declared the State of Arkansas as separated from any further connection in military matters with the State of Mississippi, and attached for the future to the Department of Louisiana, headquarters at New Orleans, whereto he enjoined the military commander of the late Sub-District of Arkansas, at Little Rock, to report himself for instructions.

Meantime, under the auspices of the new State constitution, General Powell Clayton had been elected Governor of Arkansas, and on July 2, 1868, entered upon the duties of his office.

Serious disturbances having taken place in various parts of the State, and enormities perpetrated, especially within three counties, Governor Clayton adopted severe measures to suppress the disorders and restore public tranquillity, for which purpose, on August 27, 1868, he issued the following proclamation:

Whereas, It has been made known to me that a large number of lawless and evil-disposed persons in the counties of Conway, Perry, and Columbia, in the State of Arkansas, are in open rebellion against the laws of the State, that a court of justice has been broken up, and the civil authorities overpowered in said counties, by bodies of armed men, who have driven from their homes a large number of peaceable loyal citizens; and that the officers of the law are wholly powerless to preserve order or protect citizens from violence, within either of said counties; and reliable information having been received that quiet men have been assassinated, and attempts have been made upon the lives of others, in various other counties in this State, in which the laws are set at defiance, the lives of officers are threatened, and the civil authorities of the State are openly defied and set at naught, rendering it impossible for the constituted authorities of the law to preserve order and protect the lives and property of the people:

Now, therefore, I, Powell Clayton, Governor of the State of Arkansas, do hereby enjoin upon all persons within said State to keep the peace, and command all bodies of armed men (not organized in pursuance of the laws of the State, or of the United States) to immediately disperse, and return to their homes.

I do furthermore make known that I shall at once cause to be enrolled and organized the reserve militia in pursuance of said act, and shall use, as far as may be necessary, all the power and authority vested in me by the constitution and laws of the State of Arkansas, to preserve order, enforce the law, and protect the lives and property of every person within the State.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the State of Arkansas to be affixed, at Little Rock, this the twenty-seventh day of August, A. D. one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight.

POWELL CLAYTON, Governor.

By the Governor:

ROBERT J. T. WHITE, Secretary of State.

[SEAL]

In accordance with the provisions of this proclamation, the enrolment of the State militia was set immediately on foot by order of the commander of the regular army in Arkansas, issued on the same day.

Public disturbances and criminal acts of violence did not cease, however; they continued and even increased in frequency as well as enormity and extent of place; so that, on November 9, 1868, Governor Clayton placed ten counties of the State—Ashley, Bradley, Columbia, Lafayette, Mississippi, Woodruff, Craighead, Greene, Sevier, and Little River—under martial law.

“For the purpose of perfecting the organization of the militia and carrying into effect this proclamation,” a general order from headquarters of the State of Arkansas, dated November 7, 1868, abolished the previously-existing districts and established in their stead four military districts, apportioning to each respectively a proportionate number of the counties in the State.

In the House of the General Assembly of Arkansas, at its session of November 23, 1868, two memorials, addressed to the Legislature of the State, were duly presented and read, wherein the petitioners, proffering themselves advocates of peace, “most solemnly protest against the organization and arming of the militia and the levy of a tax for its support.” After consideration of the matter, the action and answer of the House was, that all of the fifty-nine members present, without a dissenting voice, adopted among other resolutions the following:

3. Being fully persuaded of the preconceived existence of wide-spread lawlessness and systematic assassination of the friends of the government, State and national, in certain counties for months past, and the desperadoes without a single exception being still at large and defying the officers of the law, we do, therefore, most earnestly approve and indorse the recent course of Governor Powell Clayton declaring martial law in several counties.

Of this deplorable condition of things, Governor Clayton spoke at length in his message sent to the Assembly at the opening of its session in November, 1868. They seem, however, to have grown still worse afterward, notwithstanding the organization and actual operations of the militia.

As to the present political disabilities of a portion of the white residents in the State, who are looked upon to be the principal, if not the only, authors of the criminal acts and disturbances which have so long kept and still keep that community in anxiety, the Governor said in his message that he “desired to see these disabilities removed as soon as it is safe to do so;” namely, “when this class of people show a willingness to recognize and fully acquiesce in these measures, and support the government established thereby.”

In respect to the State finances, Governor Clayton expressed his gratification, and recommended the funding of the State indebtedness,

which amounts to less than five millions, by “issuing new bonds and cancelling the old ones.”

He recommended also, as a measure worthy the attention of the Legislature at a future time, a new assessment of taxable property, one-third of which he says has heretofore escaped taxation, assuming that “the taxes of the great mass of tax-payers will be reduced very nearly in the same ratio as the valuation is increased.” For the rest he sets down the best rule that “the burden of taxation rest equally upon all, in proportion to the property they possess.”

Concerning the taxes to be levied on the people under different titles and for various purposes in detail, a number of tax-payers in Arkansas signed and submitted to the consideration of the Legislature during its session a memorial, of which the following is an extract:

“From the new tax law passed during your recent session, it appears that the taxes have been greatly increased by adding new subjects of taxation, by making new levies for extraordinary purposes, and by making provision for a new assessment, from which the revenue to be derived for the year 1868, even according to the moderate estimate of Treasurer Page, will amount to \$600,000, not including the school-tax of one-tenth per cent., nor the poll-tax for school purposes of one dollar, which will amount to about \$150,000 more, making, together, the sum of \$750,000 for State purposes alone, to say nothing about county, town, and local railroad taxes, and the United States internal revenue taxes and licenses, which together will amount to at least \$1,750,000, altogether making the enormous sum of \$2,500,000—ten times more than the government ever cost before.”

The unsettled condition of affairs greatly retarded the prosperity of the State, and has afforded little opportunity for the development of its resources.

The vote of the State at the presidential election was as follows: Total vote, 41,230. Majority for Gen. Grant, 3,074. In fifteen counties the registration and returns were rejected. The Legislature was divided as follows: Senate—Republicans, 21; Democrat, 1; House—Republicans, 79; Democrat, 1.

ARMY, UNITED STATES. The work of reducing the army has gone on with considerable celerity during the year. Orders were issued in November, 1867, to reduce all regiments of infantry and artillery, with the exception of the ten light batteries, to the number of fifty privates in each company, and to diminish the recruiting rendezvous to four for cavalry and four for infantry. On the 3d of April, 1868, all enlistment for artillery or infantry service was suspended, except in the case of old soldiers desiring to enlist; and further instructions, issued on the 24th of July, prohibited all enlistment or reënlistment in these two branches of the service. The war with the

Indians on the Western plains prevented a corresponding reduction of the cavalry force, and the services of a volunteer regiment of cavalry from the State of Kansas were accepted, which regiment was mustered in on the 6th of October. Five stations for recruiting the cavalry force remained open through the year.

The actual strength of all the regiments in the service, on the 30th of September, was 43,741, and it was reported that the term of enlistment of 4,500 of these would expire before the close of the year. The engineer, ordnance, and other special branches of the service employed 4,340 men. Of 203 volunteer officers remaining in the service in November, 1867, all have been mustered out but General Howard, the head of the Freedmen's Bureau. The whole number of colored troops mustered into service during the civil war was 169,624; of these 86,923 were mustered out, 20,236 were discharged, 31,866 died, 14,887 deserted, 1,514 were killed in action, 1,344 missing in action, and 366 were transferred to the navy. Several colored regiments still belong to the army.

The actual current expenses of the War Department for the fiscal year, ending June 30th, were \$68,743,094.71, to which is to be added the sum of \$9,961,405.43, old war debts paid during the year, making the total expenditures of the department \$78,704,501.14. The appropriations for the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1869, were \$35,400,557.47, and it has been estimated that there will be deficiencies to the amount of \$13,975,000. The requirements of the department for the year, ending June 30, 1870, are estimated at \$65,682,380.85. The disbursements of the pay department for the last year were:

For the Regular Army.....	\$17,803,963 53
For the Military Academy.....	169,199 04
For Volunteer Services.....	42,696,444 08
Total.....	\$60,669,606 65

The expenditures of the Ordnance Bureau for the last fiscal year were \$3,192,000, which is less than three-fifths those of the previous year. From the Commissary Department supplies were furnished for freedmen and refugees to the extent of \$882,884 in the year 1867, and \$632,776 in the year 1868, making a total of \$1,515,461, of which the Freedmen's Bureau repaid \$1,048,669. Army stores were issued to the Indians to the extent of \$640,439 in 1867, and \$373,926 in 1868. Besides these expenses outside of the ordinary claims on the department, \$250,500 were paid for commutation of rations, to soldiers who were prisoners during the war, or to their heirs, under the act of Congress of July, 1864.

Claims to additional bounty were allowed during the year, to the number of 241,992, involving an expenditure of \$23,649,157.78. Since the act of Congress granting this bounty, 435,199 claims have been received, of which 387,091 have been paid, 32,403 rejected, and 15,705 remain unsettled. The aggregate dis-

bursement on these claims has already amounted to about \$54,000,000.

The cost of reconstruction during the year was \$2,261,415.02, and a balance of funds to the amount of \$467,626.46 remains available for that object, which it is thought will finish the business.

The amount of money subject to the requisitions of the Quartermaster-General for the year was \$37,000,000, of which \$36,500,000 were disbursed. The surplus and new appropriations for the fiscal year, ending in 1869, amount to about \$15,000,000. The debts of Southern railroads to this department, for material furnished and interest thereon, are \$8,500,000. This is chiefly due from four roads in Tennessee, namely: Nashville and Chattanooga; Northwestern; Memphis, Clarksville, and Louisville; and East Tennessee and Georgia. A large quantity of clothing and equipments was left on hand at the close of the war, and no appropriation for new purchases has been made since.

More attention has been given, than heretofore, to the inspection of the army, and still further improvements in that regard are suggested. The officers of the Bureau of Inspection consist of a Judge Advocate-General, an Assistant Judge Advocate-General, and eight Judge Advocates. The work of the bureau, thus far, is comprised in 15,046 records of military courts, received, reviewed, and registered; and 1,457 reports on various subjects especially referred for opinion.

The number of military arsenals in the country is 27, including the national armory at Springfield. Measures have been taken for the sale of the St. Louis and Liberty Arsenals, and legislative authority is recommended to sell those at Rome, N. Y., and Vergennes, Vt., and a new arsenal is required at Omaha.

The Bureau for Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, has been kept up through the year, but there has been considerable reduction in the number of officers and agents, and arrangements are in progress to put an end to all its functions, excepting those of collecting claims for colored soldiers, and organizing and supporting schools for the freedmen. Treasury certificates and checks, for the settlement of claims of colored soldiers and marines, have been collected by the bureau to the number of 17,000, having a total value of nearly \$3,500,000. During the past year transportation was furnished to 6,418 persons; 150,000 received medical attendance; and 2,802,478 rations were issued, affording subsistence to an average of 16,000 persons daily; 27 hospitals have been closed and 21 still remain; but efforts are made to turn over the charge of the sick, the infirm, and the insane, to the civil authorities. The number of day and night schools in operation was 1,831, with 2,295 teachers, and 104,327 pupils. The aggregate number of Sunday and day schools of all kinds was 4,026, with 241,819 scholars; \$942,523.66 were ex-

pendent in the support of these schools during the year, besides the funds furnished by benevolent societies, amounting to \$700,000, and about \$360,000 contributed by freedmen. Fifteen normal schools and colleges have been chartered and incorporated in different parts of the country. The total expenditures of the bureau during the fiscal year were \$3,977,041.72, and a balance of \$3,622,067.99 remained on hand.

The corps of cadets on the 1st of June numbered 210 members, under the care and instruction of a superintendent, eight professors, and thirty-two army officers. Fifty-four members of the class were graduated on the 15th of June, and appointed to the army. The number of candidates admitted during the last academic year is ninety-six. The whole number of graduates of the Academy, from its first establishment at West Point to this time, is 2,273; the total cost has been \$8,236,373. The full number allowed by law at one time, when all the States are represented, is 290. It has been suggested of late that the number should be increased to four hundred.

An artillery school was organized at the close of 1867, by order of the General of the Army, and Brevet Major-General Barry, colonel of the 2d artillery, was assigned to its command. It was established at Fortress Monroe, and one battery from each of the five regiments of artillery was ordered to that post to be used in the instructions and experiments of the first year. The course of instruction includes both the theory and practice of that branch of military tactics. The theoretical studies embrace mathematics, military surveying, and engineering, artillery, military history, and military, international, and constitutional law.

Provision has, moreover, been made for instruction in military telegraphy and signalling. Books on these subjects have been furnished to each company and post, and steps have been taken to provide the necessary telegraphic apparatus and equipments for signalling. A school for study and practice in these branches has been put in successful operation at Fort Grebel, Maryland; and they have been introduced at the Military School at West Point, and the Naval Academy at Annapolis.

Some changes were made in the military districts and departments in the South, owing to the admission to their normal relations in the Union of several of the reconstructed States. The changes are indicated in the following order:

General Orders, No. 55.

HEADQ'RS OF THE ARMY, ADJ.-GENERAL'S OFFICE; }
WASHINGTON, July 23, 1868. }

The following orders from the War Department, which have been approved by the President, are published for the information and government of the army and of all concerned:

The commanding generals of the Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Military Districts having officially reported that the States of Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and

Florida, have fully complied with the acts of Congress known as the reconstruction acts, including the act passed June 22, 1868, entitled "An act to admit the State of Arkansas to representation in Congress," and the act passed June 25, 1868, entitled "An act to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida to representation in Congress," and that, consequently, so much of the act of March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, as provides for the organization of military districts, subject to the military authority of the United States, as therein provided, has become inoperative in said States; and that the commanding generals have ceased to exercise in said States the military powers conferred by said acts of Congress: therefore, the following changes will be made in the organization and command of military districts and geographical departments:

1. The Second and Third Military Districts having ceased to exist, the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, will constitute the Department of the South; Major-General George G. Meade to command. Headquarters at Atlanta, Georgia.

2. The Fourth Military District will now consist only of the State of Mississippi, and will continue to be commanded by Brevet Major-General A. C. Gillem.

3. The Fifth Military District will now consist of the State of Texas, and will be commanded by Brevet Major-General J. J. Reynolds. Headquarters at Austin, Texas.

4. The States of Louisiana and Arkansas will constitute the Department of Louisiana. Brevet Major-General L. H. Rousseau is assigned to the command. Headquarters at New Orleans, Louisiana. Until the arrival of General Rousseau at New Orleans, Brevet Major-General Buchanan will command the department.

5. Brevet Major-General George Crooke is assigned, according to his brevet of major-general, to command the Department of the Columbia, in place of Rousseau, relieved.

6. Brevet Major-General E. R. S. Canby is reassigned to command the Department of Washington.

7. Brevet Major-General Edward Hatch, Colonel 9th cavalry, will relieve General Buchanan as Assistant Commissioner of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands in Louisiana.

By command of General Grant:

E. D. TOWNSEND, Assistant Adjutant-General.

With regard to the employment of the troops in those States after the reestablishment of the civil authorities, instructions were issued to the several commanders on the 25th of August, based upon an opinion, given by the Attorney-General on the subject. The important points in these instructions are contained in the following passage: "The obligation of the military, individual officers and soldiers, in common with all citizens, to obey the summons of a marshal or sheriff, must be held subordinate to their paramount duty as members of a permanent military body; hence the troops can act only in their proper organized capacity under their own officers, and in obedience to the immediate commanders of those officers. The officers commanding troops summoned to the aid of a marshal or sheriff, must also judge for himself, and upon his own official responsibility, whether the service required of him is lawful and necessary, and compatible with the proper discharge of his ordinary military duties, and must limit his action absolutely to proper aid in the execution of the lawful precepts exhibited to him by the marshal or

sheriff. If time will permit, every demand from a civil officer for military aid, whether it be for the execution of civil process or to suppress insurrections, should be forwarded to the President with all the material facts in the case for his orders, and in all cases the highest commander, whose orders can be given in time to meet the emergency, will alone assume the responsibility of action. By a timely disposition of troops where there is reason to apprehend a necessity for their use, and by their passive interposition between hostile parties, dangers of collision may be avoided. Department commanders, or, in case of necessity, their subordinates, are expected in this regard to exercise upon their own responsibility a wise discretion, to the end that in any event the peace may be preserved."

In his "opinion," Attorney-General Evarts used this language: "Nothing can be less in accordance with the nature of our Government, or the disposition of our people, than a frequent or ready resort to military aid, in execution of the duties confided to civil officers. Courage, vigor, and intrepidity, are appropriate qualities for the civil service, which the marshals of the United States are expected to perform, and a reinforcement of their power by extraordinary means is permitted by the law only in extraordinary emergencies."

The only portion of the army which has seen active service during the year is that under the command of General Sherman in the Department of the Missouri, where operations against the hostile Indians on the Plains have been carried on from time to time. (*See INDIAN WAR.*)

Among the changes recommended in the general administration of affairs, is the transfer of the management of all matters pertaining to the Indians from the Department of the Interior to that of War, and there is considerable probability that such a change will be made.

Steps have been taken, under authority of the acts of Congress, approved August 3, 1861, and June 25, 1864, for dropping from the rolls of the army, upon the report of an examining board, such officers as may be found unfit for service on account of intemperate or vicious habits. Much will undoubtedly be done in this way to elevate the character of the service. A reform is recommended by the Adjutant-General in the matter of military prisons. Guardhouse confinement he regards as an ineffectual and very injurious mode of punishment, and discharge from the regiment is at once followed by an enlistment in another regiment under an assumed name. He recommends military prisons, which, he says, if properly managed, would serve as reformatory institutions, and would rid the army of many vicious and insubordinate men; they would materially diminish the need and expense of courts-martial, prevent the discharge of many desperate men in the unsettled parts of the country, where they always become pests and outlaws,

and would facilitate the recognition of offenders against the civil law who have entered the ranks of the army. He proposes to build the first prison in New York harbor, and if that is found to work well, then he would have Congress to provide for similar institutions on Ship Island, at one point on the Pacific coast and at one point in the Mississippi valley. The labor of convicts and the stoppages of pay would, he thinks, nearly support each prison after its erection. He would have companies of discipline attached to each prison, into which, under proper regulations, all idle and worthless men of the class who prefer being in the guardhouse to doing duty should be transferred, and would have these vagabonds severely dealt with.

Great attention has been given to gathering and identifying the remains of soldiers, slain in the late civil war. There are now 72 national cemeteries, besides very many local and private grounds. The whole number of graves recorded is 316,233, and the occupants of 145,764 have been already clearly identified. Some twenty-five rolls of honor have been prepared, which contain a list of the graves of nearly 200,000 soldiers, with a record of the place where the remains were found, and about 100,000 concerning the occupants of which no record has yet been made, though documents in existence may furnish the needed information. The records which are made contain all the facts which could be gathered concerning the bodies of the dead. The expense of this care for the relics of the fallen soldiers of the nation thus far is about \$2,000,000, and it is thought that \$500,000 more will be needed. The Grand Army of the Republic inaugurated this year a custom of strewing with flowers the graves of the buried soldiers, on the 30th of May, a tribute to their departed comrades which it is proposed sacredly to observe from year to year. This touching observance was by no means confined to the members of the Grand Army, but people of all classes throughout the country joined in this floral tribute to the memory of the dead.

There was a "grand reunion" of the officers of the Thirteenth Army Corps, and of the Armies of the Ohio, Tennessee, Cumberland, and Georgia, at Chicago, on the 15th and 16th of December. These reunions, it is thought, will become common with the officers of the army of the late war.

ASIA. The territory of the European governments in Asia, which already embraces about one-half of the entire area, is steadily enlarging. The war between Russia and the Khan of Bokhara, and the conquest of nearly the whole territory of the latter by Russia, must have taught the weak rulers of Central Asia that they are powerless against their two great Christian neighbors, Russia and England. Only to the disagreement of these two powers is it due that Khokan, Bokhara, Afghanistan, Beloochistan, and a few other countries of Central Asia, are still enumerated among the states of

Asia. English and Russian influences were especially at conflict in Afghanistan, which, throughout the year, was the scene of a civil war between the sons and grandsons of the late Dost Mahomed. In the latter part of the year, the partisan of England, Sheere Ali, seemed to have established his rule.

No part of Asia is making as rapid progress in civilization as British India. As it is the wealthiest empire of Asia, and by far more populous than any single state of Europe; its advance in civilization is of immense importance for the future of both Asia and Europe. The foreign relations of India, throughout the year, were of a pacific nature. Indian troops were employed by England in the Abyssinian war, where they acquitted themselves to the entire satisfaction of their English commander. At home some trouble was caused by the Wahabees, a fanatical sect of Mohammedans.

In Arabia, the Imaum of Muscat, by far the most powerful sovereign of the country, who claims authority over the whole of Omam, the islands of the Persian Gulf, and a vast extent of territory on the east coast of Africa, was dethroned and succeeded by the chief of the Wahabees. This sect, which designs to restore Mohammedanism to its ancient purity, has of late obtained control of a large portion of Central Arabia, and now, having added Muscat to its empire, constitutes a greater power than this part of Asia has known for centuries.

China is beginning to derive great advantages from the establishment of the regular monthly steamship line which connects it with the United States. The commerce of the great ports is developing at a very rapid rate. Of still greater importance are likely to be the negotiations which the Hon. Anson Burlingame, as Chinese plenipotentiary, has been conducting with the United States, England, and France. The Chinese Government is willing to harmonize its administration in all essential points with that of the civilized nations, and in return asks to be treated itself by foreigners as any other civilized government. Mr. Burlingame's mission in the United States was entirely successful. In England, though at first received with great mistrust, he likewise succeeded in effecting a new treaty. Reports from the interior of China state that Christianity, and in particular the Roman Catholic Church, is making great progress. (*See CHINA.*)

For Japan, the past year was the turning-point in its political history, and the beginning of a new era. The young Mikado resumed the reins of the government, which for centuries had been in the hands of the Tycoon. As the latter resisted the claims of the Mikado by force of arms, a civil war ensued, which resulted in the resignation of the Tycoon, the abolition of the Tycoonate, the reestablishment of the Mikado's authority, and the transfer of the seat of government to Yeddo. The civil war was continued by some Daimios of the party of the

Tycoon, even after the resignation of the latter; but, at the close of the year, the complete triumph of the Mikado seemed to be fully secured. (*See JAPAN.*)

The area and population of the independent Asiatic states are shown by the following table:

COUNTRIES.	Square miles.	Population.
Turkey in Asia.....	672,007	16,463,000
Arabia.....	1,026,040	4,000,000
Persia.....	562,344	5,000,000
Afghanistan and Herat.....	258,530	4,000,000
Beloochistan.....	165,830	2,000,000
Independent Tartary, embracing the khanates of Khiva, Kokan, Bokhara, Maymene, and the country of the Turcomans).	640,516	7,780,000
China.....	4,695,334	477,500,000
Japan.....	149,399	35,000,000
Burmah.....	190,517	193,340,414
Siam.....	309,024	6,298,998
Anam.....	198,043	9,000,000

The following exhibits the area and population of the European dependencies:

COUNTRIES.	Square miles.	Inhabitants.
Russian Territory.....	5,812,255	9,748,017
Turkey in Asia.....	672,007	16,463,000
East India and British Burmah.	1,553,772	193,340,414
Ceylon.....	24,705	2,049,728
Cochin China (French).....	21,728	979,116
Straits Settlement.....	1,084	282,831
Peninsula of Molucca.....	31,700	209,000
East India Islands.....	799,359	27,678,804

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS. *The Total Solar Eclipse.*—The most important astronomical event of the year was the total eclipse of the sun, which took place August 17th. It could be seen in its perfection only in a path which traversed India, the Malay Peninsula, and the Oriental islands. The English, French, and German Governments took great interest in the phenomenon, and sent out parties of astronomers and photographers, thoroughly equipped with the finest instruments, to make scientific observations of it. The points which it was desired to elucidate in connection with the eclipse may be briefly given as follows: 1. Whether the corona or bright white aureole, seen around the moon during the solar obscuration, is the sun's atmosphere, or a thin atmosphere of the earth extending to the moon and made suddenly visible by the solar rays striking through it. Royal Astronomer Airy, of England, inclines to the latter hypothesis, but has not been sustained by the prevailing sentiment of astronomers throughout the world. Tests by polarization had tended to show that this effect of the corona was caused by a solar atmosphere surrounding the sun for a great distance, and visible to us at certain seasons, as the zodiacal light. 2. What is the nature of the rosy protuberances, the glowing mountains of flame, the ragged, fiery fringe seen upon the limb of the moon at the moment of total eclipse? At the eclipse of 1860, several photographs were taken of these lurid excrescences, and they all agreed in giving the same position and outlines to them, thereby demonstrating that they were not apparitions, but

realities. It was hoped that spectrum analyses would solve this enigma; as it was to be the first eclipse at which the science of the spectroscope would be called into play. Kirchhoff, De la Rue, Nasmyth, and others, had already, by the agency of this instrument, observing the sun, under the ordinary conditions, become convinced of the existence of incandescent vaporous matter around that body, to which they had given the name of photosphere. According to their view, it was an envelope of gaseous matter in a state of combustion, at an inconceivably high temperature, by which the most refractory metals would be readily vaporized. The inspection of the lurid prominences seen during the eclipse was expected to confirm this generally-accepted theory.

Full reports of the observations of the various parties have not yet been made public; but the following statements, from official and unofficial sources, give the more important facts and inferences with regard to the eclipse.

An observer of the eclipse, at Aden, writes the following to the London *Times*:

As the result of the observations taken by our astronomical expeditions in Southern India can only have reached England through the medium of electricity, I avail myself of the passage of a mail steamer to communicate what was observed at this station. The only astronomers and photographers that have come to Aden are all Germans; three of them, Dr. Weiss, Navigating Lieutenant Rhea, and another gentleman, are Austrians. Their chief object was to make observations on the constitution of the corona. From the observations taken by these gentlemen, there can be no doubt that the problem is now solved, several varied experiments proving in a most conclusive manner that the corona merely consists of inflammable gas in a high state of combustion. The North-German party consisted of one astronomer, Dr. Thiel, of Bremen, and four Prussian photographers working under the direction of Dr. Fritch, of Berlin. This party devoted their attention chiefly to photographing the different phases of the eclipse, having selected Aden as the most likely spot in the zone of "totality" to be free from clouds.

Several English amateurs, officers of the army and navy, also contributed their help in recording various experiments according to their respective abilities.

The weather for a week preceding the eventful 18th had been unusually cloudy for Aden, and prevented the savants who had arrived in the beginning of August from making as many observations as they would have wished. The mornings had been particularly trying, the sun rising between thick banks of purple-gray clouds.

On the evening of the 17th almost all the rank and fashion of Aden made an exodus to Marshag Hill, the eastern promontory of Aden, where the German party were established with all their instruments. The night was very cloudy, and much anxiety was felt by all interested in the success of the observations. At gray dawn, however, and just before first contact, the banks of cloud separated into broad bands, occasionally shutting out a view of the eclipse. Totality commenced at 6h. 29m. 28s. A. M., and lasted 2m. 55s., during which interval a most magnificent view of the phenomena was obtained, and four most successful photographs were taken.

The only planets and stars observed during the totality were Venus, Jupiter, and Sirius, which at once shows that the darkness was not great.

At the time of totality the height of the tide was 7½ feet, or for Aden a good average spring tide. The preceding spring tides (about a fortnight before)

were very bad, the rise and fall not being more than four feet.

On first separation a most beautifully soft light stole out from behind the moon, lighting up the sea and rocks of Aden in an indescribably beautiful manner.

The sun was unfortunately behind a cloud at the final separation, which could not be, therefore, determined within a second of time. The times were, of—

	H.	M.	S.
Totality.....	6	29	28
First separation.....	6	32	23

Totality.....0 2 53

The German party were delighted with all their experiments, and considered themselves amply repaid for their trouble. They had most superb instruments, and were particularly civil and obliging in explaining their use, mechanism, etc. Among the most interesting was a photographing telescope, which is made self-acting by means of a most ingenious clock-work mechanism, which, with the help of a simple pendulum and endless wheels, is so delicately adjusted as to counteract the motion of the earth, and to keep the telescope rightly fixed on the star or planet during the ten or fifteen seconds required to receive the impression.

I send a rough representation of the corona. Its size was accurately measured by means of a telescope with small squares in the diaphragm. These valves can be exactly determined by experiments with the same telescope in the distance between known stars, which can be brought to scale.

I have the honor to be, sir, your most obedient servant,

A. G.

ADEN, August 21.

Dr. Weiss, of Vienna, had charge of the Austrian expedition, and selected Aden as his place of observation, chiefly because he had heard much of the usual freedom of the sky there from rain and cloud. The doctor and his assistants observed three large prominences on the border of the moon during the eclipse. The most remarkable of these he describes as sharply defined, finger-shaped, brilliant with the most vivid carmine red, the length of which amounted to about the eighth part of the sun's semi-diameter. Dr. Weiss and Dr. Theodor Oppolzer both made measures of the position and magnitude of each of these protuberances, and the results agreed with each other. Attention was also directed to the corona, which had a certain general similarity to that seen in Spain at the solar eclipse of July 18, 1860. It could not, however, be perfectly observed, because its longer radiations were for the most part concealed by clouds. Lieutenant Rhea conducted the spectral investigations. He remarked, at the occurrence of the totality, a sudden disappearance of all the dark (Fraunhofer's) lines, the spectrum passing into a so-called continuous one, faint indeed, but still quite distinctly visible. Toward the end of the totality, when a thin veil of cloud had passed over the sun, by which the corona was hidden, whilst the protuberances glimmered through it, the most refrangible part of the spectrum disappeared almost entirely, and there remained a series of red bands, separated from each other by broad dark spaces.

Major G. F. Tennant, R. E., who had com-

mand of the English expedition, gives the following account of photographic operations, in a letter to Prof. G. B. Airy, the Astronomer Royal, dated Guntoor, April 18th:

The morning was very promising, and, if it had followed the course of its predecessor, we would have had a magnificent clear sky, but it clouded over the east with thin cumulo-strati, which, while hardly stopping vision, interfered very much with the photographic energy; and the result was that every negative was under-exposed, and we have little more than very dense marks, showing the protuberances. The six plates arranged for were duly exposed, but the heat so concentrated the nitrate of silver solution, that, besides showing but faint traces of any corona, they are all covered with spots. Still, we may make something of them, and will try.

Captain Branfill reports the protuberances unpolarized, and the corona strongly polarized everywhere, in a plane passing through the centre of the sun.

Complementarily, I have to report a continuous spectrum from the corona, and one of bright lines from the prominence I examined. I am, I believe, safe in saying that three of the lines in the spectrum of the protuberances compared to C, D and b. I saw a line in the green near F, but I had lost so much time in finding the protuberance (owing to the finder having changed its adjustment since last night), that I lost it in the sunlight before measuring it, and I believe I saw traces of a line in the blue near G, but to see them clearly involves a very large change in the focus of the telescope, which was out of the question then. I conclude that my result is, that the atmosphere of the sun is mainly of non-luminous (or faintly luminous) gas at a short distance from the limb of the sun. It may have had faintly luminous lines, but I had to open the jaws a good deal to get what I could see at first, and consequently the lines would be diffused somewhat; still, I think I should have seen them. The prominence I examined was a very high narrow one, almost to my eye like a bit of the sun through a chink in brightness and color (I could see no tinge of color), and somewhat zigzagged like a flash of lightning. It must have been three minutes high, for it was on the preceding side of the sun near the vertex, and was a marked object both in the last photo-plate, just before the sun reappeared, and to the eye.

Captain Branfill saw the prominence colored, as did two other gentlemen; but one in my observatory (like myself) only saw it white. I should, however, say that for long, I never saw Alpha Orionis markedly red, nor Antares, and I may not catch red soon, though I cannot conceive this being so.

In conclusion, I may note that the darkness was very slight, and the color not half so gloomy as in the eclipse of 1857, which was partial at Delhi, where I was then.

The London News, of August 25th, says:

Telegrams have been received almost simultaneously from Major Tennant, who commanded the expedition sent out by the Astronomical Society, and from Dr. Janssen, who commanded the French expedition. Major Tennant states that light fleecy clouds covered the sky, but that the eclipse has been, in the main, successfully observed. This news is very promising, because his party had undertaken the duty of photographing the eclipse. The Government of India had obtained from England a Newtonian reflector, especially constructed for the occasion; and arrangements had been made by means of which it was hoped that six photographic pictures would be taken during the totality. Major Tennant would hardly have described the observation of the eclipse as successful, unless several trustworthy photographs had been taken.

M. Janssen states that the eclipse has been successfully observed. The spectrum of the red protu-

berances which are seen around the black disk of the moon during totality, and which have long since been proved to belong to the sun, has been found to present a very remarkable and unexpected appearance. What this appearance is he does not tell us; but one conclusion drawn from the nature of the spectrum is that the protuberances themselves are gaseous. It will interest our readers to know that, whatever dubiety must still be attached to the results of the observations made by M. Janssen, we may accept at once this general conclusion of his as beyond a peradventure. There are few observations more simple and conclusive than those by which the general character of a self-luminous object is determined by spectroscopic analysis. The rainbow-colored streak of light which indicates that the source of light is a luminous solid or liquid; the colored streak crossed by dark lines which indicates that before reaching us the light from such a source has passed through absorptive vapors; and the spectrum consisting of bright lines only, which indicates that the source of light is a luminous gas; all these spectra are so readily distinguishable *inter se* that it is impossible for the veriest beginner to mistake one for another. Thus it may be looked upon as absolutely certain that the nature of the colored prominences has now been definitely settled. Those enormous masses of luminous matter, some of which exceed the earth many hundreds of times in volume, are now known to be great gas-heaps. It had been supposed that they were solar clouds, formed by the condensation of the metallic vapors which exist within the solar atmosphere into liquid globules, in a manner precisely corresponding to the formation of aqueous clouds in our own atmosphere. This view will now in all probability have to be definitively abandoned. Yet that the prominences are formed by some sort of condensation taking place within the solar atmosphere seems almost indisputable; so that the evidence we now have seems to show that, as a modern astronomer has suggested, the fierce heat which exists in the sun's immediate neighborhood is sufficient to "melt solid matter, turn liquids into vapors, even vapors into some still more subtle form."

Dr. Hermann Vogel, who accompanied the North-German expedition to Aden, as photographer, writes to the Augsburg Gazette. His experiences were:

At 4 o'clock on the 18th of August, we left Aden, where the expedition had established its headquarters. Nine-tenths of the sky was overcast, and we endeavored to feel as resigned as possible to our probable disappointment. Our object was to obtain as many photographs as could be taken of the phenomena during the three minutes they would last, and in order to do this we had practised with our machine, like soldiers with fire-arms. Dr. Frische was charged with the preparation of the plates, Dr. Zenker with putting the slides into the machine, Dr. Therle with drawing them out when they had been exposed a sufficient time, while my business was in the tent. With this division of labor we found that it would be possible to obtain six photographs in the three minutes. As the important moment approached, to our delight we saw, through a break in the clouds, the disk of the sun, partially covered by the moon. The landscape around us assumed a strange hue, neither sunlight nor moonlight—the chemical-color rays were exceedingly weak. As a test, we exposed a plate in the machine for fifteen seconds, and obtained a good impression of the clouds; as the disk of the sun grew smaller the clouds opened out. The last minute before the total eclipse arrived, Dr. Frische and I crept into our tent—our work began. The first plate was experimentally exposed five and ten seconds, in order to be sure of the right time. Mohammed, our black servant, brought me the first slide into the tent. I prepared the plate, and anxiously watched to see what would appear. Just then my light went out. I

rushed out of the tent with the plate in my hand, and came back with a small oil lamp, which, in case of accidents, I had placed on a table outside. Eagerly I gazed on the plate; the dark border of the sun was surrounded on one side by peculiar protuberances, and on the other was a remarkable horn. The phenomena were the same on both pictures. My joy was great, but I had no time to indulge in it. The second plate, and, a moment afterward, the third plate, were brought into the tent. Dr. Zenker shouted to us that the sun was reappearing. The total eclipse was over. The last two plates only showed slight impressions of pictures, as they had been spoilt by the clouds, which, while they were exposed in the machine, had closed in. The three plates showed protuberance on the lower border. We washed, fixed, and lackered our plates, and took several copies of them on glass, which will be sent separately to Europe, in order to insure their safe arrival.

Commander Perrin, of the Peninsular and Oriental steamship Carnatic, reported to the directors of his company from Suez:

The position of the ship at the time of the first contact was lat. 16 N., lon. 54.15 E., being thus twenty miles north of the northernmost limit of totality in that meridian. The eclipse was with us only partial, that portion of the sun's disk remaining unobscured being, however, only about one-sixteenth part of its diameter. Unfortunately, at the time of the first contact, the sun was obscured by clouds, which threatened to deprive us entirely of seeing any part of the eclipse. At intervals, however, we got very hasty glimpses of its progression, though so short as to prevent reliable observations being taken; at length the bank of clouds dispersed and left a perfectly clear view of the eclipse at that stage, the sun having about two-thirds of its diameter eclipsed. At 7 A. M., the nearest point of totality had been reached, the altitude being twenty-two degrees ten minutes. It was at this time our best efforts were directed for observing the phenomena presented. That portion of the sun remaining uneclipsed consisted of a narrow streak in shape like a crescent of its upper left limb, in size about one-sixteenth part of its diameter. The light emitted from this was of a peculiar character and difficult to describe, being at the same time extremely brilliant and yet most remarkably pale. The high sea running appeared like huge waves of liquid lead, and the ghastly paleness of the light thrown upon it and all around revealed a scene which, for its weird-like effect, it would be as impossible to depict as it is to describe. The eclipse not being total with us, the corona was not visible. The first appearance noted by the spectroscope was that of several dark lines in the spectrum of that portion of the sun visible at its greatest obscuration, which was examined through a narrow chink with the instrument, as recommended by Lieutenant Herschel. The next appearance was a roughness on the concave edge of the crescent of sunlight left visible. This was well marked, and seen very plainly with the unarméd spectroscope; the rapidly increasing brightness of the sun prevented the prisms being of much use except during the darkest part of the eclipse. Throughout, the rays between red and green predominated over those between green and violet. A small black spot was observed on the sun's disk, situated in its upper right limb, distant about one-eighth part of its diameter from its extreme edge. Contact ceased at 16h. 43m. 29s. Greenwich mean time. The only meteorological peculiarities discovered were that the temperature the day before the eclipse was unusually low, being 74 degrees at noon, while, on the preceding day and that of the eclipse, it was 80 degrees and 79 degrees respectively. The direction or force of the usual monsoon wind was not apparently affected; the two only noticeable features being the extreme haziness of the horizon, with a clear sky, and the highly luminous appearance of the sea at night. The daily tidal range

of the barometer was considerably greater in scope than I have ever remarked before upon the day preceding the eclipse. The temperature of the sea during the eclipse was 75 degrees, that of the air 77 degrees, and barometer steady, at 29.70 degrees.

The commander of the Peninsular and Oriental steamship Rangoon had a good view of the eclipse. He writes:

The ship was at that time on the central line, viz.: in lat. 15.42 N., lon. 59.15 E. The total eclipse lasted four minutes eight seconds. The sketch shows what was seen by a large number of persons. In observing with the spectroscope, I saw what none of the others could see with their glasses, viz.: two prominences on the right limb of the moon (showing in the spectroscope to the left), of a yellow flame-color immediately opposite to the red ones, the whole forming a square, with the moon in the centre showing out like a mass of rock. The color of the corona as seen through the prism was red, a yellowish green, blue, and violet; the violet the brightest till the middle of the eclipse, when the red became lumpy and showed brighter. The spectrum from the moon cut through the centre of this but very faint, the red thrown out with a curve. The motion of the ship was so great, it was impossible to get minute observations. There was so much haze and flying cloud, only Venus and one other star could be seen.

1. A small red flame or protuberance on the right-hand lower corner of the moon, visible a few seconds before the sun was totally eclipsed, disappeared a few seconds after.

2. A minute and a half after commencement of total eclipse, a long, red flame of about five minutes of arc on lower left-hand corner, and a red flame or blotch on upper hand, both visible from commencement of totality and very bright.

3. Three minutes after commencement, the long red flame rather shorter, and the upper one increased in size.

4. At reappearance of the sun's upper limb, the upper protuberance disappeared, the lower one was visible for about ten seconds after, about half its former size.

A native Bombay journal publishes the following descriptive paragraph: "The scene in the native town was curious at the time of this solar phenomenon. Men and women in their half-barbaric shabby dress were to be seen going from one temple to another to pray the deity to go to the help of the luminary of the day in his duel with the headless giant, 'Rahu.' The hallalcores, who are the dregs of the native community, received charities of gold and silver, copper, and clothes of various kinds. The ignorant thought that these sweepers have the efficacy of freeing the sun from this torment."

The Lunar Crater Linné.—Mr. W. R. Birt, Secretary of the British Association Moon Committee, furnishes a paper to the *Student* for August, on later observations of the supposed new lunar crater Linné (see ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1867, article ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS). He says that on June 26, 1868, at 9.45, G. M. T., he had a very favorable view of Linné with a Crossley equatorial of 7.3 inch aperture, and powers 122, 182, and 384. Nothing was visible but a small cone casting a shadow to the east, not quite so distinct and persistent as the shadow of the highest part of the ridge to

the south (the sixth ridge of Schroter). On that date there was not the slightest indication of a shallow crater, nor the least appearance in the surface round the cone which might be considered indicative of its becoming a white spot as the sun rose above it. The terminator was a little east of the cone, and the next ridge beyond the cone toward the east was becoming visible. Mr. Huggins, Mr. Carpenter, and Mr. Penrose observed Linné the same evening, with the same results obtained by Mr. Birt. Mr. Carpenter also gives the crater opening on the cone. Rev. T. W. Webb made observations confirming those of the other gentlemen. The portion of the Mare Serenitatis on which the cone was seen is so surrounded by ridges as to be easily taken for a large shallow crater, and it may be that some of the discordances between observers may be thus explained. Mr. Birt remarks that we are greatly ignorant of the true nature of the moon's surface. The extent of our knowledge appears to be of a twofold character: First, we perceive differences of color and brightness, from which we infer that the surface consists of different materials reflecting different degrees of light, and also of tint. Second, the presence of shadow reveals to us manifest irregularities of surface as regards level, elevation, and depression. With the nature of the surface beyond these two characteristics we are unacquainted, and can only trace out slowly certain analogies with phenomena that are familiar to us on the earth's crust.

Other supposed Changes in the Moon.—Herr J. F. Julius Schmidt, Director of the Athens Observatory, notified Mr. Birt, in June, of his discovery of another supposed change on the moon's surface. The region of the phenomenon is situated easterly, near Alpetragius. At this point Mädler in his Atlas has a crater almost a mile in diameter, and says, "in the farthest east shines also, with a light of 8°, the small crater d." This crater d, Herr Schmidt proceeds to say, now no longer exists, but, in

its place is a round spot of light more than two miles broad, extremely brilliant, which has quite the character of the spot Linné and of the few others of this kind which are found on the moon. The small crater south of d, which Mädler gives, is still distinctly visible. Schroter has nothing about this spot of light. Lohrmann's (unedited) plate gives a very large spot, almost 2° in magnitude, and a very small hill inside of it. Herr Schmidt sent to Mr. Birt three sketches, the first from Mädler, the second from Lohrmann, and the third his own. Mr. Birt took an early opportunity to examine the region of the supposed change. Schmidt's sketch was found to be a faithful representation of the spot, with perhaps the exception of the white spot being better defined and in more striking contrast with the surface near it. Two friends, who were with Mr. Birt at the time, bore testimony to the accuracy of Schmidt's sketch. Mr. B., of course, failed to identify the features depicted by Lohrmann and Mädler.

Mr. W. R. Birt communicated a paper to the meeting of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, giving an account of a new variable spot on the moon's surface, which exhibited similar phenomena to those of the crater Linné. The observations were made by Rev. W. O. Williams, of Pwllheli, who had undertaken the examination of a zone on the moon's surface, of 2° of latitude, from 4° to 6° south. The spot in question was situated on the southwestern side of the ridge forming the northeastern boundary of Hipparchus. Its diameter is 5°.94, and magnitude 0°.37, the diameter of Dionysius being regarded as unity. On De la Rue's photograph, February 22, 1858, it appears as a spot of about 4° of brightness. It is not so bright as Linné, which is about 5°. On Rutherford's photograph it appears brighter than in De la Rue's, namely, 5°—Linné being 6° in the same photograph. The observations alluded to by Mr. Birt are as follows:

YEAR.	Date.	Authority.	Character.	Brightness.
1858	February 22.....	De la Rue, Ph.	A bright spot.	4°
1865	March 6.....	Rutherford, Ph.	A bright spot.	5°
1867	May 11 84.....	Birt, Obs.	A shallow crater.	
1867	October 7 84 to 10...	Williams,	A very bright spot.	
1867	" 17.....	Ingall,	A faint shallow crater.	
1867	" 17 134.....	Ingall,	Drawn as a crater.	
1867	" 17 13 to 15...	Williams,	A very conspicuous crater.*	
1867	" 18 17 to 19...	Williams,	Crater very conspicuous, with a small central cone casting a shadow.	
1867	November 5 9 to 10...	Williams,	Very bright, a streak of interior shadow on the west.	7°
1867	" 6 8 to 10...	Williams,	A bright patch of light, streak of shadow scarcely discernible.	6°
1867	" 15 18 to 20...	Williams,	Very bright.*	10°
1867	December 5 6 to 8...	Williams,	A whitish spot, no trace of a crater.	5°
1867	" 6 9 to 10...	Williams,	A whitish spot, no crater.	5°

Mr. Baxendell states that on the night of the 3d of January, 1868, he had an opportunity of examining the spot referred to by Mr. Birt, with Mr. Gladstone's equatorially mounted

achromatic of 7½ inches aperture, using pow-

* On these occasions Mr. Williams saw a small bright point to the east, which he considered to be the highest point of the ridge.

ers from 60 to 250. It was then a well-marked though shallow crater, having a diameter about three-fourths of that of Beer and Mädler's Hipparchus F. The shadow of the western wall was very conspicuous on the floor of the crater.

In a paper read before the British Association, Baron von Mädler makes a few suggestions to moon-observers. He calls attention to certain straights of light which only show themselves in high sun illumination; of these nothing is known, except that they are by no means elevations. Ridges of only 500 feet high are to be recognized through this shadow near the light edges; but these straights never show the smallest shadow, and vanish in the vicinity of the light edges. They proceed in a radiating manner from single bright Ring-mountains, especially from Tycho, Copernicus, Kepler, Byrgins, Aristarchus, and Olbers; from some other Ring-mountains they proceed only from one side, as from Menelaus and Proclus. By a superficial observation they may easily be confounded with the mountain veins, but an attentive examination will remark essential differences between them. The easiest to observe is the light straight which divides the Mare Serenitatis almost equally in halves. He had observed this several times for shadow, but could never detect the smallest. The author alludes to the rills on the moon's surface, as objects whose variability, probably, does not depend on our atmosphere, but is to be referred to real changes. He had sought for two years in vain for the southwest continuation of the Ariadæus rill, though its existence came to his knowledge from other quarters—till, unexpectedly, he obtained sight of it in 1833. He remarks that it is advisable to observe on the same evening, not merely a single rill, but many somewhat similar ones; for as the earth's atmosphere must exercise a like effect upon them all, so would a perceptible variation present us with a hint for further investigations.

Heat given out by the Moon.—Mr. J. P. Harrison, in a paper read before the Royal Astronomical Society, takes the ground that the heat acquired by the moon, and radiated to the earth, is what Prof. Tyndall calls "dark heat," or what would be almost wholly absorbed by our atmospheric vapor. This would raise the temperature of the air above the clouds, increase evaporation from their surface, diminish their density, raise them to a higher elevation, and under favorable circumstances disperse them. In either case, a sensible fall would take place in the temperature of the air near the ground. This occurs at the period of lunation when the moon has acquired the greatest amount of heat it can receive from the sun, which is when the half-moon then illuminated has been subjected to solar radiation for about 265 hours, or at the third or last quarter. Opposite results will occur at

the time of minimum heat in the moon. Experiments to test the heat of the moon have been made by Prof. C. P. Smyth, at Teneriffe. He found that it amounted to no more than would be given out by the heat of a wax-candle at a distance of fifteen yards. Mr. Harrison shows that this was not the right time to have expected to discover heat from the moon; that at the time when most heat was really given out, the effect upon the earth's surface was, that a lowering of the temperature was produced. Mr. Harrison refers to the tabulated results of temperature at Oxford, Greenwich, and Berlin, taken for several years, which agree in proving that, at the time when by calculation the moon must have acquired the greatest heat, the average temperature of the earth's surface was lower, accompanied by a dispersion of cloud.

Solar and Planetary Tables.—The Royal Astronomical Society of England, at their annual meeting in February, awarded the gold medal to M. Le Verrier for his solar and planetary tables, which include Mercury, Venus, the Earth, and Mars, and have superseded others for calculating the places referred to.

Secular Variation of the Elements of the Earth's Orbit.—Mr. John L. Stockwell communicated to the *American Journal of Sciences* for July an interesting paper on the "Secular Variations of the Elements of the Earth's Orbit" (see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, for 1867, art. ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS). Mr. Stockwell furnished a table, appended hereto, based upon data and formulas more fully given in his treatise on the "Secular Equations of the Moon's Mean Motion." The materials used in the preparation of the formulas are those used in the construction of the *American Ephemeris* and *Nautical Almanac*, with the exception of the mass of the earth, which has been increased to 351^{1132} . The contents obtained by Mr. Stockwell differ somewhat from those given by Le Verrier in his Memoir on the Secular Inequalities of the Seven Principal Planets, not only on account of the disturbing influence of the planet Neptune, which had not been discovered at the time of his investigation, but also on account of the improved values of the masses and elements of the other planets. The superior limit of the eccentricity of the earth's orbit, which Le Verrier gives as equal to 0.07775, should be reduced to 0.06939, and an increase of the mass of the earth, corresponding to the latest determinations of the solar parallax, would reduce the value of the superior limit still more.

In Mr. Stockwell's treatise on Secular Equations, etc., already referred to, he gave a table and chart showing the eccentricity of the earth's orbit during the period of a million of years; and the table here presented is merely an extension of the former one. The first date in the following table corresponds to 1,175,566 years before the year 1850, or to 1,100,000

Helena (101).

Epoch = 1868, Sept. 13.5 Washington M. T.

$M = 17^{\circ} 48' 53''.0$
 $\pi = 328.40 \ 51.0$
 $\Omega = 943.35 \ 0.1$
 $i = 10.4 \ 19.5$
 $\phi = 8.0 \ 48.1$
 $\log \alpha = 0.410460$
 $\log \mu = 2.934317$
 $\mu = 859''.640$

} Ecliptic and mean equinox 1868.0.

No. 102 (for which the name of Miriam is proposed) was discovered by Dr. C. H. F. Peters, at Hamilton College, August 24th. It was in the constellation of Pisces, and had, at three o'clock of that morning, $18^{\circ} 38'$ of right ascension, and $12^{\circ} 54'$ declination, moving slowly to the east, and equal to a star of about the 11th magnitude. Observations were taken by the discoverer September 13th and 14th, with the following result:

Clinton M. T.

(102) α

(102) δ

1868. Sept. 13, $12^h 48^m 30^s$ $1^h 14^m 1^s.93$ $+12^{\circ} 8' 50''.3$
 14, $13 \ 17 \ 23$ $1 \ 13 \ 40.13$ $12 \ 3 \ 57.1$

Professor Watson calculated the elements of this planet in the following October, and found them to be:

Minor Planet (102).

Oct. 11, $11^h 54 \ 10^s$ $0^h 57^m 22^s.67$ $+8^{\circ} 49' 46''.4$
 12, $10 \ 53 \ 37$ $0 \ 56 \ 42.78$ $+8 \ 35 \ 15.7$

September 7th Professor Watson added another planet to his catalogue. The following were his observations:

1868. *Ann Arbor M. T.* (103) α (103) δ *Comp.*

Sept. 7, $15^h 31^m 46^s$ $0^h 22^m 13^s.18$ $-3^{\circ} 49' 51''.3$ 9
 9, $14 \ 45 \ 42$ $0 \ 20 \ 53.94$ $4 \ 3 \ 47.0$ 1
 10, $9 \ 59 \ 59$ $0 \ 20 \ 20.66$ $-4 \ 9 \ 24.5$ 7

The planet is of the 10th magnitude.

Planets 104, 105, and 106, successively discovered by the indefatigable Professor Watson, were thus reported on by him to the *American Journal of Science*:

Communicated September 14th.—I have the pleasure to send you the following observations of a new planet which I discovered last night:

1868. *Ann Arbor M. T.* α δ *Comp.* *
 Sept. 13, $11^h 35^m 9^s$ $0^h 20^m 25^s.61$ 2 a
 13, $12 \ 35 \ 52$ $0 \ 20 \ 23.65$ $-1^{\circ} 10' 52''.6$ 4 b
 13, $13 \ 1 \ 33$ $0 \ 20 \ 22.56$ $1 \ 10 \ 48.0$ 2 c
 13, $15 \ 55 \ 57$ $0 \ 20 \ 17.38$ $-1 \ 11 \ 23.7$ 10 c

Daily motion, $\Delta \alpha = -45''$ $\Delta \delta = -5''$.

The planet is of the 11.5 magnitude.

I have yet to add that I discovered still another planet on the 16th October, of which I have observed the following places:

Ann Arbor M. T.

(105) α

(105) δ

1868. Sept. 16, $16^h 3^m 15^s$ $0^h 13^m 47^s.42$ $+6^{\circ} 12' 4''.9$
 16, $16 \ 33 \ 22$ $0 \ 13 \ 46.28$ $6 \ 11 \ 45.3$
 17, $10 \ 29 \ 36$ $0 \ 13 \ 10.57$ $+6 \ 1 \ 7.2$

Communicated October 13th.—I have observed the following places of a new planet discovered by me on the 10th inst.:

Ann Arbor M. T.

(106) α

(106) δ

1868. Oct. 10, $10^h 36^m 37^s$ $1^h 1^m 21^s.84$ $+0^{\circ} 31' 42''.5$
 11, $11 \ 0 \ 19$ $1 \ 0 \ 34.33$ $0 \ 28 \ 31.0$
 12, $10 \ 26 \ 52$ $0 \ 59 \ 48.72$ $+0 \ 25 \ 31.2$

The planet resembles a star of the 10th magnitude.

The Motion of Sirius in Space.—With the aid of a new spectroscope, consisting in part

of compound prisms, which gives a dispersive power equal to nearly seven prisms of 60° of dense flint glass, Mr. Huggins has been making a new series of observations on heavenly bodies. His conclusions with regard to Sirius are specially interesting. He is of the opinion that the substance in that star, which produces the strong lines in the spectrum, is hydrogen; also that the aggregate result of the motions of the star and the earth in space, at the time the observations were made, was to degrade the refrangibility of the dark line in Sirius by an amount of wave length equal to 0.109 millionth of a millimetre. Taking the velocity of light at 185,000 miles per second, and the wave length of the dark line at 486.50 millionths of a millimetre, the observed alteration in period of the line in Sirius will indicate a motion of recession, between the earth and the star, of 41.4 miles per second. At the time of observation, that part of the earth's motion which was in the direction of the visual ray was equal to a velocity of about twelve miles per second from the star. There remains unaccounted for, a motion of recession from the earth amounting to 29.4 miles per second, which the author feels entitled to attribute to Sirius. He refers to the inequalities in the proper motion of Sirius, and remarks that, at the present time, the proper motion of the star in declination is less than its average amount by nearly the whole of that part of it which is variable, which circumstance may show that a part of the motion of the star is now in the direction of the visual ray.

Observations of Nebulae.—Mr. Huggins has applied his new spectroscope with some success to the study of a large number of nebulae. About one-third of them give a spectrum of bright lines. The spectrum of the great nebula in Orion was carefully examined by several methods of comparison, with the spectra of terrestrial substances. The coincidence of the lines with those of hydrogen and nitrogen, remained apparently perfect with an apparatus in which a difference in wave length of 0.0460 of a millimetre would have been detected. These results increase greatly the probability that the lines are emitted by nitrogen and hydrogen. Mr. Huggins regards it as a question of much interest whether the few lines of the spectra of the nebulae represent the whole of the light emitted by those bodies, or whether those lines are the strongest lines of their spectra which have succeeded in reaching the earth. He supposes that, since the nebulae are bodies that have a sensible diameter, and in all probability present a continuous luminous surface, no lines have been extinguished by the effect of the distance of the objects from us; and he suggests that, if we had reason to believe that the other lines which present themselves in the spectra of nitrogen and hydrogen were quenched on their way to us, we should have to regard their disappearance as an indication of a power of extinction residing in cosmical

space, similar to that inferred from theoretical considerations by Chéseaux and afterward supported, on other grounds, by Olbers and the elder Struve. The author concludes that, at the time of his observation, the nebula of Orion was not receding from the earth with a velocity greater than ten miles per second; for this motion, added to the earth's orbital velocity, would have caused a want of coincidence of the lines of the spectrum that could have been observed.

Suspected Change in a Nebula.—The Rev. H. Cooper Key, of England, has been making observations on the nebula, 45 Herschel, or Germinorum, with a silvered glass speculum of eighteen-inch aperture, and ten feet focal length, using an eye-piece giving a power of 510. This nebula presented to the Herschels a uniform nebulous disk, with a stellar centre; Lord Rosse saw one ring only; in Mr. Key's telescope, two rings were distinctly visible. Mr. Huggins considers the observation important, as showing a definite change in these objects; the central star of the nebula gives a continuous spectrum, and possibly the luminous haze surrounding it also; but of that Mr. Huggins is not so certain, the difficulty of getting spectrum observations of such faint objects is so great.

Stellar Spectra.—Father Secchi has communicated to the French Academy of Sciences some further observations on stellar spectra, made by means of a new spectroscope, with a cylindrical achromatic eye-piece. He concludes that, 1st, red stars have generally spectra of the third type; when the color is pale, it may be referred to an intermediate place between the second and third; 2d, a great number of these stars have their spectra perfectly resolvable into columns which are afterward themselves resolvable into finer lines. There are many others that cannot be resolved into secondary lines, on account of the faintness, but of which the principal lines indicate the type; 3d, the stars which cannot be referred to the three established types are very rare. Some of the author's speculations and suggestions are interesting. He says:

We have, therefore, without doubt, in the heavens a grand fact, which is the fundamental distinction of the stars in a small number of types, which opens the field to very many cosmological important speculations.

Secondly, another grand fact, which was brought out from those researches, was, that the stars of the same type are crowded occasionally in the same space of the heavens, so the white stars are thickly gathered in the Leo, in the Ursa Major, in Lyra, Pleiades, etc., while the yellow ones are very frequent in Cetus, in Eridanus, Hydra, etc. The region of Orion is very remarkable for having all through, and in the neighborhood, green stars of the first type, but with very narrow lines and with scarcely any red color. It seems that this particular kind of star is seen through the great mass which constitutes the great nebula of Orion, whose spectrum may contrast with the primitive spectrum of the stars. Sirius is perhaps too near us to be affected by this influence. The distribution of stars seems to indicate in space a particular distri-

bution of matter or of temperature in the different regions.

Thirdly, all the spectra of the third and fourth type belong to variable stars. The representative of these is the wonderful (Mira) Ceti. This has been carefully examined and found that, even when it is only of the seventh magnitude, it has the same spectrum as the typical, but only reduced to its few bright lines; α Orion is in the same condition, α Tauri or Aldebaran, and Antares, this year appeared to be smaller and of a more red hue than in the past year, and in the first appeared traces of columns which were not seen the year before; so that it is evident that the change of these stars depends on a periodical change which happens in their atmosphere. It is not so, however, with Algol, which has the very same spectrum of the first class or type in every stage of greatness; which induces me to believe that there the variation is produced by the passage of an opaque body passing between us and the central star, giving thus an example of eclipse of a fixed star, by his own obscure planet.

Finally, a very delicate question I propose to myself to be resolved by spectral analysis; this consists in ascertaining whether the star has a proper motion from the displacement of the lines, which ought to take place in the spectrum by the combined motion of the star and the propagation of light. From this new kind of aberration it would be easy to ascertain if a star has a motion whose velocity should be five times that of our earth around the sun. The star α of Lyra, examined in this manner, has not given any such displacement, so that it appears not to have such a motion. In some other stars I have found that there is a little displacement, as in Ursa Majoris, but this seems especially due to the different breadth of the hydrogen line in the star and in the compared spectrum. I have employed for this study the comparison of the direct image of the stars with its own spectrum, but I have found no such quantity of displacement.

A New Comet.—A new comet (II. 1868) was discovered June 13th, by Dr. Winnecke, at Carlsruhe. It was also independently discovered, the same night, at the Marseilles observatory. The next night, several astronomers, to whom the discovery had been communicated, observed the comet, and described it as very bright and having a tail. On the 20th, the tail was more than 3° in length. About that time the comet was just visible to the naked eye, and, when brightest, was comparable to a star of the fifth magnitude. It passed its perihelion, June 26th; its distance from the sun being then about six-tenths of that of the earth. It was nearest the earth, June 30th, and was then within about 56,000,000 miles of us. Early in July it gradually ceased to be visible.

The Spectrum of Comet II., 1868.—Mr. Huggins, the industrious and skilful observer of the spectra of astronomical bodies, made a careful study of the spectrum of comet II., of the past year. The results he communicated to the Royal Society in July. He describes the appearance of the comet in the telescope, June 22d, as a nearly circular corona, which became rather suddenly brighter toward the centre, where there was a nearly round spot of light. A tail was traced for almost a degree. The light of the comet, examined with a spectroscope, furnished with two prisms of 60° , was resolved into three broad bright bands. In the two more refrangible of these bands, the

light was brightest at the less refrangible end, and gradually diminished toward the other limit of the bands. The least refrangible of the three bands did not exhibit a similar gradation of brightness. These bands could not be resolved into lines, nor was any light seen beyond the bands toward the violet and the red. The author found this cometic spectrum to agree exactly with a form of the spectrum of carbon which he had observed and measured in 1864. When an induction spark, with Leyden jars intercalated, is taken in a current of olefiant gas, the highly heated vapor of carbon exhibits a spectrum which is somewhat modified from that which may be regarded as typical of carbon. The light is of the same refrangibility, but the separate strong lines are not to be distinguished. The shading, composed of numerous fine lines, which accompanies the lines, appears as an unresolved nebulous light. On June 23d the spectrum of the comet was compared directly in the spectroscope with the spectrum of the induction spark taken in a current of olefiant gas. The three bands of the comet appeared to coincide with the corresponding bands of the spectrum of carbon. In addition to an apparent identity of position, the bands in the two spectra were very similar in their general characters and in their relative brightness. These observations were confirmed on June 25th.

The remarkably close resemblance of the spectrum of the comet to that of the spectrum of carbon necessarily suggests the identity of the substances by which in both cases the light was emitted. The great fixity of carbon seems, indeed, to raise some difficulty in the way of accepting the apparently obvious inference from these prismatic observations. Some comets have approached sufficiently near the sun to acquire a temperature high enough to convert even carbon into vapor. In the case of other comets, the author suggests that the difficulty is one of degree only, for the conditions are not known under which even a gas permanent, at the temperature of the earth, could maintain sufficient heat to emit light. The spectrum shows that the color of this comet was bluish green. Considerable difference of color has been remarked in the parts of some comets. Sir William Herschel described the head of the comet of 1811 to be of a greenish or bluish-green color, while the central point appeared of a ruddy tint. The same colors have been observed in other comets. If carbon be the substance of some comets, this substance, if incandescent in the solid state, or reflecting when in a condition of minute division, the light of the sun, would afford a light which, in comparison with that emitted by the luminous vapor of carbon, would appear yellowish or approaching to red. The author refers to the bearing of these results on certain cometary phenomena, and on the apparent identity of the orbits of the periodical meteors with those of some comets.

The Colors of Saturn.—Mr. John Browning has sent to the *Student* a report of his recent observations of the colors of Saturn. Examining the planet at midnight, May 9th, with a 12½-inch instrument and a power of 100, he found no perceptible color. Under a power of 200 to 450, the ring appeared lemon-yellow; the globe, light cinnamon with darker belts scarcely of the same color; Ball's division, purple-chocolate; crape ring, same color; pole of the planet, bright azure. May 14th he took another set of observations. The definition was much better than on the 9th, but the colors were not nearly so vivid as on the former date. The north pole of the globe was neutral gray and darker than any other part of the planet, excepting the broad reddish-brown belt immediately north of the equatorial white belt. No part of the globe was pure white. The author remarks that with a 12-inch silvered glass mirror, and a power of 500, the whole ring system produces the impression that it consists of fine lines. Slight inequalities may sometimes be detected in the belts of the globe; more generally they appear quite regular, like the rim of a wheel in rapid motion.

Mr. Huggins hearing that Mr. Browning was engaged on this subject, sent him notes of some of his own observations of Saturn. Mr. H. says that though he can see the colors of Saturn fairly with powers of 500 or 600, yet he finds a power of, at least, 900 necessary to bring out the contrast of the colors in the fullest manner. He warns inexperienced observers that, in consequence of the small altitudes of Saturn, there are prismatic colors seen on it, produced by our atmosphere. From this cause red is seen along the upper edge of the planet in an inverting telescope, and a strong blue at the lower or north edge of the ring, and at the pole. Some time ago, he had considered the crape ring to be of the color of watch-spring; lately he has regarded it as rather more of a grayish blue. Mr. Browning remarks upon this, that the color of the crape ring will vary greatly with the state of an atmosphere. When there is much mist in the air, the color will incline toward red; when the air is clear, the color will become a purer blue.

The author thinks that the different tints on different portions of the rings may be ascribed to the unequal distribution of the countless multitude of minute satellites of which the rings are supposed to be made up. The presence of an atmosphere may further modify their colors. That the rings have an atmosphere, he regards as pretty certain, from the appearance they present when their edges are turned toward us. At such times, nebulous appendages like clouds have been seen upon them. The surface of the globe of Saturn may have a soil of the color of new red sandstone. This color would certainly be strongly modified by cloud-belts, which exist principally at the equator, but extend to the poles. The poles may consist of masses of ice; but it is difficult

to account for their strong blue color on that hypothesis. Yet the same difficulty would be experienced in the case of Mars, whose poles appear light blue, or light green, to many observers; and the existence of ice on those poles may be considered as proved. The uniformity of the red belts would seem to indicate that the whole of the surface over which they extend must possess the same character. Mr. Browning concludes that, if the color is due to the soil, the seas must be confined to the poles of the planet.

The Color of the Moon and Stars.—Different observers had made different reports upon the amount of color visible in the moon during the same lunar eclipse. These discrepancies suggested to Mr. John Browning an inquiry into the causes of them. In his own observations of a lunar eclipse in which coppery or blue tints had been generally seen, he had failed to detect either of those colors. The explanation he found to be this: that he had used a telescope of larger diameter than the telescopes employed by most observers. The observers who had instruments of only three or four inches aperture spoke of the color as being less than usual, but very noticeable; those who had telescopes of seven or eight inches aperture saw very little color; and observers with telescopes of 10½ inches aperture, or a 12½-inch, silvered glass speculum, could not detect any color at all. Mr. Browning thus concludes a paper upon the subject, presented by him to the Royal Astronomical Society:

It is true that I failed equally in detecting color with a four-inch object-glass, but I account for this by supposing that the sensitiveness of my eye to faint-colored light had been injured by the glare of the moon in the large aperture. Experimenting in connection with this subject, I have noticed that the chocolate color of the so-called belts of Jupiter is much more perceptible with 6 inches aperture than with 12 inches. Again, a small star in the cluster in Perseus appears of an indigo-blue with 8½ inches, Prussian-blue with 10½ inches, and royal-blue with 12½ inches of aperture. It follows from this that colors estimated by comparison with the ingenious chromatic scale of Admiral Smyth, in which each color is represented of four different degrees of intensity, will not possess any relative value unless taken in connection with the aperture employed when the color was estimated. Were due allowance made for this disturbing influence of variation of aperture, I think many discrepancies between the colors attributed to double stars by different observers might probably be reconciled.

On the Fall of Rain as affected by the Moon.

—Mr. Pliny Earl Chase has contributed to the proceedings of the American Philosophical Society a paper on this subject. His attention was specially called to it by an article by Mr. George Dines in the Proceedings of the Meteorological Society No. 36, which presented a summary of observations of rain which fell during each day of the moon's age, through a period, with few interruptions, of over forty years. Upon those data the author based the "decided opinion that the fall of rain is in no way influenced by the changes of the moon or the moon's age." Mr. Chase, however, upon a careful examination of

the same tables, deduces the conclusion—that, notwithstanding the complete veiling of all the disturbances which may be due to the moon's variable distance and declination, there was a marked tendency to increase at quadrature and to decrease at syzygy, both in the amount of rain and in the number of rainy days. This tendency, which becomes evident even in the majority of the five years' groupings, is uniformly shown in all the groups of ten years, twenty years, and forty years, as well as in the number of rainy days and in the number of heavy rains during the entire period.

Mr. Chase gives the following forty years' aggregates (1825 to 1864 inclusive) at Surrey, the place of observations referred to by Mr. Dines, and at the Pennsylvania Hospital, Philadelphia:

	Surrey.	Philadelphia.
Week of new moon.....	93.2	97.6
“ first quarter.....	103.1	100.3
“ full moon.....	97.4	95.8
“ last quarter.....	101.4	106.3

Mr. J. H. N. Hennessey, First Assistant on the great Trigonometrical Survey of India, in a paper to the Royal Society, alludes to a record of the rainfall at Mussoorie extending over thirteen years, and remarks:

The results tabulated have been obtained by employing an *average daily* fall as the means for comparing the fall at "the changes" with that at intermediate intervals. The annual average result may be stated thus:

	Inch.
At "the changes" of the moon the <i>mean daily</i> fall of rain is.....	0.466
Between "the changes" of the moon the mean daily fall is.....	0.525

which is in opposition to the popular belief on the subject.

The Melbourne Telescope.—This great instrument, manufactured by Mr. Grubb, of Dublin, has been examined and favorably reported on by a committee of the Royal Society, composed of Earl Rosse, Dr. Robinson, and Mr. Warren De la Rue. The telescope is of the reflecting order. The reflector is of metal—a fact which calls down the criticisms of those astronomers who believe the new silvered glass mirrors of Foucault to be much preferable. The former, it is claimed, reflect less light, are much heavier, and, when their polish is lost, do not admit of reparation, except at a great expense, as the repolishing is nothing short of refiguring, which is a costly and delicate operation. Resilvering a glass mirror costs little, and does not demand unusual skill. The point of suspension of the Melbourne telescope is near the mirror, on account of its immense weight; and in front of this point the telescope stretches forward to about 30 ft. of open lattice-work, made of bands of elastic steel. It is thought that heavy winds must produce considerable motion in so long an instrument. The telescope is on Cassegrain's plan, with the eye-piece, as in the Gregorians, at the bottom, and very convenient for use. The adjusting appara-

tus is brought close to the observer. The committee found that by this instrument the light even of large stars was collected into small, hard, and perfectly circular disks free from rays. The fifth and sixth stars in the trapezium of Orion were not only plainly seen but were very bright. The light-collecting power was very satisfactory. The planetary nebula in 46 M. was revealed as a ring bright even as the dazzling ground of the surrounding stars, which were as brilliant as the Pleiades appear in ordinary instruments.

AUSTRALIA. The five English colonies on the continent of Australia, as well as the neighboring colonies of Tasmania and New Zealand, continue to advance rapidly in population, commerce, and wealth. The province of Victoria had, in 1836, 177 souls; in 1841, 11,738; in 1851, 77,345; in 1861, 540,322; and in 1867, 659,887. New South Wales, settled in 1788 as a penal colony, numbered in 1803 but 7,097. In 1821 it had 29,783; in 1840, 129,463; in 1850, 265,503. In 1866 it had 431,414, notwithstanding that the new provinces of Victoria and Queensland had been withdrawn from its territory a few years before. The latter, from a population of 30,059 in 1861, increased to 96,172 in 1866. South Australia, from 17,366 persons in 1844, possessed 63,700 in 1850, and 172,880 in 1867. Tasmania, from 14,192 in 1825, rose to 98,455 in 1867. The population of the European settlements in New Zealand in 1864 amounted to over 172,000, an increase of seventy-four per cent. from 1861, while in 1851 the number of Europeans was only 25,807. In 1867, it amounted to 220,192. The English race predominates everywhere, followed by the Irish, Scotch, German, and Chinese. The inequality of the sexes was formerly a great cause of complaint. In 1838 there were but fourteen females to every hundred males, but in 1866 there were seventy-five to each hundred. The rapid increase of the tropical province of Queensland, the hottest of all the settlements, proves that the British race can labor hard and thrive well under a burning sun, without resorting to the compulsory labor of dark-skinned races. Every thing indicates that Australia is becoming a great empire.

The Australian trade, during the five months of 1868, presented upon the whole an increased activity. Thus the value of the British goods and produce taken by the Australian colonies to May 31, 1868, was £4,251,144, as compared with £3,407,723 in the corresponding five months of 1867, and £5,502,014 in the corresponding five months of 1866. The increased demand was shared in by all the colonies of Australia properly so called, but the value of English exports to Tasmania, in the first five months of 1868, was only £25,867, as compared with £41,414 in the corresponding period of 1867, and to New Zealand £544,503, against £610,846 in the corresponding period of 1867.

The whole of Australia is equal in extent to

Europe, and, together with Tasmania (15,000,000 acres) and New Zealand 77,000,000 acres, extending from 11° to 47° south latitude, affords almost every variety of climate, and can produce every necessary, and even luxury, that civilization requires.

Our latest statistical advices from all the above colonies, except New South Wales, are to the end of 1867, or two years later than those published in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867. The following are some extracts from the official reports:

The population of *New South Wales* in 1866 was 431,414; the deaths registered were 7,361, or 17.5 per 1,000 of population was the death-rate of the year. The births were 16,950. The marriages were 3,462. The aspect of the year's registration was unfavorable. Instead of the births receiving an addition of 600 during the year, the returns exhibited an actual deficit of more than half that number. The marriage rate was depressed; and the deaths were 765 in excess of the number registered in 1865. It is worthy of remark that the immigration into the colony in 1866 from the United Kingdom showed a larger falling off than in any previous year, the total being 1,852, of whom 1,204 were assisted.

The value of the imports was £9,403,192; of the exports, £9,913,839; being a slight advance on those of the previous year, and averaging £23 12s. 5d. per head of population. The value of articles of colonial produce was £6,057,585. The imports averaged £22 8s. 1d. per head of population; £3,352,768 was the value of the imports from the United Kingdom. The value of the wine imported amounted to £128,202; the exports under this head were £3,847. The wine produced in the colony in 1866 was 168,123 gallons. There was a decrease in the quantity of gold brought to the mint by escort. In 1862 the quantity was 575,538 oz.; in 1866 it was only 241,489 oz., showing a decrease of 334,049 oz., of the value of £1,284,259. The quantity of coal raised in the year was 774,238 tons, of the value of £324,049, or 188,713 tons in excess of the quantity raised in 1865. The quantity shipped in 1866 was 540,905 tons. The quantity of copper exported was 278 tons, of the value of £20,790. The number of vessels that entered the ports of the colony in 1866 was 2,099; their tonnage was 730,354, being about double that of 1857. The number of outward clearances was 2,259, with an aggregate of 784,381 tons. The financial statistics show that coin and bullion in the banks and Mint amounted to £1,356,776. The paper currency in circulation in 1866 averaged £674,507. Since the opening of the Mint in New South Wales, there have been 5,584,669 oz. of gold, of the value of £21,864,668, received for coinage, and £20,328,000 of coin has been issued, exclusive of £1,528,574 of bullion. In 1866, 739,362 oz. of gold were sent to the Mint for coinage, representing a value of £2,935,923. The depositors

in savings-banks numbered 17,576; the amount deposited was £707,815. The public debt at the end of 1866 was £6,418,030. The agricultural statistics record 24,629 occupiers of land in 1866, with 7,448,200 acres. The cultivation of the land was increasing, 452,850 acres being under tillage in 1866, against 381,400 acres in 1865. In no year was there so large a wheat crop as in 1866, the produce being 2,226,027 bushels. Cotton was no longer cultivated in New South Wales, but the cultivation of sugar had increased. The live-stock returns show a large increase in the number of sheep, but a decrease in horses, cattle, and pigs. The quantity of wool sent out of the colony in 1866 was 86,980,685 lbs., which was the largest quantity ever shipped.

The most populous of the Australian colonies is *Victoria*, which had, at the close of the year 1867, 659,887 inhabitants (against 643,912 in 1866). The arrivals in the colony in 1867 amounted to 27,242, of whom 19,904 were from the neighboring colonies, and 6,522 from the United Kingdom. The numbers of Chinese who left the colony were 1,709, while the arrivals were only 317. The estimated population on the various gold-fields of the colony, at the end of the year, is returned at 271,115, of whom 63,053 were miners. Of these, 47,377 were Europeans, and 15,676 Chinese. 33,407 Europeans, and 15,629 Chinese, were at work as alluvial miners, and 13,970 Europeans, and only 47 Chinese, as quartz miners. There are 62 corporate towns and boroughs in Victoria, with a gross population of 326,216; 71,833 dwellings; 70,969 rate-payers; £20,394,918 value of ratable property. The aboriginal population is estimated at 1,908 persons. The number of electors on the rolls of the Legislative Council is 11,602. The number who voted at the triennial election in 1866, in the districts that were contested, was 2,329, or 63.1 of those who were entitled to vote. There are 115,842 electors on the rolls for the Assembly. In the districts contested at the general election of 1868, there were 63,275 who voted, being a percentage of 61.59 of the whole.

The approximate tables of the Registrar-General's agricultural statistics for the year, ended the 31st of March, 1868, show that the present number of holdings in the colony, exceeding one acre in extent, is 25,214. The extent of purchased freehold land in occupation is 5,472,205 acres; and of rented land, 1,148,726 acres; crown lands rented for other than pastoral purposes, 1,326,524 acres; total area in occupation, 7,947,455 acres; extent reserved, 6,970,106 acres; under tillage, 634,270 acres.

As *Victoria* is the largest, *Western Australia* is the smallest of the Australian colonies. It has the distinction of thus being the only Australian colony free from debt; having cleared itself of its debt in 1866. The public expenditure, in 1866, nearly £85,000, was well kept within the revenue, notwithstanding a

considerable outlay on roads and bridges. The Colonial Blue-book, laid before Parliament, shows that Western Australia is in a condition to meet the cessation of transportation, with a reasonable hope that the sources of wealth opening up in various ways may, with care, prevent the stagnation which was apprehended. There is a steady annual increase in the amount of land under cultivation, and also in the tonnage entered and cleared at the ports. A supply of free labor will now be of vast importance to this colony. Nearly two-thirds of its 22,000 people are males, and the demand for female servants keeps increasing, because, as the Governor reports, those who come are "quickly absorbed by marriage." He is able to state that the settlement on the northwest coast is progressing steadily. Considerable attention is attracted to it from all parts of Australia; the country appears to be admirably adapted for stock of all kinds; and now that the necessary staff of officers are on the spot, and a town has been established, the Governor considers that there is every reason to believe that its progress will be rapid and satisfactory.

South Australia is a colony which has been liable to periodical depression, but equally open to times of great prosperity. The population, on December 31, 1867, was 89,991 males, 82,889 females; total, 172,880. Number of persons enjoying the electoral franchise, 41,657, of whom 14,330 were voters for the Legislative Council, and 27,327 for the House of Assembly. Up to 31st December, 1867, 3,568,742 acres of land had been purchased from the crown, while 2,177,941 acres were held by freeholders. The quantity of land enclosed was 4,812,276 acres, while the land under cultivation amounted to 810,734 acres; and the land enclosed, but not cultivated, to 3,991,542 acres. The general revenue of South Australia for the year 1867, amounted to £716,294 13s. 6d., against £949,774 2s. 4d., in 1866, and £1,089,128 14s. 4d. in 1865. Total imports of South Australia, £2,506,394 5s., exports, £3,164,622, of which £2,776,045 was the produce of the colony, giving a net excess of exports over imports, of £658,227 15s.

The population of *Queensland*, in 1866, was 96,172. Public revenue, £593,000; expenditure, £594,000; public debt, £2,150,000. The imports were valued at £2,470,000, and the exports at £1,370,000.

The official report on *Tasmania*, for 1867, presents few encouraging features. In almost every direction, the same law of decadence is found to have been in operation as in the preceding years. The Government statist says, however, that, since he began to write his review (which is dated July 20, 1868), there was more ground for encouragement, as regards the future of Tasmania, than had appeared for several years. The estimated population of Tasmania at the end of 1867 was 98,455. The return of the aborigines in the establishment at Oyster Cove shows that one man and two women were the sole remains of the original

possessors of this island. The immigration and emigration returns show an actual loss to the population of 466 souls. The deaths in 1867 numbered 1,413, being in the proportion of 14.4 per 1,000 of population. The births registered during the year were 2,971, or 166 more than in 1866. The value of the imports in 1867 was £856,348, that of the exports was £790,494, the former exceeding the latter by £65,854. Compared with the results of the preceding year, there was a decrease of £25,759 on the imports, and of £44,112 on the exports; indeed, the exports had not been so limited since 1851. The number of vessels which entered inward was 598, and shows a decrease of 7 per cent.; the tonnage was 97,390, and shows a decrease of 9½ per cent. as compared with the results of 1866. The number of vessels cleared outward was 631, of 102,754 tons in the aggregate. The revenue in 1867 was £272,953, being an increase, on that of 1866, of £27,531. The expenditure last year was £255,552, or £13,191 more than in 1866.

The colony of *New Zealand* had, in December, 1867, according to the official census, 218,637 inhabitants, exclusive of the military and their families, and the aboriginal natives; an absolute increase, as compared with 1864, amounting to 46,479, or 26.99 per cent. Of this population (1867), the Northern Island (comprising the provinces of Auckland, Taranaki, Wellington, and Hawke's Bay) had 45,189 males, and 34,724 females, making a total of 79,913, or 36.55 per cent. on the population of the colony; and the Middle Island (comprising the province of Nelson, Marlborough, Canterbury, Otago, and Southland) 86,697 males, and 51,843 females, making a total of 138,540, or 63.37 per cent. on the whole population. The addition of 184 (or .08 per cent.) for the Chatham Islands will bring out the general total as above. The population of the chief town in every province is as follows: Auckland, 11,153. New Plymouth, 2,180. Wellington, 7,460. Napier, 1,827. Nelson, 5,652. Picton, 465. Christchurch, 6,647. Lyttleton, 2,510. Dunedin, 12,776. Invercargill, 2,006. The military and their families numbered, officers and men, 918; male children, 175; women and female children, 362; making a total of 1,455. This number, added to the population shown by the census, gives a total of 220,192; viz., 133,102 males, and 86,990 females. Although the numbers of the aboriginal native population are not ascertained by the census of the colony, the Registrar-General is enabled, by returns supplied from the native secretary's office, to introduce an approximate estimate of them. As respects the provinces of Canterbury, Otago, and Southland, an enumeration, described as a "census," was taken in the early part of the year, which shows for those provinces a total of 1,433. For the North Island, with the province of Nelson, and the prisoners at the Chatham Islands, the numbers stated are 37,107. These numbers, however, are only

given as approximate, and in one or two instances are represented as probably under-estimated. Taking the figures as they appear however, they show an (estimated) native population of 38,540 in the colony. This number added to the population shown by the census, and the military and their families, would make the aggregate number of the inhabitants of New Zealand 258,632. The total quantity of land fenced—which, in 1858, was 235,561 acres; in 1861, 409,763 acres; and in 1864, 1,072,383 acres—had increased in 1867 to 3,454,535 acres; and the total quantity under crop—which, in 1858, was 141,007 acres; in 1861, 226,219 acres; and in 1864, 382,655 acres—had increased in 1867 to 676,867 acres. The aggregate numbers of live-stock of all kinds (excepting poultry)—which in 1858 were 1,728,093; in 1861, 3,038,557; and in 1864, 5,310,062—had increased in 1867 to 8,924,489.

New Zealand was again the scene of a bloody outbreak of the natives, who massacred a considerable number of the white settlers, and offered a desperate resistance to the Government troops sent against them. According to the advices received up to the close of January, 1869, the outbreak was not yet fully quelled.

In the first months of the year, Prince Alfred, the second son of Queen Victoria, visited several of the colonies. His visit was celebrated by great official festivities, but was cut short by an attempt upon his life, made by a Fenian. As he received a serious wound, it was deemed best that he should at once return to England.

AUSTRIA. Emperor, Francis Joseph I., born August 18, 1830; succeeded his uncle, Ferdinand I. (as King of Hungary and Bohemia, called Ferdinand V.), on December 2, 1848. Heir-apparent, Archduke Rudolph, born August 21, 1858. Since 1867, the empire, in point of administration, is divided into two parts, the chief frontier of which is the river Leitha, whence the one (the western) half is called the cis-Leithan, and the other (eastern) the trans-Leithan portion of the empire. The former is also commonly designated by the name of Austria proper, and the latter by the name of Hungary. The whole Austrian monarchy is now officially called the Austro-Hungarian empire, or Austro-Hungarian monarchy. In the following article we treat of the affairs belonging to the Austrian monarchy as a whole, and those belonging to Austria proper, or the cis-Leithan provinces, reserving the affairs of the trans-Leithan provinces for the article HUNGARY.

The area of the Austrian empire, according to the latest official statements, amounts to 240,381 square miles, and the population, in 1867, to 35,553,000 inhabitants. An official census was taken in 1868, but its results have not yet been published. The previous census was of 1857, which showed the population of the provinces now constituting Austria (Lombardy and Venetia have since been lost) to amount to 32,530,000. By adding the yearly excess

of births over deaths, the above number of 35,553,000 is obtained for the year 1867.

The following is a list of the provinces into which each of the two halves of the empire is divided, with the population in 1867, as ascertained by adding the excess of births over deaths to the official statements of the census of 1857:

I. Cis-Leithan Provinces (Austria Proper):

1. Lower Austria.....	1,762,784
2. Upper Austria.....	719,427
3. Salzburg.....	146,870
4. Styria.....	1,091,647
5. Carinthia.....	342,656
6. Carniola.....	475,437
7. Goertz, Gradisca, Istria, and Trieste	566,666
8. Tyrol and Vorarlberg.....	878,733
9. Bohemia.....	5,153,602
10. Moravia.....	2,008,572
11. Silesia.....	493,825
12. Galicia.....	5,147,021
13. Bukovina.....	516,418
14. Dalmatia.....	446,660

Total.....19,750,318

Adding army, and travelling population—about.....20,205,000

II. Trans-Leithan Provinces (Hungary):

15. Hungary.....	10,814,206
16. Croatia and Slavonia.....	962,031
17. Transylvania.....	2,095,215
The Military Frontier.....	1,131,502

Total.....15,002,954

Adding army, and travelling population—about.....15,348,000

Total of I, and II., or the whole monarchy, 35,553,000

In no country of the world is the difference of nationality of so great political importance as in Austria, as it has been the primary cause of all the territorial losses which the empire has suffered since 1815, and of nearly all the commotions which still threaten its unity. According to the calculations of the Imperial Bureau of Statistics, the statistics of nationalities, in both cis-Leithan and trans-Leithan provinces, were, in 1864, as follows:

NATIONALITIES.	CIS-LEITHAN PROVINCES.		TRANS-LEITHAN PROVINCES.		TOTAL.*	
	Pop. in thousands	Per cent.	Pop. in thousands	Per cent.	Pop. in thousands	Per cent.
Germans.....	6,963	35.5	1,670	11.3	8,783	25.4
Czechs, Moravians and Slovaks.....	4,638	23.7	1,763	11.9	6,512	18.6
Poles.....	2,340	11.9	2,380	6.8
Ruthenians.....	2,490	12.7	450	3.0	2,966	8.5
Southern Slavi	1,680	8.6	2,379	16.0	4,120	11.7
Magyars.....	13	0.6	5,313	35.8	5,401	15.4
Western Roumanians.....	581	3.0	1	...	589	1.6
Eastern Roumanians.....	202	1.0	2,635	17.8	2,884	8.2
Israelites.....	683	3.5	423	2.9	1,121	3.2
Gypsies.....	150	...	153	...
Bulgarians.....	26	...	27	...
Armenians.....	6	...	11	1.3	17	...
Other races.....	7	...	3	...	10	...

The religious statistics, in 1867, were, according to the calculations of the Statistical Bureau, about as follows (population expressed in thousands):

	Cis-Leithan.	Trans-Leithan.	Total.*
Catholics—Latin.....	15,766	7,120	23,265
Greek.....	2,303	1,498	3,861
Armenian.....	4	9	13
Total of Roman Catholics..	18,073	8,627	27,189
Oriental Greeks.....	490	2,680	3,166
Evangelical (Lutherans and Reformed).....	351	3,088	3,495
Unitarians.....	...	54	55
Israelites.....	683	428	1,121
Other sects.....	6	2	8

A ministry for the affairs common to the whole monarchy, *Reichs-Ministerium*, was appointed on the 24th of December, 1867, consisting of the following members: Count *Friedrich Ferdinand von Beust*, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and of the Imperial House (since October 30 and November 12, 1866), Chancellor of the Empire (June 23, 1867); Minister of State (December 24, 1867); Baron *Franz von Becke*, Minister of Finances (December 24, 1867); Baron *Franz Kuhn von Kuhnfeld*, January 18, 1868.

The ministry for Austria Proper, or the cis-Leithan provinces (appointed December 30, 1867), was composed in December, 1868, as follows (the Prime Minister, *Prince Carlos Wilhelm von Auersperg* having resigned in September, 1868); *Count Edward von Taaffe*, President of the Council, *pro tem.* (September, 1868), Minister for the Defence of the Country, and Public Safety; *Ignaz von Plener*, Commerce; *Leopold Hasner*, *Chevalier von Artha*, Public Worship and Education; *Karl Giskra*, Interior; *Edward Herbst*, Justice; *Rudolph Brestel*, Finances; *Johann Berger*, without portfolio; *Count Alfred Potocky*, Agriculture.

The Parliament of Austria Proper consists of two Houses. The Upper House, in 1868, contained 11 princes of the imperial house; 56 hereditary members, who are chiefs of noble families, possessing very extensive landed possessions; 9 archbishops, and 7 others, having the rank of bishops; finally, of 77 members appointed by the Emperor for life. President of the House, *Prince Joseph von Colloredo-Mansfeld*. The House of Representatives consists of 203 members, sent by the provincial Diets. President of the Chamber, *Moriz von Kaisersfeld*.

In the budget of 1868, for the whole monarchy, the estimates of expenditure and receipts were as follows:

Expenditures.	Austrian florins.
1. Common Ministry for Foreign Affairs..	4,375,221
2. Common Ministry of War.....	97,914,192
(1.) for the Army }	
(2.) for the Navy }	8,455,677
3. Common Ministry on Finances.....	228,000
Total.....	110,968,090

Receipts.	Austrian florins.
Receipts of Ministry of War,...	3,298,900
Receipts from Customs.....	7,200,000
Receipts from Consulates.....	112,000
Remaining.....	100,357,190

* Inclusive of the army.

* Inclusive of the army.

Of which sum the cis-Leithan provinces furnish 70 per cent., or 70,250,033; and the trans-Leithan provinces 30 per cent., or 30,107,157.

The budget of 1868, for the cis-Leithan provinces, was as follows: Receipts, 317,326,591; expenditures, 322,892,490; deficit, 5,555,899. The public debt, on December 31, 1867, was 3,025,315,896 florins; on December 31, 1866, 2,919,717,689 florins.

The strength of the army on the peace and war footing was, in 1868, as follows:

	Peace footing.	War footing.
Infantry.....	153,700	608,447
Cavalry.....	39,229	42,705
Other troops.....	43,072	105,019
Total.....	236,001	756,171

In addition to these troops, there were "Troops of Public Safety," consisting of eleven commands of gendarmierie, and the corps of military police; together 7,927 men.

The navy consisted, in 1868, of 45 steamers, with 12,756 horse-power and 529 guns, and 16 sailing-vessels, with 76 cannons. The merchant marine, in 1868, consisted of 7,836 vessels, together of 324,415 tons.

The liberal ministry, which had been appointed, in December, 1867, for the cis-Leithan countries, showed a firm determination to carry through constitutional principles. Dr. Giskra, the Minister of the Interior, in January, issued a circular to the chief officials in the provinces, announcing that as in future all members of the administration are bound to swear to inviolably observe the fundamental laws of the empire, so also must those who have already been sworn now make a fresh declaration, swearing fidelity to the new constitution. Nobody is to be forced to make this declaration. It is not a mere formality, but a political act of national importance. Besides inviolable fidelity to the Emperor, there will be required from all functionaries an unconditional observance of the constitution and fundamental laws. The minister the more emphatically requires sincere devotion and stainless fidelity to the constitution, since he is responsible for all acts of the internal administration. Treachery and hostility to the constitution, he says, must be regarded as quite as grave a dereliction of duty as any other violation of the official oath. Mere indifference or neutrality to the constitution is not sufficient. In conclusion, the minister requires from the officials strict punctuality, quick transaction of business, a thorough emancipation from formalism, constant willingness in their communications with the people, disinterested impartiality, and the maintenance of their social position by an irreproachable private life. Then will the Austrian officials be the most efficient interpreters of the constitutional idea.

In a second circular to the provincial governors of Upper Austria and Styria, Dr. Giskra calls attention to the agitation fo-

mented by the clergy in the above-named districts against the new constitution, and instructing the governors to warn the clergy against encouraging intrigues. The governors are desired to inform the bishops that the Government has no intention of interfering with the clergy in the execution of their spiritual duties, but that it also demands that they should not consider themselves above the laws. In case of non-compliance, says the circular, the Government will be compelled to bring the disturbers of the public peace before the tribunals.

The two Houses of the *Reichsrath* adopted in April and May several important laws intending to introduce equality of civil rights for all inhabitants of the empire, and restricting the influence of the church. The following is an abstract of the most important of these laws:

The law concerning civil marriage consecrates, for the benefit of all citizens, the right to contract a lawful union outside of the Catholic or any other church, and without the intervention of the clergy of any sect whatever.

The law relative to primary instruction restores the principle of the civil authority in the public schools founded and maintained by the state; it takes away from the clergy the exclusive direction of such instruction.

Article 1 of the law, on the subject of profession of faith, declares invalid every engagement made with the heads or the subordinate officers of any church or religious society concerning the profession of faith in which the children (of the party) are to be brought up. (This refers to the solemn engagement required in the Catholic Church as a condition of its assent to such a proposed marriage, that the children of mixed marriages shall be brought up as Catholics.)

Article 4 sanctions in the most absolute manner the principle of liberty of conscience. At the age of fourteen years every one has the right of freely choosing his religion according to his own convictions, and the civil authority is bound in case of need to protect this free choice. Before that age legitimate children follow the religion of their parents, if both belong to the same faith; illegitimate children follow the religion of their mother. In the case of mixed marriages the son follows the religion of his father, the daughter that of her mother; this arrangement may, however, be modified by the contract of marriage.

After the age of fourteen every one may freely change his religion. Notice of such a change must be given to the civil authorities, in order that it may have its legal effect.

The provisions of the civil and penal codes, which disinherited any one who should abandon the Christian religion, are annulled by article seven. The same is true of those sections which characterized as crimes all acts tending to pervert any one from Christianity, or the propagation of doctrines contrary to the Christian religion.

According to articles 9 and 10, no one can be bound to contribute, in money or in kind, to the support of a form of worship not his own. The same provision applies to contributions for schools, unless the adherents of different sects have agreed to the support of a common school. Articles 12 and 13 regulate the question of cemeteries until the passage of a special law on the subject. The police of the cemeteries is under the jurisdiction of the civil authorities of the parish. No religious community can refuse burial in its cemetery to a member of another church, either first, in case of an interment in a family vault, or second, if there be in the parish where the death occurs no cemetery belonging especially to the church or religious society of which the deceased was a mem-

ber. Finally, by article 14, no one can be compelled to abstain from work on days celebrated as *fêtes* by any church not his own.

The bishops of Austria made a decided opposition to all these laws. While the one on civil marriage was under consideration in the Lower House of the Reichsrath, fourteen bishops addressed to the president of the ministry a letter, in which they express apprehension that, by the first article of the fundamental laws, the Church will be deprived of the right of settling her own affairs. In reply to this letter, the president of the ministry, Prince Auersperg, declared that during the debate on the bill in the Reichsrath the most ample opportunity was given for the free discussion of its provisions, an opportunity which was not neglected; that no present law empowers the courts to take cognizance of the question of religious teaching; and as to the administration of the Church's own affairs, guarantees for the future are afforded by articles 14 and 15 of the constitutional law. The Government, Prince Auersperg says, entertains the highest regard for religious liberty, and would at all times be ready to afford powerful support to the authority of the church, but equally, as the Government has no intention of passing beyond the limits of state authority, just as little can it assist in this being done by others. The Government, therefore, declines entering upon that part of the remonstrance which, even although unintentionally, makes the obligations imposed upon state officials by the constitution the subject of an interpretation calculated to lead the sentiment of duty in the minds of those officials astray.

In June, the Pope, in an allocution, complained of those new laws as a one-sided violation of the Concordat, concluded in 1855, between the Austrian Government and the Papal See. (*See ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.*) The Chancellor of the Emperor, Baron von Beust, addressed, on July 3d, to Baron von Maysenburg, the Austrian ambassador in Rome, a reply to the the allocution, of which the following are the most essential paragraphs:

We cannot (it says), in the first place, admit the obligation which imposes upon the Holy See the necessity of following certain precedents, and of adopting toward Austria the same proceedings as toward other countries, of which the Holy See has had to complain. Is it possible, in fact, to draw any comparison? Have we attacked the territory or property of the Church? Have we oppressed the Catholic religion and its ministers? Putting aside examples which do not bear on the case, we may, I think, boldly affirm that there is no country in Europe where the Catholic Church has so privileged a position as in Austria, notwithstanding the laws of May 25th. The circumstance ought to have been taken into account before the imperial Government was confounded in the same reprobation with other Governments which were in reprobation to the Church and the Catholic religion in a different way. We can understand that the Holy Father may have felt it to be indispensable to protest against the laws which modify the situation created by the Concordat of 1855. We fully expected

a proceeding of this kind, and we might have accepted it silently, even if its form were less conciliatory than we permitted ourselves to hope. But what we cannot pass over without objection is, the condemnation hurled against the fundamental laws on which the new institutions of the empire are based. These laws were not the subject of dispute, and, by attacking them as it has, the Holy See deeply wounds the national feeling, and gives to the present difference a meaning that is very much to be regretted, even in the interest of the Church. Instead of simply contesting this or that application of the principles which form the basis of the present Government of Austria, and which are the fruit of the happy accord between the peoples of the empire and their sovereign, it is the principles themselves that are condemned. The Holy See thus extends its representation to objects which we can by no means admit to be within its authority. It envenoms a question which already produced only too much excitement, by directing men's minds to matters where political will be associated with religious passions. Finally, by condemning laws which include the principle of the liberty of the Church, and thus offering it compensation for the privileges it loses, it renders more difficult a conciliatory attitude of the Government. It may not be useless to remark here that these laws expressly guarantee to the Church the property of the wealth it possesses in Austria. This stipulation proves that the laws in question are not hostile to the Church, since they maintain to her those rights of which she has been deprived in so many other countries. It is not for me to judge in what measure this last consideration ought to mitigate the judgment of the court of Rome. What I have not a shadow of doubt about is, that the people of Austria will find consolation in remembering that more than one very Catholic nation is subject to legal arrangements of the same kind, which yet live in peace with the Church, and that there is especially one great and powerful empire in Europe whose tendencies toward progress and liberty have always been allied with very decided attachment to the Catholic faith, and which, though governed by laws quite as abominable, has, up to the latest moment, been blest with the indulgent sympathies of the Holy See. My dispatch of the 17th of June last, anticipated the bad consequences which the allocution would produce, if it was not worded in very moderate language. I regret extremely that the court of Rome did not pay more attention to these anticipations. They have been completely realized. I do not think the Catholic population of the empire have more zeal now than they had before for the interests of their religion. On the contrary, we see an increased ardor in the attacks directed against the Church, the clergy, and the Pope. This hostility would have been confined within the narrowest limits, and would have been easily appeased, if the special questions affected by the laws of May 25th had alone been treated of in the Papal allocution. Before concluding, I must here also express the painful surprise which the appeal addressed to the Hungarian bishops in the closing sentences of the allocution has produced. It seems to me that Rome ought to be thankful for the perfect tact and reserve with which these delicate matters have been hitherto treated in Hungary. It would be undesirable in every point of view to raise new differences, and thereby to augment the embarrassments which already exist. But it is especially in the very interest of the court of Rome that it appears to us inopportune to arouse the national susceptibility of the Hungarians. The appearance of foreign pressure would produce in that nation results the opposite to those which the Holy See desires, and we should see a storm raised against the legitimate influence of the court of Rome, similar to that which is raging on this side of the Leitha. These are the observations suggested to us by a perusal of the pontifical allocution. Lay them before his eminence the Cardinal Secretary of State. We

shall none the less persevere in the way we have begun. While we shall continue to maintain intact the rights of the State and respect for the laws, we shall allow the Church to enjoy in peace the liberties which our laws secure to her; and we shall endeavor to observe, in the mutual relations between Church and State, a spirit of conciliation and equity, which I hope will be reciprocal. Your excellency will be pleased to make yourself the faithful organ of these sentiments, and in doing so you will only conform to the views of the Emperor, our august master.

The Czechs, who, as may be seen from the above table of nationalities, constitute a majority of the total population of Bohemia and Moravia, kept up an active agitation for consolidating their nationality, and for securing the control of these two provinces. Most of the leaders of the national party even went so far as to demand a repeal of the union of Bohemia and Moravia with the cis-Leithan part of the empire, and the establishment of an equal degree of independence for the lands of the Bohemian crown as that which has been conceded to Hungary. The Czech deputies to the *Reichsrath* declined to take any part in its deliberations. A number of excited mass-meetings stirred up the national spirit. At an open-air meeting, held at the foot of the Rip Mountain, at which, according to the Czech journals, there were 20,000 people present, the wishes of the nation were thus expressed:

"We wish to be as prosperous and free in our own country as our fathers have been; we wish the once free Czech people to be again master of its destinies, and alone to decide on all its affairs together with its crowned King. We wish no laws to be valid in Bohemia but such as are prepared by the Bohemian Diet and sanctioned by the crowned Bohemian King, that no taxes be raised or men levied for the army except by the constitutional direction of the Bohemian King and Diet."

In order to give effect to these views, it was agreed that steps should be taken for the dissolution, as early as possible, of the present Bohemian Diet, and the election of another on the principle of universal suffrage, which should be directed to prepare a constitution for Bohemia similar to that enjoyed by Hungary; the establishment of a great political society "on a national and democratic basis;" the publication of a journal representing democratic principles, and the election of a committee of twenty-five trustworthy persons for the purpose of making the necessary preparations for these measures.

At Prague and other places serious riots took place, at which excesses were committed against German institutions. The Government, accordingly, deemed it necessary (for the first time since its appointment) to suspend the usual securities for the liberties of the individual citizens in Prague and its vicinity, namely Surichow and Karolinenthal.

The provincial Diets of cis-Leithania were all opened on August 22d. Important action was taken by some of them. The Lower Austrian Diet adopted a petition to the *Reichsrath* praying it to abolish the present system of indirect elections to the *Reichsrath*, and to introduce

(with the consent of the respective Diets) a system of direct elections. The Diet declares its wish to resign its present electoral rights in favor of its constituents. As it is known that several of the Diets, especially the Galician one, are as strongly in favor of indirect elections as the Lower Austrian is in favor of direct ones, it is proposed to make the change a permissive one, so that each province may decide for itself how it will conduct its elections to the *Reichsrath*.

The Galician Diet before it adjourned passed a bill abolishing the disabilities of the Jews in municipal and communal affairs. These disabilities consisted mainly in this—that the law, as it was, required that in every commune and municipality at least two-thirds of the town fathers should be Christians. As, in many Galician townships, the Jewish population is a majority of the whole number of inhabitants, this provision was complained of by the Jews as a grievance. The parties opposed to this measure were the Catholic party, the peasant members, and the Ruthenian faction.

The Tyrolese Diet refused to amend its school legislation in such a manner as to bring it into harmony with the provisions of the school law, passed by the *Reichsrath* at its last session. This is the only Diet in the purely German provinces where the liberal and ministerial party are in a minority, and where the Conservative or Catholic party is in a majority. The majority of this Diet passed an amended law, according to which the bishops will have undivided control over the common schools of Tyrol.

In January the Emperor appointed the Archduke Albrecht commander of the Austrian military forces, and imposed upon him the duty of inspecting the army, of organizing it in a manner fit to take the field, and of submitting the requisite proposals on the subject to the Ministry of War.

According to a report of M. Mahy, director of the Austrian telegraphs, the extent of telegraphs in the cis-Leithan countries is 1,913 German miles, with 4,617 miles of wire, besides 1,253 miles of lines used for railway signals. In the course of 1867 seventeen new offices and forty-six auxiliary stations were opened, and, in all, 858 were at work at the end of the year. Those in Hungary are 135 in number. In June, 1867, a treaty was concluded with Turkey, and in September five others with Switzerland, in virtue of which a great portion of the English correspondence with India has been diverted to the Austrian lines. In the year 1867, 2,217,929 dispatches were sent off from the cis-Leithan offices, producing a receipt of 1,512,922 florins. The whole revenue of the telegraphs for that year was 2,330,000 florins, and the expense 2,200,000.

A new commercial treaty was concluded with the Zollverein. Each party renounces all power of imposing any prohibition on the export, import, or transit of goods between their

respective territories, except in as far as sanitary considerations or a state of war may make such prohibition necessary. The citizens of both countries are to enjoy equal rights in nearly all commercial respects, with very few exceptions. Export duties are to be abolished in all but a few cases especially excepted, and transit duties are to cease altogether. Import duties are not to exceed the excise duties levied on the same article in the respective territories. Each party has the right of establishing consulates in the territory of the other in those places in which other countries have consuls. The consuls also of each party are to afford the same protection to the subjects of the other as to their own. The treaty is to remain in force till the end of 1877, and a year's notice is necessary for its termination.

The delegations of the Cis-Leithan and Trans-Leithan Diets, for the discussion of affairs common to the whole monarchy, met at Pesth in November. The "Red Book" laid before the members clearly showed that the relations of

Austria to Prussia and Russia had not been of a friendly nature. Baron Beust, in a dispatch to the Austrian ambassador in London, says that the Austrian Government has never changed its desire to contribute as much as possible to the maintenance of peace, and that it attributed special importance to the maintenance of a good understanding with Prussia. He thinks that latterly nothing has occurred which might be a special subject of satisfaction to Austria. He does not see that the intention of Prussia, not to follow a policy in the East contrary to that of Austria, is corroborated by facts. When Russia and France contemplated the presentation of their note on the affairs of Crete, Prussia at first hesitated to join, and it was only after England and Austria had declared they would abstain from joining in such a step, that Prussia joined in it. Although since that time France had shown signs of a disposition to accept the views of Austria and England in this matter, Prussia has not done so.

B

BADEN, a grand-duchy in South Germany. Grand-duke Friedrich, born September 9, 1826; succeeded his father Leopold, as regent, on April 24, 1852; assumed the title of Grand-duke, on September 5, 1856. Area, 5,912 square miles; populations according to the census of December, 1867, 1,438,872, (1,429,199 in 1864). The ecclesiastical statistics of the grand-duchy were reported in 1867 as follows (the total showing a slight difference from the total population as stated above): Roman Catholics, 931,007; Protestants, 475,918; Mennonites, 1,319; German Catholics, 385; Baptists, 455; Greek Catholics, 254; Christians of other confessions, 22; Jews, 25,594; persons who were neither Christians nor Jews, 11. The following towns had, in 1867, more than 10,000 inhabitants: Carlsruhe (the capital), 32,004; Freiburg, 20,792; Pforzheim, 16,417; Mannheim, 34,017; Heidelberg, 18,327; Rastadt, 10,726. In the budget for the two years, 1868 and 1869, the aggregate receipts are estimated at 28,898,998 florins; the expenditures at 28,154,319; surplus, 744,679. The public debt, on January 1, 1868, amounted to 32,285,003 florins. Military service, in virtue of a law of February 12, 1868, is obligatory for all. The annual contingent is 4,700 men. The duration of service is three years in the active army, four years in the reserve, five years in the landwehr. The whole army, on a peace footing, consists of 14,812, and on a war footing, of 45,397 men. The state ministry was partly reconstructed in 1868, with Dr. Julius Jolly, Minister of the Interior, as president. The new ministry announced, as the chief aim of its policy, the establishment of German unity. (On the relations of

Baden to the North-German Confederation, and the other South-German States, *see* GERMANY.)

BANKS. There are no State banks in operation in the States of Massachusetts, North and South Carolina, Georgia, and a few other States. The following is a recapitulation of banks now in operation under State laws:

STATES.	No. of Banks.	Capital.
Alabama	2	\$1,000,000
California	1	5,000,000
Connecticut	7	1,676,900
Delaware	5	780,000
District of Columbia	2	579,000
Illinois	6	2,015,000
Indiana	10	250,000
Kentucky	42	14,159,000
Louisiana	11	10,014,000
Maine	7	625,000
Maryland	8	2,453,000
Michigan	1	100,000
Minnesota	2	100,000
Missouri	8	1,960,300
Mississippi	2	400,000
New Hampshire	14	1,065,000
New Jersey	6	1,025,125
New York State	31	4,616,760
New York City	13	9,962,500
Ohio	4	1,550,000
Pennsylvania	12	1,794,090
Rhode Island	20	3,052,050
Tennessee	1	100,000
Vermont	6	583,000
Virginia	3	270,000
West Virginia	5	570,200
Wisconsin	15	475,000
Total State Banks	244	\$66,124,925
Total National Banks	1,645	426,189,111
Total bank capital, U. S.		\$492,314,036

THE NATIONAL BANKS.—The number of national banks in operation in the United States, on October 1, 1868, was 1,629, against 1,643 in October, 1866, and October, 1867. They were located, in October, 1868, as follows:

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Organ- ized.	In opera- tion.	Capital paid.
Maine.....	61	61	\$9,085,000
New Hampshire.....	40	40	4,785,000
Vermont.....	40	40	6,560,012
Massachusetts.....	209	207	80,032,000
Rhode Island.....	62	62	20,364,800
Connecticut.....	83	81	24,684,220
New York.....	314	299	116,544,941
New Jersey.....	55	54	11,583,350
Pennsylvania.....	205	197	50,247,390
Maryland.....	32	32	12,790,202
Delaware.....	11	11	1,428,185
District of Columbia.....	6	4	1,550,000
Virginia.....	20	18	2,500,000
West Virginia.....	15	15	2,216,400
Ohio.....	187	133	22,404,700
Indiana.....	71	68	12,867,000
Illinois.....	83	83	12,070,000
Michigan.....	43	42	5,210,010
Wisconsin.....	37	34	2,960,000
Iowa.....	48	44	4,057,000
Minnesota.....	16	15	1,710,000
Kansas.....	5	5	400,000
Missouri.....	20	18	7,810,300
Kentucky.....	15	15	2,885,000
Tennessee.....	13	12	2,025,300
Louisiana.....	3	2	1,800,000
Mississippi.....	2	..	150,000
Nebraska.....	4	4	350,000
Colorado.....	3	3	350,000
Georgia.....	9	8	1,600,000
North Carolina.....	6	6	653,300
South Carolina.....	3	3	685,000
Alabama.....	3	2	500,000
Nevada.....	1	1	155,000
Oregon.....	1	1	100,000
Texas.....	4	4	525,000
Arkansas.....	2	2	200,000
Utah.....	1	1	150,000
Montana.....	1	1	100,000
Idaho.....	1	1	100,000
Total Oct. 1, 1868....	1,685	1,629	\$426,189,111
Oct. 1, 1867.....	1,643		420,073,415
Oct. 1, 1866.....	1,643		415,278,969

Banks of the City of New York, October, 1867, and January, 1869.

RESOURCES.	70 Banks, October, 1867.	69 Banks, January, 1869.
Loans and Discounts.....	\$172,586,416	\$187,101,591
Stocks, Bonds, etc.....	73,487,509	63,683,736
Real Estate.....	6,915,407	7,867,241
Due from Banks.....	14,033,388	14,959,417
Cash Items.....	3,804,653	3,920,864
Specie.....	11,607,858	24,454,661
Legal Tenders.....	60,400,438	53,164,586
Over-Drafts.....	129,693	182,735
Total Resources.....	\$342,965,362	\$355,334,831
LIABILITIES.		
Capital.....	\$84,272,200	\$84,003,616
Net Profits.....	28,417,201	29,477,170
Circulation.....	34,904,914	35,110,641
Due Banks.....	57,470,956	57,567,349
Individual Depositors.....	137,573,007	146,913,413
Miscellaneous.....	327,084	2,262,642
Total Liabilities.....	\$342,965,362	\$355,334,831

The preceding table embraces the returns of fifty-six national and of thirteen State banks, being all there were in the city of New York on January 1, 1869. It will be perceived that the changes in fifteen months were not material.

The condition of the National Banks of the United States in October, 1867, and October, 1868.

	Oct. 1, 1867. 1,643 Banks.	Oct. 1, 1868. 1,645 Banks.
RESOURCES.		
Loans and discounts.....	\$609,675,214	\$657,668,847
U. S. bonds deposited to secure circulation.....	338,640,150	340,487,050
U. S. bonds deposited to secure deposits.....	37,862,100	37,360,150
U. S. bonds and securities on hand.....	42,460,800	36,817,600
Other stocks, bonds, and mortgages.....	21,507,881	20,693,406
Due from national banks.....	95,217,610	102,278,547
Due from other banks and bankers.....	8,400,736	7,848,822
Real estate, furniture, etc.....	20,639,708	22,747,875
Current expenses.....	5,297,494	5,278,911
Premiums.....	2,764,186	1,819,815
Checks and other cash items.....	194,591,731	143,241,394
Bills of national banks.....	11,841,104	11,842,794
Bills of other banks.....	333,209	222,668
Specie.....	10,256,130	11,749,442
Legal tenders and fractional currency.....	100,550,849	94,716,266
Compound interest notes.....	56,888,250	4,513,730
Three per cent. certificates.....		59,080,000
Total resources.....	\$1,496,927,146	\$1,558,367,502
LIABILITIES.		
Capital stock.....	\$420,073,415	\$420,634,511
Surplus fund.....	66,695,587	77,995,761
Undivided profits.....	32,751,446	36,095,883
National bank notes outstanding.....	293,887,941	295,769,489
State bank notes outstanding.....	4,092,153	2,906,352
Individual deposits.....	537,976,834	579,686,549
U. S. deposits.....	23,280,763	17,573,250
Deposits of U. S. disbursing officers.....	4,412,825	4,570,478
Due to national banks.....	93,111,240	99,414,397
Due to other banks and bankers.....	19,644,940	23,720,829
Total liabilities.....	\$1,496,927,146	\$1,558,367,502

SAVINGS BANKS.—In Massachusetts the deposits have increased in one year from \$67,900,571 to \$80,431,583, or over 18 per cent.; with an average of \$230.76 to each depositor. The population of the State, in 1860, was 1,231,066; the deposits, in 1867, were \$80,431,583. The surplus on hand was \$3,172,877, or nearly four per cent. The average rate of dividend last year was 5.42 per cent. The gross annual expenditures for the management of these 108 savings institutions were \$254,226, or less than one-third of one per cent. These depositors hold thirty millions of Government and State bonds, ten millions of bank stock, and twenty-one millions on bond and mortgage.

Rhode Island has the largest savings deposits to each depositor, being \$362.51 for each. In Rhode Island the deposits have increased from \$17,751,713 to \$21,413,648, or about 20 per cent.; with an average deposit of \$362.51, and 59,071 depositors out of an aggregate population, in 1860, of 174,620. This shows that the savings depositors are more than one-third of

the population. This is a most remarkable exhibit of labor and thrift. This State is, in fact, a vast "bee-hive" in its industrial pursuits.

Connecticut is the second State in New England as to the average savings deposits, having reached, in 1867, the sum of \$261.32. The deposits have increased from \$27,310,018 to \$36,283,460, with 138,846 depositors, who form thirty per cent. of the whole population. This is strong evidence of the industry and economy of the people.

New Hampshire shows the next largest average of savings. In this State the savings have increased from \$7,857,600, in 1865, to \$13,541,535 in 1867, or about 72 per cent., and the depositors from 42,903 to 55,218, or nearly 30 per cent., with an average deposit of \$245.24 to each. This is a larger increase than is shown in any other New England State.

Massachusetts has a net average sum of \$230.76 to each depositor, being the fourth in the average.

In the State of Maine the savings deposits have increased, since 1866, \$1,652,000, or about 42 per cent.; and the number of depositors about 37 per cent.; showing an average of \$213.71 to each depositor in November, 1867.

Vermont stands the sixth in the New England States for its number of savings banks and amount of deposits, having only ten of these institutions, with an aggregate deposit of \$1,805,086, an average of \$140.54 to each depositor.

We now present a recapitulation of the savings banks in the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, and in the cities of Baltimore and San Francisco:

RECAPITULATION.

STATES.	Population, 1860.	No. of depositors, 1867.	Amount of deposits, 1867.
Maine.....	623,279	26,197	\$5,598,600
New Hampshire.....	326,073	55,218	13,541,535
Vermont.....	315,008	12,844	1,805,086
Massachusetts.....	1,331,066	343,553	80,431,583
Rhode Island.....	174,260	59,071	21,413,648
Connecticut.....	460,147	133,846	36,283,460
New England....	3,134,333	640,729	\$159,073,912
New York.....	3,880,735	537,466	151,127,562
San Francisco.....		26,024	19,687,000
Baltimore.....		35,414	9,800,725
Totals.....		1,250,633	\$330,689,199

The rapid growth of savings institutions is shown in the following table:

STATES.	YEAR 1864.		YEAR 1867-'68.	
	No. of depositors.	Amount of deposits.	No. of depositors.	Amount of deposits.
Maine.....	18,506	\$3,672,975	26,197	\$5,598,600
N. Hampshire.....	43,175	7,661,738	55,218	13,541,535
Vermont.....	11,284	1,600,000	12,844	1,805,086
Massachusetts.....	293,332	62,604,076	343,553	80,431,583
Rhode Island..	44,352	12,815,098	59,071	21,413,648
Connecticut...	121,682	29,142,288	133,846	36,283,460
New England...	532,331	\$117,466,175	640,729	\$159,073,912
New York.....	400,194	93,786,394	537,466	151,127,562

The following table shows the relative number of depositors to the inhabitants, the average deposit to each inhabitant, and the average deposit to the credit of each depositor in each State named, near the close of the year 1867:

STATE.	Depositors to population.	Av. deposit per capita.	Av. sum to each depos'r.
Massachusetts.....	1 in 3.53	\$65 33	\$230 76
Maine.....	1 in 24.00	8 91	213 71
Connecticut.....	1 in 3.31	75 85	261 32
New Hampshire.....	1 in 5.90	41 53	245 24
Vermont.....	1 in 24.45	5 73	140 54
Rhode Island.....	1 in 2.95	122 88	362 50
New England.....	1 in 4.89	\$50 44	\$248 26
New York.....	1 in 7.22	38 91	281 18

THE SAVINGS BANKS OF NEW YORK.—From the official summary it appears that the largest savings funds outside of New York City and Brooklyn are, in Erie County, \$7,517,132; Monroe County, including the city of Rochester, is the next; Albany County is the third; Oneida County, including Rome and Utica, is the fourth; and Rensselaer County (mainly Troy) is the fifth.

There are thirty-one counties in the State having no savings banks, and six counties having no national banks established. There are four counties in which there are neither savings banks nor national banks, viz., Cattaraugus, Essex, Hamilton, and Yates, with a population of 92,840.

The savings accumulations are mainly in the large manufacturing centres—such as New York, Brooklyn, Albany, Buffalo, Troy, Rochester, Utica, etc.

The city of Buffalo alone has over \$7,000,000 savings deposits. The next in importance are: Rochester, \$5,221,000; Albany, \$3,944,000; Syracuse, \$3,429,000; Troy, \$2,457,000; Utica, \$2,400,000; Poughkeepsie, \$1,318,000; Auburn, \$1,179,000. No other place in the State has over one million in savings deposits.

Increase of Savings Deposits in the State of New York, from 1859 to 1868.

January.	New York City.	Brooklyn.	Interior.	Total.
1859.....	\$36,808,430	\$4,270,219	\$7,118,214	\$48,194,887
1860.....	43,410,083	5,624,050	9,144,027	58,178,160
1861.....	48,988,826	6,791,746	11,669,825	67,450,397
1862.....	45,085,025	6,776,823	12,221,502	64,083,150
1863.....	51,235,225	8,451,962	16,850,996	76,538,183
1864.....	62,174,604	10,817,650	20,794,190	93,786,394
1865.....	72,928,796	13,266,576	25,598,052	111,793,424
1866.....	76,939,493	14,429,734	24,053,339	115,472,566
1867.....	86,574,343	17,160,474	28,034,257	131,769,074
1868.....	95,983,110	19,988,826	34,155,609	151,127,562

THE CLEARING-HOUSE.—The Clearing-house, at New York, commenced operations in October, 1853. The aggregate operations for fifteen years, October, 1853, to October, 1868, were—I. The aggregate exchanges for each year. II. The aggregate cash balances paid each year. III. The average daily exchanges for each year, and the average daily balances, as shown in the following table:

Oct. to Oct.	Exchanges.	Cash balances paid.	Average daily exchanges.	Av. daily balance.
1853-1854.	\$5,750,455,987	\$297,411,493	\$19,104,504	\$988,078
1854-1855.	5,362,912,098	289,694,137	17,412,052	940,565
1855-1856.	6,906,213,328	324,714,489	22,278,107	1,079,724
1856-1857.	8,833,226,718	365,313,901	26,968,371	1,182,245
1857-1858.	4,756,664,386	314,238,910	15,393,735	1,016,954
1858-1859.	6,448,005,956	363,984,682	20,867,333	1,177,943
1859-1860.	7,231,143,056	380,693,438	23,401,757	1,232,017
1860-1861.	5,915,742,758	353,383,944	19,269,520	1,151,087
1861-1862.	6,871,443,591	415,530,331	22,237,681	1,344,758
1862-1863.	14,867,597,848	677,626,482	48,428,657	2,207,252
1863-1864.	24,097,196,655	885,719,204	77,984,455	2,866,405
1864-1865.	26,032,384,341	1,035,765,107	84,796,040	3,373,827
1865-1866.	28,717,146,914	1,066,135,106	93,541,195	3,472,752
1866-1867.	28,675,159,472	1,144,963,451	93,101,167	3,717,413
1867-1868.	28,484,288,636	1,125,455,296	92,182,163	3,642,249

The Philadelphia Clearing-house.—Aggregate Operations from March 22, 1858, to January, 1869.

To Jan'y.	Exchanges.	Cash balances paid.	Av. daily exchanges.	Av. daily balance.
1859.	\$663,707,303	\$44,773,131	\$2,742,592	\$185,012
1860.	1,026,715,542	64,213,066	3,322,704	207,809
1861.	1,099,817,007	73,395,749	3,559,278	234,290
1862.	771,071,475	69,893,049	2,511,656	227,566
1863.	965,684,302	82,874,087	3,125,191	268,200
1864.	1,285,910,685	118,969,363	4,188,632	387,522
1865.	2,037,729,220	148,180,902	6,594,592	479,549
1866.	1,908,500,018	160,897,767	6,257,377	527,533
1867.	1,765,682,747	156,401,727	5,732,736	507,796
1868.	1,641,019,118	161,698,267	5,327,984	524,994
1869.	1,740,641,117	165,289,731	5,651,464	536,654
	\$142,906,477,940	\$1,245,556,388		

BAPTISTS. The collective name of those Christian denominations which reject the validity of infant baptism, and hold that the ordinance of baptism can be administered only to those who have made a personal profession of faith in Christ. The Baptist churches also, in general, maintain that the entire immersion of the body is the only scriptural mode of baptism; yet the Mennonites, who are generally regarded as Baptists, use sprinkling. The most numerous organization of Baptists are the Regular Baptists in the United States, who number over 1,000,000 members. The Free-Will Baptists are Armenians in theology and open communionists, while the Regular Baptists are Calvinists and close communionists. The "Liberal Baptists" and "General Baptists" in the United States generally agree with the Free-Will Baptists. The Disciples of Christ reject all creeds and confessions of faith as of human origin, and believe that the effect of baptism is the remission of sins. The "Church of God" believes feet-washing to be, in addition to Baptism and the Lord's Supper, a positive ordinance of perpetual standing in the Church. The "Particular Baptists" in England are Calvinists, and divided on the subject of strict communion. The "General Baptists" lean toward the Unitarians, while the "New Connection of General Baptists" are Armenians. The Baptist churches on the continent of Europe, in Asia, Africa, and Australia, are chiefly branches of the Regular Baptists in the United States, and of the Particular Baptists of England.

I. REGULAR BAPTISTS IN AMERICA.—The statistics of regular Baptists in the United States, and British possessions of North America, as reported in 1868, were as follows:

STATES.	Association.	Churches.	Total Pop.
Alabama, 1860.....	29	808	61,219
Arkansas, 1860.....	16	321	11,341
California.....	2	36	1,991
Connecticut.....	7	114	18,447
Delaware.....	..	5	609
District of Columbia.....	..	7	2,102
Florida, 1860.....	5	184	6,463
Georgia, 1860.....	38	994	84,567
Illinois.....	36	719	46,129
Indiana.....	30	450	29,103
Indian Territory, 1860....	4	45	4,300
Iowa.....	17	278	14,377
Kansas, 1865.....	4	46	1,119
Kentucky, 1865.....	47	944	81,631
Louisiana, 1860.....	10	209	10,264
Maine.....	13	268	19,870
Maryland.....	1	39	4,348
Massachusetts.....	14	265	37,948
Michigan.....	13	239	15,378
Minnesota.....	6	122	8,434
Mississippi, 1860.....	22	598	41,610
Missouri.....	37	749	44,877
Nebraska, 1865.....	1	10	217
New Hampshire.....	7	84	7,718
New Jersey.....	5	129	21,094
New Mexico, 1864.....	..	1	49
New York.....	45	814	91,928
North Carolina, 1860.....	27	696	60,532
Ohio.....	30	482	33,869
Oregon.....	3	29	1,082
Pennsylvania.....	18	427	47,700
Rhode Island.....	3	56	8,537
South Carolina, 1860.....	18	473	62,984
Tennessee, 1860.....	24	663	46,564
Texas.....	22	456	19,089
Vermont.....	7	108	7,714
Virginia.....	22	622	116,526
West Virginia.....	8	220	12,774
Wisconsin.....	12	172	8,891
German & Dutch churches.....	2	76	3,896
Swedish churches.....	1	13	600
Welsh churches, 1860....	3	34	1,400
Total in the U. States..	609	12,955	1,094,806
The total number of ministers (reported at the dates above given in the several States) is 8,346, and of baptisms, 92,075.			
<i>2.—Baptists in the British Provinces of America.</i>			
Nova Scotia.....	3	155	16,308
New Brunswick.....	2	119	8,755
Canada.....	11	275	15,091
West India Islands.....	4	101	22,261
Grand total N. America	629	13,605	1,157,221

These Provinces report 444 ministers and 2,036 baptisms.

The anniversaries of the (Northern) Baptist Societies were held in May, in New York. The receipts of the *Publication Society*, in both the Missionary and Business Departments, were \$234,412, an increase of \$34,685 over the preceding year. It was resolved to establish branch houses in New York and St. Louis. The society, during the year, issued 59 new publications and sold in all 46,970 volumes. The papers published by the society are the

Baptist Quarterly, the *National Baptist* (weekly), and the *Young Reaper* (monthly), the total number of publications, now on the society's catalogue, amounts to 982. The *American Baptist Historical Society* received during the year an addition of 294 volumes for its library. The receipts of the *American Baptist Home Missionary Society* were \$6,237 less than for the preceding year, amounting to \$135,736. The society sustained 331 missionaries, 30 of whom devoted themselves to the education of colored preachers. A magnificent donation of 25,000 acres of land on the Osage River, in Kansas, was received from the Ottawa Indians, to establish a university. A delegation from the Colored Baptist Convention, at Nashville, reported that that body represented a hundred thousand colored Baptists. The *American Baptist Missionary Union* supports twelve missions. In Asia there are 18 stations and 400 out-stations; in the European missions, 1,328 stations and out-stations. The total number of American missionaries in the Asiatic missions is 93; of active helpers, about 400. The number of members connected with the missions is 43,775; the number of churches, 568; the number of baptisms in Asia and Europe, 4,200. The *American Baptist Free Mission Society*, which is now in the twenty-sixth year of its existence, expressed, at its anniversary, continued devotion to the antislavery principles of its organization, which it considers not yet wholly beyond the need of support, and opposed to all the ends and objects of colonization of the blacks in Africa, asserting their equal right with the whites to choose the United States as their residence. The union of the society with the consolidated Missionary Convention (of colored Baptists) which met at Nashville, Tenn., in August, 1867, is regarded as accomplished, so far as harmony of action is concerned, though an organic union has not yet been effected. A correspondence has been carried on with the American Baptist Missionary Union, which has as yet not produced a definite result, though both parties seem willing to enter the union. The receipts of the society for the year were \$19,005.72. Besides the missionaries in the Southern States, the society supports missionaries in Burmah and Japan.

The Southern Baptist Convention met at Baltimore on the 7th of May, and was attended by about two hundred delegates. A delegation from the American Home Missionary Society, with which the convention has not been in correspondence for many years, was warmly welcomed. It was resolved to remove the Sunday-school Board to Memphis. Thirty churches have been constituted among the freedmen by the missionaries, twenty-four meeting-houses have been commenced, and ten finished. The Board of Foreign Missions of this convention sustains missions in China and Africa. The following are the statistics of the other Southern Baptist Societies, as reported in 1868:

Home Missionary Society—Receipts, \$25,994.75; missionaries, 108; number of persons baptized, 1,918, of whom 611 were colored; sermons preached, 7,369; visits made, 12,467. *Indian Missions*—Receipts, \$452.83. *Sunday-school Board*—Contributions, \$2,521.98. Publications, 2,000,000 pages.

II. "FREE-WILL BAPTISTS," "LIBERAL BAPTISTS," AND "GENERAL BAPTISTS," IN AMERICA.—According to the *Free-Will Baptist Register* for 1869, the statistics of this denomination in 1868 were as follows:

YEARLY MEETINGS.	Quarterly Meetings.	Churches.	Ordained Preachers.	Communicants.
New Hampshire.....	9	133	138	8,841
Maine (Western).....	4	72	59	4,358
Maine (Central).....	5	100	90	6,136
Penobscot.....	9	112	85	3,748
Vermont.....	6	61	48	2,772
Rhode Island and Massachusetts.	3	43	44	4,997
Holland Purchase.....	6	38	38	1,909
Genesee.....	5	20	26	1,424
Susquehanna.....	5	37	29	1,343
New York and Pennsylvania.....	4	40	30	1,043
St. Lawrence.....	2	15	15	636
Union.....	3	12	14	579
Central New York.....	5	42	35	2,016
Pennsylvania.....	5	18	19	948
Ohio and Pennsylvania.....	5	35	27	1,602
Ohio (Northern).....	4	15	15	569
Ohio.....	2	9	13	712
Ohio River.....	4	42	26	1,946
Marion, Ohio.....	3	18	17	992
Indiana.....	2	10	7	317
Northern Indiana.....	4	24	19	615
Michigan.....	10	96	97	3,564
St. Joseph's Valley.....	5	20	21	688
Illinois.....	9	56	65	2,504
Wisconsin.....	8	62	62	2,604
Iowa.....	3	23	30	1,123
Iowa (Northern).....	4	27	22	863
Canada West.....	3	18	10	655
Minnesota.....	4	19	19	524
Quarterly Meetings not connected.....	9	46	36	1,069
Churches not connected.....	..	6	5	147
Total.....	150	1,279	1,161	61,244

Showing an increase of 2 quarterly meetings, 2 churches, 27 ministers, and 2,033 members. There are also 87 "licensed preachers."

The societies, etc., of the Free-Will Baptist Church, are the printing establishments at Dover, N. H., and Chicago, a theological school at New Hampton, N. H., a Foreign Mission Society, a Home Mission Society, an Education Society, a Female Systematic Benevolence Society, a Sabbath-school Union, a Temperance Society, the Western Home Mission Committee, the New York State Mission Society, and the Commission for the Promotion of Education in the South.

The Free-Will Baptists have four colleges: Bates College, at Lewiston, Me.; Hillsdale College, at Hillsdale, Mich.; West Virginia College, at Flemington, W. Va.; and Ridgeville College, at Ridgeville, Ind. They have thirteen male and female seminaries and academies.

The twentieth Triennial Session of the General Conference of Free-Will Baptists met at Buffalo, on the 7th of October. About seventy

members and a number of visitors were present, among whom was a representative of the Free Christian Baptists of New Brunswick, who reported that his denomination had adopted the Free-Will Baptist Articles of Faith, and that they had received six hundred members, by baptism, during the past year. A prominent feature of the business was the adoption of articles under which the society should be incorporated. The subject of changing the name, by adopting that of Baptist or Free Baptist or Union Baptist, was agitated; but the Conference resolved to adhere to the name of "Free-Will Baptist." The Liberty Association of Free-Will (heretofore General) Baptists of Indiana, numbering 25 churches and 1,653 members, and the Ohio Association of Free-Will (heretofore General) Baptists, numbering about 12 churches and 500 members, were received by delegates into the Conference. A net increase of members was reported of 9,420, the present membership being 63,440. The Home Mission Society, now in the thirty-second year of its existence, reported its receipts to be ten times as great as during its first years. The American Missionary Association states that this denomination has done more, according to its numbers, for the freedmen than any other people. Over thirty-five thousand dollars have been raised, in a little over a year, for the various departments of mission work. Taking the Eastern and Western work together among the freedmen, this society has sustained 37 laborers and 1,800 scholars; has established ten new churches and one quarterly meeting, containing 1,300 members, and is supporting two normal schools. In the department of Home Missions proper, there are 24 ministers, making altogether 60 Home Missionary laborers. Several associations are reported in Alabama as agreeing with the Free-Will Baptists, with whom the Society hopes to arrange for a Union.

This Church has had for many years flourishing missions in India. The last annual report again shows favorable progress. The report recommended the policy for the future of keeping a sufficient force only in the field to superintend native preachers and teachers. In Turkey the field seems to be open. The receipts for the year have been about \$10,500. A resolution was adopted looking to the opening of additional missions in China and Turkey. The members of the Church were advised to give this Society the preference in their contributions over those not of their denomination. The Home and Foreign Mission Society are to be united into one after 1871.

The "Liberal Baptists" or "General Baptists," two associations of which, as reported above, joined the "Free-Will Baptists" at their General Conference in November, had previously (May 28th) held a convention at Fort Branch, Indiana, for the purpose of promoting a union of all Baptists believing in "free salvation and free communion." It appeared that

there were two associations in Indiana, three in Kentucky, three in Illinois, three in Georgia, one in Alabama, one Separatist Baptist in Illinois, one Free-Will Baptist in Tennessee. The total number of members was estimated at 8,000 or 10,000. Six of the associations reported as follows:

Cumberland Association, Ky.	348	members.
Union " " Ky.	612	"
Ohio " " Ill.	556	"
Southern Illinois " " Ill.	686	"
Union Grove " " Ill.	330	"
Liberty " " Ind.	1,412	"
United " " Ind.	1,480	"
Central (General Free-Will) Association, Ill.	319	"
Total	4,743	"

III. OTHER BAPTIST DENOMINATIONS IN AMERICA.—The statistics of other American denominations practising immersion are as follows:

DENOMINATIONS.	Assoc'ns.	Churches.	Tot. Pop.
Anti-Mission Baptists.	180	1,800	105,000
Free-Will Baptists.	147	1,264	56,258
Six-Principle Baptists, 1860.	18	3,000
Seventh-Day Baptists.	4	68	7,038
Church of God (Winebrennarians).	10	360	32,000
Disciples (Campbellites)...	5,000	500,000
Tunkers, 1860.	200	20,000
Mennonites, 1860.	36,280

These denominations have 5,022 members.

The fifty-fourth General Conference of the Seventh-Day Baptists was held at Albion, Wisconsin, September 10th. A prominent subject of discussion was the expediency of creating a denominational literature, particularly in the matter of Sabbath-school libraries, and of a Hymn-book. Measures were taken to publish a Sabbath-school paper. The organization of the General Conference was perfected by the adoption of a constitution. The state of the churches and missionary interests of the Society was reported as hopeful.

The annual meeting of the German Baptists or Tunkers was held at Millersburg, Indiana, on the 2d of June, and was attended by about 5,000 persons. Among the questions discussed were: the nature of Scriptural divorces, which has been under discussion for the last ten years; taxation for church purposes, which was decided to be not unscriptural, but inexpedient; lyceums, which were not indorsed; whether voting for persons in the ministry is more in accord with the gospel order than casting lots—decided in the affirmative; the reception of ministers of other orders; feet washing, the Sunday-school system; the stand of ministers; support of evangelists. The question of adherence to the name of German Baptists was decided in favor of adherence.

IV. BAPTISTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.—The largest body of Baptists in England are the "Particular Baptists" or "Calvinistic Baptists." Most of the churches of this class are connected with the "Baptist Union." In 1868

the following statistics were reported of the churches in connection with the "Union:" Number of churches, 2,411; of chapels, 2,642; of members, 221,524, a clear increase of 7,757. Additions to the ministry, 88; 25 new places of worship have been erected at a cost of £33,623, and 31 others enlarged. The "General Baptists," who lean toward the "Unitarians," reported, in 1868, 20,399 members, 537 less than in 1865. The baptisms of 1867 fell short of those of 1862 by 619.

The "Baptist Union," at its meeting held in May, declared in favor of the establishment of an equitable system of national education, with separation of secular and religious instruction, the former only to be controlled by the State. The receipts of the Baptist Missionary Society were £39,912, the largest it ever has had except in the Jubilee year. The number of missionaries and assistants was 58; of native churches, 105; of members connected with missions, 6,200.

V. BAPTISTS ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.—The Baptist Churches on the Continent of Europe have generally been organized by the American Baptist Missionary Union, and most of them remain in connection with it. According to the last annual report of the Union, the statistics of the Baptist churches on the Continent of Europe were, in December, 1867, as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Churches, 1867.	Members, Dec., 1867.	Members, Dec., 1866.
France.....	6	373	358
Germany.....	67	12,631	11,894
Denmark.....	17	1,726	1,726
Holland.....	1	60	52
Switzerland.....	3	292	292
Poland.....	1	352	312
Russia.....	3	918	857
Sweden.....	199	7,444	6,875
	297	23,796	22,462

Outside of Sweden, where the Baptist missions are self-supporting and independent, there are, in the European missions, 1,118 stations, with about 250 ministers and colporteurs; 102 Sunday-schools, with 3,194 scholars. The churches in Sweden form 10 Associations.

VI. ASIA.—The missions of the American Baptist Missionary Union in *Burmah* now constitute a separate Association. The convention of 1867 was attended by 91 members, of whom 15 were American missionaries, 20 native ordained preachers, 38 native unordained preachers, and 18 native laymen. There are 10 districts, with 20 missions. The number of baptisms reported in 1866 and 1867 is 1,172; present number of members, 19,231; pupils in schools, 4,517; of churches, 360; of ordained native preachers, 66; of unordained native preachers, 246. The total of benevolent contributions from 12 missions, for the two years, is 20,187 rupees. The contributions for schools, books, etc., from 6 missions, 5,368 rupees. There have been issued in the year ending

September 30, 1867, from the mission press at Rangoon, a total of 90,750 copies of books and tracts, comprising 5,502,800 pages. The theological seminary at Rangoon has had an average attendance of about 58 pupils, who were supported at a total expense of \$1,375.70, or \$23.72 each. Two missions (Bassein and Rangoon) are supported in Burmah by the American Free Mission Society. In the Bassein mission there is 1 missionary on duty, with a Karen co-laborer. Members, 5,862; village schools, 43; pupils, 1,173. In the Rangoon mission there are 2 missionaries; nearly 1,000 members have been added in 6 years; 20 new chapels were erected last year. Pupils in the schools, 1,500.

The distinguishing feature of the Assamese mission (Amer. Bapt. Miss. Union) during the past year has been the work among the Garos, where a church of nearly 40 members has sprung up almost in a day. There are two schools, and four Garo assistants are already engaged. There has been issued a total of 547,400 pages of books and tracts from the press of this mission.

The Mission to the Telooagoos (Amer. Bapt. Miss. Union) reports the following statistics: Missionaries, 3, and their wives; native assistants, etc., 9; stations, 6; members, 139, an increase of 93. Local receipts of over 1,200 rupees have been realized at the Nellore station.

In *Siam*, the Amer. Bapt. Miss. Union supports 1 missionary and wife, and has 1 station. There are 24 members, an increase of 2; 2 missionaries and their wives and 2 female missionaries labor among the Chinese population of Siam. The number of members of this mission is 53; number of baptized during the year, 40.

In *China*, the Amer. Bapt. Miss. Union has now two missions: the *Southern China* Mission (late Tse Chin) and *Eastern China* Mission (late Ningpo Mission). The statistics of the former mission were: Missionaries, 3, and their wives; out-stations, 11; native assistants, 9, 2 of whom have been ordained during the year. The statistics of the latter: Missionaries, 4, and their wives; native assistants, etc., 16; stations and out-stations, 12; preaching-places, 13; churches, 5; baptized, 30; members, 178; local contributions, \$93.49. A new station has been opened at Hang Chau, 100 miles from Ningpo. It has 8 members. The Board of Foreign Missions of the Southern Baptist Convention sustains in China 7 American missionaries with several native helpers, at Canton, Shanghai, and Shantung. The mission has 180 members, of whom 89 have been baptized during the year. The Seventh-Day Baptist Missionary Society has a mission church of 20 members, with a native pastor.

The mission of the Free-Will Baptists in *India* has been more than usually successful. There are now some 70 or 80 pupils in the normal schools, over 900 in the boarding and day schools, and about 700 in the Sabbath-schools.

In one of the girls' schools 31 out of 98 have been baptized. Over \$168,000 have been expended in the last 36 years, with a result of 4 churches and 149 members.

In Japan there is a mission of the American Free Mission Society. In the spring of 1867, Mr. Goble, the missionary, visited the northern portion of Sikok, the central Japanese island. On the vessel were two Japanese passengers, naval officers of the princes of Awa and Tōsa, the latter having been a pupil in Mrs. Goble's school. Through him Mr. Goble became acquainted with several influential Japanese officers, from whom he received a very cordial invitation to visit and locate himself in Tōsa, the southern part of Sikok.

VI. AFRICA.—The Baptists in Liberia have 20 organized churches, 12 ordained preachers, and 1,300 members. They received assistance, until 1861, from the Southern Baptist Board. The missionary premises of the Board at Yoruba were destroyed by a mob, and the missionaries driven to Lagos. One of the missionaries (Mr. Phillips) returns to America for his health, leaving Mr. Stone alone.

The African mission of the American Union is to be resumed.

A missionary convention was held at Marshall, on the Junk River, in Liberia, on Wednesday, March 25, and Thursday, March 26, 1868. Ten Baptist churches were represented. It was unanimously voted to organize the "Liberian Baptist Missionary Union," for "the evangelization of the heathen" within the borders of the republic of Liberia, "and contiguous thereto." Twelve fields of missionary labor were designated and commended to the care of the nearest churches. Rev. John T. Richardson was appointed a commissioner to represent the "Liberian Baptist Missionary Union" in the United States. Two young men were chosen as students of divinity to accompany the commissioner, in order to be educated for the ministry.

BAUGHER, HENRY L., D. D., an American Lutheran clergyman, teacher and college President, born at Abbottstown, Pa., about 1805; died at Gettysburg, Pa., April 14, 1868. He graduated at Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., in 1825, studied theology at Princeton and Gettysburg, was licensed to preach by the Maryland Synod, and elected pastor at Boonsboro, Md., in 1829 and in 1830 called to Gettysburg to take charge of a classical school, called into existence by the exigencies of the Lutheran Theological Seminary, already established there. The school rapidly expanded into a college, and in 1832 Rev. Dr. Kranth became its first President, while Mr. Baugher filled the chair of the Greek language and Belles-Lettres. He continued in this professorship until 1850, when, on the retirement of Dr. Kranth from the presidency of the college, he was chosen his successor, and continued in that position until his death. He was an excellent and successful teacher, an able execu-

tive officer, uniting courtesy and kindness with strict discipline, a ready and eloquent preacher, and an easy, graceful and accomplished writer. He was a frequent and valued contributor to the *Evangelical Review*, as well as to the Lutheran papers; but, aside from his contributions to these, his baccalaureate and other addresses, and some occasional sermons and essays, he has left little published matter to demonstrate his rare abilities. His health had been generally robust, and his last illness, an affection of the throat, was of only eight days' duration.

BAVARIA, a kingdom in South Germany. King, Ludwig II., born August 25, 1845; succeeded his father, Maximilian II., on March 10, 1864. Prime minister (since January 1, 1867), Prince Clovis von Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. Bavaria has an area of 29,373 square miles, and, according to the census of 1867, a population of 4,824,421, which was divided as follows among the eight provinces of the kingdom:

	Inhabitants.
Upper Bavaria.....	827,669
Lower Bavaria.....	594,511
Palatinate.....	626,066
Upper Palatinate and Ratisbon.....	491,295
Upper Franconia.....	535,060
Central Franconia.....	579,688
Lower Franconia.....	584,972
Suabia.....	585,160
Total.....	4,824,421

A census of religious denominations, taken in 1852, showed 3,176,333 Catholics, 1,233,894 Protestants, 5,560 other Christians, and 56,033 Israelites. In December, 1867, a new census of religious denominations was taken, but its results had not been published in January, 1869. It was thought that the number of Catholics would amount to about 3,300,000, Protestants 1,320,000, other Christians 6,000, Israelites 64,000. The capital, Munich, had, in 1867, 170,688 inhabitants. The army, according to the law of January 30, 1868, consists, first, of the standing army, and, second, of the landwehr. The standing army is divided into the active army and the reserve. The time of service is three years in the active army, three years in the reserve, and five years in the landwehr. The active army consists of 49,949 men. In the budget for one year of the ninth financial period (1868 and 1869), both revenues and expenditures are estimated at 87,144,606 florins. The public debt in April, 1866, amounted to 334,405,150 florins (of which 121,739,300 was railroad debt).

Bavaria celebrated, in 1868, the fiftieth anniversary of the constitution, which, with slight modifications, still exists in the country. The king, on this occasion, issued the following proclamation to the people:

PALACE OF BERG, May 26th.

Fifty years to-day have elapsed since the first King of Bavaria, my ancestor, Maximilian I., granted a constitution to the country. The principles on which this fundamental law rests have not ceased to rule, unrestrictedly, the nation, from that memorable

day on which the benefits of the new institutions drew closer and made more cordial the ties which for centuries have united the prince and the people of Bavaria. Faithful to the example of my illustrious ancestors, I also will bear aloft the standard of the constitution; and under its protecting shelter may the prosperity of my beloved country increase and become still more solid, for I find my highest happiness in that of my people.—Louis.

On May 26th a treaty was concluded between Bavaria and the United States as to the nationality of emigrants. Its stipulations are similar to those of the American treaty upon the same subject with the North-German Confederation. (*See GERMANY.*)

BAVARIA, LUDWIG, KARL AUGUST (LOUIS I.), EX-KING OF, born at Munich, August 25, 1786, died at Nice, France, February 29, 1868. He was the son of Maximilian Joseph, King of Bavaria, and was educated at the Universities of Landshut and Göttingen, and served in the campaign against Austria, in 1809. He had a remarkable taste for the fine arts, and paid much more attention to painting and sculpture than to the principles of government. He saved as much as possible from his allowance as crown prince, to invest in works of art, and built at his own cost the magnificent Glyptothek, at Munich. On his accession to the throne after his father's death, October 13, 1825, he speedily became popular from his liberal schemes of government, economic reforms, and his enlightened patronage of letters and art. He opened the first railway in Germany, and promoted the canal which opened water communication between the Main and the Danube. He removed the University of Landshut to Munich, reorganized the Academy of Fine Arts, and erected the Odeon, Basilica, the Royal Palace, the Gate of Victory, and the new Pinacothek at Munich, and the Walhalla at Ratisbon. In the sphere of learning he gave great encouragement to the prosecution of historical studies, and attested his taste for poetry, by the publication of two volumes, of his own composition, one entitled "Poems" (1829), the other "Companions of the Walhalla" (1843). The ultramontane or clerical party, after a time, began to gain the ascendancy over him, and the former liberal and constitutional monarch became a reactionist. In 1831 the ultramontanists began to predominate in his councils, and within the next ten years the number of convents was doubled. Behr, Eisenmann, Volkhardt, and other liberals were exiled or imprisoned. In 1846, however, a change was made; the minister Abel and his successor were both dismissed from office, and the King called a Liberal to fill the place. The peers were, however, mostly reactionists. Serious riots ensued in 1848, and the people now began to clamor for reforms, and for a special convocation of the Chambers (the Bavarian Legislature). The King refused both requests, and there were strong indications of a revolution. On the 21st of March the King abdicated in favor of his son Maximilian, protesting in his

farewell proclamation that he had sought the welfare of his people before his own, and that his heart still glowed with affection for Bavaria and Germany. The twenty years which have passed since his abdication have been spent by the King in dignified retirement, in the pursuits of literature and art, and have doubtless been happier than those in which he wore the crown. His contributions from his private income to Catholic institutions in the United States exceed 110,000 florins. More than twenty different institutions, chiefly educational, were thus aided by him.

BEACH, MOSES YALE, an American publisher and editor, born in Wallingford, Conn., January 7, 1800; died in the same town, July 19, 1868. In early boyhood he exhibited unusual skill in mechanics, and while attending school, or at home, he was constantly whittling out models of machines, or making curious contrivances of wood. When fourteen years of age he was apprenticed to a cabinet-maker in Hartford, and, by diligence in performing extra tasks, was able to purchase his freedom in his eighteenth year. After being employed as a journeyman in Northampton, Mass., a short time, he went into business for himself, and it was not long before his cabinet-work was reputed to be the best in the country. Yet his business was unsuccessful, and he removed to Springfield, where he neglected other interests, to experiment with a gunpowder engine for propelling balloons. Not succeeding with this invention, he next attempted to open steam navigation on the Connecticut River, between Hartford and Springfield, and would have done so, if the state of his affairs had not obliged him to cease operations before his steamer was completed. Others, for adopting his plan, gained much credit, taking a steamer over Enfield Falls, a feat that had been looked on as impossible. Soon afterward Mr. Beach invented a rag-cutting machine, which has been generally used by paper-mills, yet he received no pecuniary benefit from his machine, because he delayed taking out a patent for it. He next removed to Ulster County, N. Y., where he became interested in an extensive paper-mill, and though amassing a large property in six years, he lost it all during the seventh. This was the last of his reverses. In 1835 he came with his family to New York City, where he bought an interest in *The Sun* newspaper, and in a short time became its sole proprietor. The wealth which he acquired in publishing this paper made him prominent in banking and other financial operations. President Polk sent him to Mexico, during the Mexican war, to arrange a treaty of peace. The negotiations, though satisfactory, were broken off by a false report, announcing that Santa Anna had annihilated General Taylor's army. Mr. Beach retired from business in 1857, and up to the time of his death resided in his native town, where his liberality and readiness to aid in all movements for the im-

provement of the place, and its intellectual and moral advancement, greatly endeared him to its citizens.

BELGIUM, a kingdom in Europe. King, Leopold II., born April 9, 1865; succeeded his father, Leopold I., on December 10, 1865. The only son of the king, Prince Leopold, born June 12, 1859, died in January, 1869. Heir-apparent is now the king's only brother, Count Philip of Flanders, born March 24, 1837, married April 25, 1867, to Princess Maria of Hohen-zollern-Sigmaringen. The area is 11,373 square miles. The population was estimated in December, 1865, at 4,984,451, but in 1866, according to the "provisional" results of the census of that year, it only amounted to 4,839,094. The following cities had above 100,000 inhabitants: Brussels, 163,434 (with eight adjacent communities, 286,827); Ghent, 116,607; Antwerp, 123,571; Liege, 101,699.

The ministry was reorganized on January 3, 1868, so as to consist of the following members: President of the Council and Minister of Finance, Hubert Frère-Orban, appointed January 3, 1868; Minister of Justice, Jules Bara, November 12, 1865; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Jules van der Stichelen, January 3, 1868; Minister of War, General Renard, January 3, 1868; Minister of the Interior, Eudore Pirmez, January 3, 1868; Minister of Public Works, Jamar, January 3, 1868.

The budget for 1868, as approved by the Chambers, fixed the revenue at 169,403,280 francs; the expenditures at 171,911,650 francs. The national debt, in 1868, amounted to 717,155,214 francs.

The army, according to the law of April 5th, is to be raised, in time of war, to 100,000 men.

The exports and imports of Belgium, in 1866 and 1865 were as follows (value in millions of francs):

COUNTRIES.	EXPORTS.		IMPORTS.	
	1866.	1865.	1866.	1865.
Europe.....	579.27	611.38	611.36	575.73
America.....	157.78	135.37	29.94	24.12
Asia.....	8.92	5.24	0.51	0.33
Africa.....	1.38	4.44	1.29	1.30
Australia.....	0.10	0.18
Total.....	747.35	756.42	643.20	601.65

The amount of shipping during 1866 was as follows: Arrivals, 4,568 vessels, of 1,067,886 tons; clearances, 4,478 vessels of 1,029,113 tons. The merchant navy, on December 31, 1865, consisted of 98 vessels, together of 37,925 tons.

An election for the renewal of one-half of the House of Representatives, which, according to the Belgian Constitution, takes place every two years, resulted in the gain of one member by the Government, or Liberal party, which has now in the House seventy-three members, against fifty-one belonging to the Catholic party.

On March 13th the Chamber of Representa-

tives passed the Government bill for the contingent of 12,000 men for 1869, being an increase of 2,000 men over the previous year, by sixty-eight votes against forty-three. The bill proposing to divide the contingent into two sections, one effective and the other reserve, was adopted, by sixty-six votes against thirty-five, after a very stormy sitting. The reduction of the time of service to twenty-four months was adopted by eighty-seven votes against twenty-one. The Chamber subsequently adopted, by a majority of thirty-eight votes, a reorganization of the regimental lists. Previously (February 22d), M. Lehardy's amendment, proposing that the army should be exclusively composed of volunteers, had been rejected, by seventy-four against eighteen.

Owing to the pressure exercised by France and other governments, the Government of Belgium has for years expelled a number of liberal refugees. In May, the Chamber of Representatives adopted the Government bill, proposing to renew until 1871 the law relating to foreigners residing in Belgium. During the debate the ministry stated that the expulsion of M. Rogeard took place in consequence of his attacks upon the Belgian Government, and with a view to avoid eventual difficulties with France. General Prim and M. Vessinier were not expelled, but simply requested to leave Belgium.

BELL, HENRY H., U. S. N., a Rear-Admiral in the United States naval service, born in North Carolina, about 1808; drowned at the mouth of Osaka River, Japan, January 11, 1868. Rear-Admiral Bell was appointed a midshipman from North Carolina, in August, 1823, and during his more than forty-five years of service in the Navy, twenty-five of which were passed afloat, he saw more severe fighting than has usually fallen to the lot of our naval commanders. His first experience, in naval warfare, was on board of the *Grampus*, when she was engaged in clearing the coast of Cuba of pirates. He was connected with the East India squadron for many years, and commanded one of the vessels of the squadron which, in November, 1856, captured and destroyed the four barrier forts near Canton, China. Early in the late war he was assigned to the command of one of the first-rates forming the West Gulf squadron, took an active part in the capture of New Orleans, and the siege of Vicksburg, and in the blockade rendered essential service. For a time, in 1863, he was in command of the West Gulf squadron, and when Rear-Admiral Thatcher was ordered to other duty the command of it again devolved on him. In July, 1865, he was ordered to the command of the East India squadron, his rank being then that of commodore. In July, 1866, he was promoted to be rear-admiral, and, in 1867, having served more than forty years in the navy, he was retired; but Rear-Admiral S. C. Rowan, who was to have relieved him, had not arrived when he was drowned. He

had been, during his service in the Chinese waters, very active in putting down the Chinese and Malayan piratical vessels, which were so numerous and dangerous in those waters. He had gone to the Japanese coast, and anchored in a somewhat rough and unsafe roadstead, off the mouth of the Osaka River, which he was desirous of entering, but which was closed by a sand-bar, thrown up in a recent violent storm; and, at length, weary of the delay, set out, accompanied by Flag-Lieutenant John H. Reed and thirteen men, in a boat from the Hartford, to enter the river. The boat was capsized at the entrance of the river, and the admiral, Lieutenant Reed, and ten of the thirteen men, were drowned.

BELL, SAMUEL DANA, LL. D., an eminent jurist of New Hampshire, born in Frances-town, N. H., October 9, 1798; died in Manchester, N. H., July 31, 1868. Judge Bell was the son of Samuel Bell, Governor of the State, Senator in Congress, and Justice of the Superior Court, and a brother of Dr. John Bell, James Bell, and Dr. Luther V. Bell. He graduated from Harvard University, in the class of 1816; read law with George Sullivan, of Exeter, Attorney-General of New Hampshire, and commenced practice in Meredith. In 1820 he removed to Chester, N. H., and ten years later to Concord. In 1839 he removed again, to Manchester, where he resided till his death. He was a member of the Legislature about 1825; and, from 1823 to 1828, Solicitor for Rockingham County, and for several years Clerk of the Legislature. In 1830 he was one of the commissioners appointed to revise the statutes of the State, and held the same appointment in the revisions of 1842 and 1867. In 1849 he was appointed Justice of the Superior Court, and in 1855, on the reorganization of the court, he was chosen Justice of the Supreme Court. In 1859 he was appointed Chief Justice of the same court, and resigned August 1, 1864. In 1861 he was the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for Congress, in the second New Hampshire District. He received the degree of LL. D. from Dartmouth College in 1854. By constant industry and untiring devotion to his profession, Judge Bell became one of the most eminent and profound jurists of New England, and by his death the bar of his State, and of the country, sustained a great loss. His extensive legal learning was united to a character of unspotted integrity. The amiability of his deportment and disposition, and the charm of his conversation, won him a multitude of friends, and universal respect and esteem. He was one of the early members of the New Hampshire Historical Society, and one of the most valuable associates of that organization. It has been often stated that no man living was so well versed in early New Hampshire history as he. He was true and liberal to the best interests of the city where he resided, and the establishment of the Man-

chester Public Library was due, in a large measure, to his personal efforts.

BERRYER, PIERRE ANTOINE, a French advocate, politician, and orator, born in Paris, January 4, 1790; died at Angerville, near Paris, November 29, 1868. His father was an advocate, but at first intended his son for the church, and placed him at the school of the Oratoriens at Juille, to be educated for the priesthood. He was a favorite with his teachers from his intelligence and devotion, though inclined to indolence, but no sooner had he arrived at the age of manhood, than he abandoned theology, and began the study of the law, marrying, when he was only twenty-one years old, a girl of sixteen. He soon entered on the practice of his profession, and his powers as an orator and debater were shown not only in the courts of law, but in his political addresses. His father was one of those liberal royalists who had hoped to engraft on the French monarchy a constitution like that of England; and both father and son were consistent Liberals, though neither of them allowed political feeling to interfere with the duties of an advocate. As Napoleon was tottering to his downfall, Berryer had the boldness to proclaim his downfall at Rennes, and to raise the white cockade. This proceeding led to an order from the prefect for his arrest; but, fearing a too summary execution of justice, he escaped to Nantes. He won his first distinction at the bar, by his father's side, in contending for the life of the unfortunate Marshal Ney. His eloquence on this occasion assured the successful career of the young advocate. Cambonne, another of the Bonapartists then accused of treason, immediately confided his cause to Berryer, Junior, and was justified by an acquittal, though Berryer was himself accused of uttering sedition in his speech. He stood this attack firmly; and the King, admiring his steadiness, granted the pardon of General Debelle to his solicitation. In 1826 he defended the Abbé Lamennais on a charge of sedition, and obtained his acquittal on one count of the indictment, and the infliction of a very small penalty on the other. In 1830 Berryer was elected deputy for the Haute Loire, and made his first appearance in the Chamber, taking, as might be expected, high rank as a speaker. He was opposed to the Revolution, and favored the succession of the young Duc de Bordeaux, under the regency of his mother, the Duchess de Berri. He was, in fact, the head of the Legitimists, and was therefore suspected of complicity with the Duchess de Berri in her insurrection in La Vendée in 1832. Berryer had gone to Nantes with a letter from Chateaubriand, urging the duchess to abstain from such a course as she meditated; and, being naturally apprehensive of an arrest, he determined to go to Switzerland for a time. He was, however, apprehended and taken to Nantes. He was tried at Blois on October 16, 1832; and the case was seriously damaging to the French

Government. The royalist feelings of Berryer were well known; but the public were amazed to find that the evidence against him was a fabrication supported by perjury. Berryer was at once acquitted, and speedily assumed his place in the Legislature, from which he demanded the pardon of the duchess, who had been at length found and imprisoned. On this event occurring, Chateaubriand published a pamphlet, in which he addressed the duchess, and used the words, "Votre fils est notre roi." He received addresses from a large number of students. The Government prosecuted him for sedition, along with the editors of six journals in which his reply to the students had appeared. Berryer was retained for the defence, and obtained a unanimous verdict of acquittal for all his clients. In 1834-'35 he successfully defended D'Argenson, De Puyraveau, and Garnier Pages; and in 1836 was presented by the French Legitimists with the estate of Angerville, which his difficulties compelled him to offer for sale in the following year; but the party again raised a subscription for him. He paid a visit to Charles X. in his exile shortly before his decease. On the trial of Louis Napoleon for his attempt at Boulogne in 1840, the prince chose Berryer and Marie as his defenders, and Berryer made a bold speech, saying it was natural that the prince should desire to place himself at the head of the French nation as chief mourner for Napoleon, whose remains were then on their way from St. Helena. His dynasty had been elected by 4,000,000 Frenchmen, and he was the heir to that throne. He must be treated like those of other deposed dynasties, and condemned simply to exile. At the end of the same year France was roused by the success of Sir C. Napier at Acre, and the peaceful address of the French ministry was fiercely debated. Berryer, in his speech against it, called on the Chamber to make a protest which would gladden the spirit of the French people. Berryer was one of the French deputies who attended the mock court of the Count de Chambord in Belgrave Square in 1843; but he spoke powerfully in his own defence and that of 3,000 other French subjects, and in indignant protest against a paragraph of the royal address reflecting on them. He attacked the ministry in the same year for disavowing the acts of Admiral Dupetit Thouars in seizing Tahiti; and in 1845 he urged the plea of liberty of conscience against the law to exile the Jesuits. At the Revolution of 1848 Berryer made no sign, but was chosen deputy for the Bouches du Rhône. During the republic he said little, but was opposed to Louis Napoleon, and protested against the repeal of the law exiling the Bourbons, for the curious reason that the Count de Chambord, a monarch kept illegally from his throne, could not accept permission to enter his own kingdom. Berryer joined with the party that endeavored to destroy the power of the President and to impeach him; but, when the *coup d'état* of

December 2, 1851, had been effected, he ceased to take an active part in politics. He endeavored to effect a reconciliation between the branches of the Bourbons. He was bâtonnier of the French bar in 1852, and was elected an Academician in 1855, when he did not, as was customary, pay a complimentary visit to the head of the Government. When Montalembert was prosecuted, in 1858, for publishing his celebrated "Debate on India in the English House of Commons," he intrusted his defence to Berryer; and in 1861 Berryer was counsel for Miss Patterson in her suit against the representatives of Jerome Bonaparte. He allowed himself to be nominated as a candidate in 1863 for the representation of the Bouches du Rhône, and was returned along with Thiers and M. Marie. In the Imperial Chamber of Deputies, Berryer did not take a very active part. He spoke in 1867 in favor of the French intervention in Rome, and made an indignant protest against the attacks on the French press by the Count de Kerveguen. Berryer's latest act in political life was his adhesion to the Baudin subscription by a public letter dictated from his bed and addressed to the editor of the *Electeur*. It runs as follows: "SIR: On the 2d of December, 1851, I moved and obtained from the National Assembly, sitting in the mairie of the eleventh arrondissement, a decree of forfeiture and outlawry against the President of the Republic, inviting citizens to resist the violation of the laws if the President was guilty. This decree was made as public in Paris as was possible. My colleague, M. Baudin, energetically obeyed the orders of the Assembly; he was a victim of his obedience, and I feel myself bound to join in the subscription opened for the erection of an expiatory monument over his grave." The day when Berryer entered the Chamber of Deputies, Royer Collard said of him: "It is not merely a talent; it is a power." After hearing his first great speech in 1830, his friends hailed in him the advent of a second Mirabeau. All critics seem to be agreed that, since that "imperial voice" fell silent, no other has so dominated and swayed a French audience as that of Berryer. "He was more than an orator; he was the living personification of human speech, in its splendor and in its majesty. In him all was eloquent—the tone, gesture, attitude, and look, as well as the inspiration." All ear and eye witnesses testify to an imperial something in his manner, which, with the words, produced effects that the reading of these alone, forcible as they are, utterly fails to explain. It was only in the last session that with this, and a phrase, he cowed to silence the noisy majority of the Corps Legislatif. Rouher's petulant hardihood, defiant of Favre and Thiers, was veiled with respect before Berryer, before whose silent look and brief contemptuous pause, even Granier Cassagnac himself, for once in his boisterous life, sank abashed. His person was good, his features were fine and

expressive, his gestures animated, his diction was noble, and his voice incomparably sweet and sonorous. Then his intellect was of grand proportions, and his speech bore reading as well as hearing.

BETTS, SAMUEL R., LL. D., one of the ablest of American jurists, born in Richmond, Berkshire County, Mass., in 1787; died at New Haven, Conn., November 3, 1868. He was the son of a respectable farmer; and, after a thorough early training in his native town, entered Williams College, where he graduated with honor in 1806. After a diligent study of the law in Hudson, N. Y., he was admitted to the bar, and commenced practice in Sullivan County, N. Y., where he was winning a fair reputation, at the outbreak of the War of 1812, when he entered the army, and soon after was appointed Judge-Advocate by Governor D. D. Tompkins. In 1815 he was elected to Congress for the district comprising Orange and Sullivan Counties. At the close of the term, he declined a reelection, and devoted himself with great assiduity to the study and practice of his profession. He was for some years District-Attorney of Orange County. At that time, the bar of the State of New York was remarkable for the numerous eminent legal minds who were engaged in the practice of the profession in the courts of the eastern counties. Martin Van Buren, Elisha Williams, Thomas J. Oakley, George Griffin, Ogden Hoffman, Prescott Hall, and Thomas Addis Emmet, were the great lights of the bar, and with all of them Mr. Betts was brought in almost constant contact, and, though younger than most of them, was soon recognized as their peer in legal attainments and intellectual acumen. After about eight years of this practice, Mr. Betts was appointed by President Monroe, in 1823, Judge of the United States District Court. This position he held for the long period of forty-four years, and throughout the whole term presided over it with a dignity, a courtesy, a profundity of legal knowledge, a carefulness of research, and a patience of investigation which made him a model jurist in all the great questions brought before him. To him belongs the high honor of having shaped and settled in a great degree the maritime laws of the United States. The whole subjects of salvage, general average, wages of seamen, freighting, contracts, charters, insurance, and prizes, owe the greater portion of their present condition to the honored Judge, who has made the law so perfect and complete on these points, that the best lawyers in New York regard it as a finished code. For the first twenty years of his connection with the District Court, there was never an appeal from his decisions, and his opinions in his own court on maritime questions, and in the Circuit Court on patents, have been uniformly upheld. Every kind of question arising out of the criminal law of the United States has been before him; he has tried cases of piracy and murder on the high-seas, and discharged the whole

criminal business of a large district. The war brought before him an entirely new class of questions, affecting national and international rights; but although beyond the age of three-score-years-and-ten, the Judge bent himself to the new tasks imposed, and, with a vigor, a perseverance, and an ability rarely equalled, met the great demand of the most trying period of our history, in a manner which was creditable to himself, and reflected honor upon the country he so patriotically and faithfully served. His decisions upon the neutrality laws, and his judgments on the slave-trade, are fine specimens of constitutional reasoning and argument. As a judge, the lawyers who have had the best opportunities of forming an opinion say that Judge Betts never had a superior, and doubt if he had an equal. His bearing toward members of the bar was always gentlemanly and courteous. His judgments were regarded as the best considered on record. He conducted a case with coolness, clearness, and deliberation, allowing counsel every latitude that might tend to throw light on the matter at issue. And it may be well doubted whether any man on the bench in this country ever possessed the same amount of judicial ability. He held the place he vacated and honored for the lengthened period of forty-four years, and up to the day of his death he was still the revered and upright judge of that important court, where he pronounced numerous decisions, which are regarded as text-books of federal jurisprudence, and in after-years will be looked upon as the highest and soundest efforts of legal skill and research. In social and domestic life he was always highly esteemed and beloved; his conversational powers were unusually fine, his acquaintance with literature and men extensive, his manners courteous, and his treatment of all, especially of the young, such as to endear him to those with whom he came in contact. He did not outlive his interest in passing events, but his mind was bright and vigorous, even after the bodily frame showed signs of weakness and decay. In May, 1867, having entered upon his eighty-first year, and feeling the infirmities of age, Judge Betts retired from the bench he had so long honored, and passed the brief remainder of his life in the comforts and privacies of his home at New Haven.

BOLIVIA, a republic in South America. Provisional President since the revolution of December, 1864, General Mariano Melgarejo. The limits of the republic have not yet been fixed, and the statements of the area therefore widely differ. A treaty concluded between Bolivia and Chili, on August 10, 1866, fixed the 24th degree S. latitude as the dividing line between these two republics. Another treaty for regulating the frontier between Bolivia and Brazil was concluded on March 27, 1867. By this compact Bolivia resigns her claims to the western bank of the river Paraguary, a territory of about 18,000 square leagues.

The area is now (Behm *Geogr. Jahrbuch*, vol. II, Gotha, 1868) estimated at 535,769 square miles. The population of the nine provinces, into which the republic was divided in 1858, was as follows:

La Paz.....	475,322	Veni.....	55,973
Cochabamba.....	349,891	Atacama....	5,273
Potosi.....	281,229		
Chuquisaca.....	223,668	Total....	1,744,351
Oruro.....	110,931	Indians.....	24,500
Santa Cruz.....	153,164		
Tarija.....	88,900	Total....	1,768,851

The capital, La Paz, has 76,372 inhabitants.

The army formerly consisted of 2,000 men, but was, in 1866, in consequence of the war with Spain, raised to 3,000 men, 500 of whom were cavalry. In 1867 the revenue was 2,471,000 piasters, and the expenditures 2,435,000 piasters. The revenue in 1865 was estimated at about 3,000,000 piasters, nearly one million and a half being a tribute from the Indians, 450,000 import duties, 315,000 export duties, and the remainder the proceeds of mines, stamp duties, etc. There is neither a direct tax nor a public debt, nor paper money. The imports are valued at about 5,570,000 piasters.

A new Congress was elected in 1868, the number of deputies elected by the several provinces being as follows: Chuquisaca, 8; La Paz, 8; Cochabamba, 6; Potosi, 8; Oruro, 4; Santa Cruz, 4; Tarija, 4; Cobija, 2; Veni, 2; Tarate, 6; Mejillones, 2. The new Congress met on August 6th, and confirmed all the acts of President Melgarejo, inclusive of the treaty of Bolivia. As some deputies (especially Señor Muñoz Cabrera) made, however, a violent opposition to the treaty, amidst the applause of the galleries, the Congress was dissolved at the point of the bayonet.

In September, President Melgarejo issued a decree extending the rights of citizenship to Americans. The articles of the decree are:

1. No American shall be considered a foreigner in Bolivia.

2. Every American, of whatever nationality he be, can obtain Bolivian citizenship by alone declaring in writing, in the presence of any of the prefects, his wish to settle in the republic. His name being inscribed in the civic register, the same prefect will extend him his citizenship papers.

3. Americans may in like manner freely exercise in the republic their liberal, scientific, literary or artistic professions, in all cases, on presenting their respective diplomas, credentials, or titles extended to them by competent and legalized authority, in proper form for its examination and acceptance by the national government.

4. The present decree shall be considered as confirming that of the 18th March, 1866.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs was directed to communicate both decrees to the governments of the American nations, soliciting at the same time the adoption of like measures to extend to the whole continent the privileges accorded.

By a decree of August 27th, a contract was made with Colonel George E. Church, engineer of New York, for the establishment of a "National Bolivian Navigation Company,"

which is to navigate by steamers and with other vessels the Bolivian rivers which are tributary to the Madeira, the principal affluent of the Amazon. The Government conceded in favor of the company the following privileges and rights:

1. In the populated ports it gives in property to the company one square mile of State lands, and at the points where new ports should be founded to facilitate commerce, according to the judgment of the company, a square of the same lands upon the river margins, which shall have two leagues front and two of depth, the company having the right to make that use of them which may be most to its interests.

2. The Government of Bolivia will pay to the company \$10,000 gold, the day upon which the first steamer moves upon the waters of the Mamore, as a premium offered by the Government in supreme decree of 1853.

3. The same Government concedes to the company the right to cut wood for burning, exportation, and other uses, in the forests which have no private owner, and that of collecting 8,000 head of horned cattle from the herds owned by the State in the department of the Beni—it being the obligation to make this collection in the method most to the advantage of the Government and the company.

4. The Government guarantees to the company the free exportation of the products of the country without paying duties or imposts of any class. The importation of merchandise and foreign effects will only pay half of the tariff of duties collected upon those imported by Cobija. One and the other privileges will continue for ten years, counting from the day upon which the navigation of the Madeira may be free from impediment by the clearing of the rapids, it being impossible to recover any class of imposts up to this time. This term of ten years expired, the Government can only levy upon the merchandise imported by the Madeira a duty inferior by one-third part to that recovered by Cobija, until the twenty-five years mentioned in the following article have expired.

BRADBURY, WILLIAM B., a musical teacher and composer, and, since 1854, one of the most successful piano manufacturers in the United States, born in York, Maine, in 1816; died in Montclair, N. J., January 7, 1868. Both his parents were well known as excellent singers, and from them he inherited that musical taste, the development of which has rendered his name a household word. Before he was fourteen, he had mastered every instrument that came in his way; but until 1830 he had never seen an organ or a piano. In that year he moved to Boston, where he formed the acquaintance of Dr. Lowell Mason and his coadjutor, George J. Webb, who at that time stood at the head of the musical celebrities of New England. In 1834 he was known as a practical organist, and six years later began teaching in New York under the most flattering auspices. His free singing-schools in this city and Brooklyn became very popular, and, on his concert nights, the old Tabernacle, between Franklin and Leonard Streets, on Broadway, was filled to overflowing. On these occasions, his performers, all children, numbered from five hundred to one thousand. These concerts gave Mr. Bradbury great notoriety, and secured him hosts of friends. He had many enemies, too, among members of his profession, and they

made more than one futile attempt to destroy his popularity, going so far at one time as to organize an association to oppose him. About this time he published his "Golden Chain," which had an immense sale, but was mercilessly criticised by his rivals, on account of a few trifling errors which it contained. These were corrected by the well-known composer, Hastings, who assisted Mr. Bradbury in the preparation of several other deservedly popular musical works. Among these were "The Shawm" and "The Jubilee." "The Key Note" and "The Temple Choir," both very popular, were among his later publications. During these many years of labor, Mr. Bradbury had not neglected his studies in the art which he so passionately loved; but, feeling that there was still much to learn, he went to Leipzig in 1847, where he received instruction from the best German masters. He studied harmony and composition with Hauptmann, vocal music with Boehme, the piano with Wenzel, and a first-class teacher superintended his practice on the organ. In 1854 he began in New York the manufacture of pianos, and these soon acquired a very high reputation for their excellent tone and perfection of workmanship. Meantime he was bringing out with great rapidity those juvenile collections of music which have made his name a household word all over the land. Among them were the "Golden Chain," "Golden Shower," "Golden Censer," "Golden Trio," and "Fresh Laurels," his last work. No collection of religious music ever had so extensive a sale as these books. More than three millions of copies of his musical works have been sold. His excessive labors induced pulmonary disease, and for two years previous to his death he had been in very feeble health.

BRAZIL, an empire in South America. Emperor, Pedro II., born December 2, 1825; succeeded his father, Pedro I., on April 7, 1831. The Emperor has no son. His oldest daughter, Princess Isabella, is married (since October, 1864) to Count d'Eu, grandson of the late king Louis Philippe of France. The second daughter, Princess Leopoldina, is married (since December, 1864) to the Duke Augustus of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Duke Augustus has two sons: Prince Pedro, born March 19, 1866; and Prince Augustus, born December 6, 1867.

A new ministry (Conservative) was appointed in July, 1868, composed of the following members: President and Minister of Finance, Senator Viscount de Itaboraay; Interior, Dr. Paulin Joseph Soarez de Souza; Justice, Dr. Joseph Martiniano de Alencar; Foreign Affairs, Senator Joseph Maria da Silva Paranhos; War, Senator Baron de Murityba; Navy, Senator Baron de Cotegipe; Public Works, Commerce, and Agriculture, Joachim Antão Fernandez Leão.

Minister of the United States in Brazil, in 1868, was J. Watson Webb (accredited October 21, 1861); Brazilian Minister at Washington,

Dominic Joseph Gonzalvez de Magalhães, appointed in 1867.

The area of Brazil is estimated at about 3,231,047 square miles. The population,* according to a recent work published by the Brazilian Government (*L'Empire de Brésil*, Rio de Janeiro, 1867), was 11,780,000, of whom 1,400,000 were negro slaves, and 500,000 Indians. The population of the capital, Rio de Janeiro, is estimated at 600,000.

In the budget for the years 1869-'70, the expenditure is estimated at 70,786,927 paper milreis (350 paper reis, or 180 silver reis, are equal to about 19 cents [gold]; 1 milreis means 1,000 reis), the revenue at 70,000,000 milreis; the deficit at 786,927 milreis. The chief source for the revenue are the customs. The external debt, on December 31, 1866, amounted to 381,189,950 milreis; the internal consolidated debt, on April 15, 1868, to 125,206,700 milreis.

The standing army, in 1867, consisted of 25,844 men. The strength of the army employed in the war against Paraguay was estimated, in April, 1868, at 42,998 men, of whom, however, 10,816 were reported sick. The total number of Brazilian troops forwarded to the war since the commencement was 84,219 (up to May 1st). The fleet, in 1868, was composed as follows: 1. *Iron-clads*, 17 afloat, 4 in course of construction. 2. Other armed vessels, 63. 3. Vessels not armed: 3 frigates, 2 corvettes, 1 brig, 1 transport. There are also (since the early part of 1868) twelve screw launches intended for the police of the Amazon. They are fifty feet long, draft three feet, and mount a thirty-two pound swivel forward. A fine steamer called the Arary had also come from England for the Amazonas Navigation Company, which steamer is 221 feet long, 26 beam, 10 hold, and of 739 tons burden.

The imports and exports of Brazil during the three years 1865-1867 were as follows (value expressed in milreis):

	Exports.	Imports.
1866-'67.....	156,900,000	143,800,000
1865-'66.....	157,000,000	138,100,000
1864-'65.....	141,100,000	131,600,000

Chiefly concerned in the foreign trade of Brazil, in 1867, were the following countries:

	Exports.	Imports.
Great Britain and dependencies....	37,300,000	53,800,000
United States.....	31,200,000	4,300,000
France.....	18,660,000	22,000,000
Argentine Republic	7,900,000	12,300,000
Portugal.....	4,300,000	5,600,000

The chief article of export is coffee, of which Rio de Janeiro alone, in 1867, exported 425,5 millions of pounds, valued at 87.8 millions of milreis.

The movement of shipping of the year 1866-'67 was as follows:

* The names of the twenty provinces into which Brazil is divided, with the name of the capital of each, and the free and slave population, are given in the *ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867.

FLAG.	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Foreign.....	3,439	1,245,214	2,429	1,496,274
Brazilian.....	255	43,570	206	47,703
	3,694	1,288,784	2,635	1,543,977
Coasting vessels under Brazilian flag.....	4,098	796,757	3,661	642,799

The port of Santos, which is the only port of foreign trade allowed to the province of São Paulo, rose in 1868 to the fourth rank as regards exportation, being exceeded only by Rio Janeiro, Bahia, and Pernambuco. In imports it would have the same rank, instead of the seventh, if it were not that six-sevenths of its imports of foreign goods come from Rio Janeiro, where the duties are paid, the bonded system not having been adopted in Brazil as yet. In the financial year of 1866-'67 the commerce of the port was as follows:

Exports of produce.....	\$3,057,000
Exports of produce coastwise.....	2,900,000
Exports of foreign goods coastwise...	30,085
Imports from abroad, direct.....	773,380
Imports from abroad, coastwise.....	4,477,680
Imports of produce coastwise.....	696,000
Total.....	\$11,934,145

The duties on these exports and imports amounted to \$490,000.

The General Assembly of Brazil was opened by the Emperor, on May 9th. The principal points of the home and foreign policy of the empire were thus referred to in the speech from the throne:

Public tranquillity has been maintained throughout the empire, an evident proof of the deep love of the people for the institutions which govern us. Brazil is at peace with the foreign powers, and seeks to cultivate their good relations. The war, to which we were provoked by the President of the Republic of Paraguay, is not yet ended. Since the successes announced in the speech with which I closed the legislative session of last year, glorious and important deeds, such as Potreira Ovelha, Tayi, the defence of Tuyuty, the passage of Humaita, and the taking of Establecimiento, and also the repulse of the boarding of the iron-clads, and the attack and occupation of Curupaity, and of a great part of the enemy's lines, have proved still more the value of our sea and land forces and those of our allies, and promise a brief and honorable termination to the war. I have again the pleasure to acknowledge that the Government has been aided by every Brazilian in the defending of the national honor, outraged by the President of Paraguay.

I feel deep sorrow in telling you that small-pox caused so considerable losses to the expeditionary column from the capital of Matto Grosso as to force it to retreat, and that the disease reaped a harvest of very many lives in that city and its neighborhood. The retreat of the column was signaled by the brilliant feat of Alegre, showing that the diminished number of Brazilians fighting in that province—a province well worthy of respect for its constancy in adversity—make up by courage and devotion for what is wanting to them in material resources. Cholera morbus, which, a short time ago, unhappily desolated Montevideo and the Argentine Republic, likewise made victims in our transports and stations, and some cases occurred also in our army. This plague reappeared at places in some of our provinces, but, thanks to Divine Providence, did not spread, and was in gen-

eral of a mild character, the public health returning in a little time to a satisfactory condition.

The Government of the United States of America again offered its gracious mediation for the reestablishment of peace with Paraguay. While thanking that nation, the Government of Brazil declared, however, in agreement with the allied republics, that the same reasons existing, strengthened by the late triumphs, which prevented acceptance of the first offer, a different procedure could not now be taken.

The empire celebrated with Bolivia, on the 25th of March, 1867, a treaty of friendship, boundaries, navigation, commerce, and extradition.

An agreement as to the meaning of the 9th article of the consular convention with Switzerland has been signed at Berne, with the purpose of preventing any dispute regarding the collection, administration, and liquidation of inheritances.

With the product of the new taxes the revenue of the empire exceeds the ordinary expenditure, and the estimates show a surplus. Notwithstanding this, economy is an unavoidable necessity, so much the more as the exigencies of the war require extraordinary expenditures, for which I hope you will empower the Government. The development of education and public instruction should be one of the principal objects of your watchfulness.

The municipal institution requires a reform based on the dictates of experience. The law of elections urgently demands a modification, in order that it may assure the liberty of vote. A law of recruitment and a military penal and practice code continue to be much-felt wants in our legislation, as it becomes indispensable to reform the law of December 3, 1841, of the national guard. Immigration calls for special solicitude, and the means of facile communications are equally worthy of particular care. The servile element has been an object of assiduous study, and at a convenient moment the Government will submit a suitable bill for your wisdom.

On July 11th, a difference occurred between the Emperor and the (Liberal) Zacharias ministry upon the question of the Emperor's selection of a Conservative instead of a Liberal as senator for the province of Rio Grande de Norte; the ministry resolved to resign, and, as it persisted in its determination, the resignation was finally accepted upon the 14th. The Emperor then instructed the Visconde de Itaboraahy, Conservative, to organize a ministry, and on the 16th the decrees of appointment were signed. (The names of the ministers have been given above.) On the 17th the programme of the new ministry was declared, acknowledging the need of some reforms, but postponing their consideration, and asking the Chamber of Deputies to proceed at once to vote the supplies, indispensable in the present condition of the Treasury. But a vote of want of confidence was at once proposed by Senhor José Bonifacio, and, after a short debate, in which the ministry declared that it would accept the motion as equivalent to a refusal to give supplies, it was carried in the same session by 85 to 10, all the Liberals uniting against the ministry. On Saturday, the 18th, the decree of dissolution was signed, and on Monday the Chamber of Deputies was formally dissolved. The new ministry dismissed all the Presidents (Governors) of States, Vice-Presidents, chiefs of police, and, in general, all public officers belonging to the Liberal party. Extraordinary efforts were made by the new ministry to carry the

election, and, in September, they were successful, the result being an overwhelming majority for the Conservatives.

General Caxias, the commander of the Brazilian troops in Paraguay, having refused to let the American gunboat *Wasp* go up the Paraguay River for Mr. Washburn, the American minister in Paraguay (*see PARAGUAY*), General Webb, the American minister in Brazil, on July 7th, demanded, first, an ample apology; second, a condemnation of the conduct of Caxias; third, free license for the *Wasp* to go up at once, threatening to close his diplomatic relations with Brazil if a satisfactory reply were not given by August 4th. The Brazilian Government complied with the demand, and friendly relations between the two Governments were restored. The repeated offer of the United States to mediate in the war against Paraguay was declined by the Brazilian Government.

The Conservative party, which has been in power since July, being opposed to freeing slaves and to taking any steps toward such an object, no further advance was made by the cause of emancipation. The (Liberal) Zacharias ministry were in favor of declaring all the births after a certain future date to be free, so as to get rid of slavery entirely when the generation then existing should be extinct. This matter, however, it did not intend to take in hand until the war was over and the army returned, so that, in case of any troubles through the excitement of the slaves or slave-owners, the means might be ready to repress the turbulence.

The war against Paraguay continued throughout the year. The levying of fresh troops led several times to riots, all of which were promptly suppressed. (On the progress of the war, *see PARAGUAY*.)

BREMEN, a republic belonging to the North-German Confederation. Burgomasters, Johann Daniel Meyer (1867-1871); President of the Senate for the year 1868, Arnold Duckwitz (1865-'69). Area, 74 square miles; population in 1867, 109,572 (in 1864, 104,091). Population of the city of Bremen, in 1867, 74,945 (in 1864, 70,692). In the budget for 1868, the revenue is estimated at 1,960,113 thalers, the expenditure at 2,286,557 thalers; deficit, 326,444 thalers. The public debt, in 1867, amounted to 12,066,394 thalers. In virtue of a convention concluded with Prussia, on June 27, 1867, the recruits of Bremen are incorporated with the Prussian army. The value of imports and exports of Bremen, in 1867 and 1866, as compared with the annual average of former periods, was as follows (value expressed in million thalers [gold]):

	Imports.	Exports.
Total for 1867	98,17	92,31
" " 1866	89,22	80,33
Annual average 1862-'66	73,55	66,89
" " 1857-'61	66,95	61,19
" " 1852-'56	50,34	45,27
" " 1847-'51	32,06	27,72

The merchant navy, at the close of the year 1867, consisted of 287 vessels, together of 115,587 lasts (one last = 4,000 lbs.).

The movement of emigration from the port of Bremen, since 1854, has been as follows:

	Emigrants.	Vessels.
1867.....	73,971	226
1866.....	61,877	179
1861-'65 (annual average).....	20,397	126
1856-'60.....	32,450	183
1855.....	31,550	174
1854.....	76,875	362
Total since 1854.....	528,595	2,494

BREWSTER, Sir DAVID, K. H., F. R. S. L. and E., LL. D., D. C. L., associate member of the Imperial Institute of France, etc., a distinguished British physicist and author, who had done more than any other man of his time to popularize science, born at Jedburgh, Scotland, December 11, 1781; died at Allerly, near Melrose, February 10, 1868. His father, who was rector of the Grammar School of Jedburgh, had destined him as well as his three brothers for the ministry, but his love for natural science was so strong, that he chose to devote himself to it rather than to theology, though all his brothers had followed the paternal wishes. He was educated at the University of Edinburgh, where he enjoyed the society as well as the instructions of Robinson, Playfair, and Dugald Stewart. Early in his twentieth year he commenced those researches into the composition and influence of light which were continued for many years, and which were eventually to make his name so famous. In 1807 his remarkable researches had caused the University of Aberdeen to confer upon him the degree of LL. D., and in 1808 he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. In that year also, at the age of twenty-seven, he projected and commenced that great work, the *Edinburgh Cyclopædia*, of which he continued the editor till its completion in 1830, and in which he first published the results of his researches on light, and kindred topics. In 1813, he published a "Treatise on New Philosophical Instruments," in which, after describing various optical instruments used in the arts and sciences, he detailed some of his important experiments in light and colors. He commenced also about this time his contributions of important papers to the Royal Society of London, two of which are particularly noticeable, that "On some Properties of Light," and that on "Polarization of Light by Reflection." The latter gained him the Copley Medal, and led to his election as a fellow of the Society. In 1816 he invented the popular scientific toy, the "Kaleidoscope," which brought him fame but no pecuniary reward. In 1818, he received from the Royal Society of London the Rumford Medal, for further "Discoveries relating to the Polarization of Light," and soon after twice received the Keith Medals from the Royal

Society of Edinburgh, of which he was for many years Vice-President. He had already (in 1816) received half the French Institute's physical prize bestowed for two of the most important discoveries made in Europe during the two preceding years. In 1819, in conjunction with Professor Jamieson, he undertook the editing and publication of the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal*, which he subsequently continued alone, through sixteen volumes, under the title of the *Edinburgh Journal of Science*. He was also, for many years and until his death, one of the editors of the *London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Philosophical Magazine*. In 1825 he was elected a corresponding member of the Institute of France; in 1830 he received the Royal Medal from the Royal Society of London, for his further discoveries in the polarization of light, and the same year received from William IV. the Guelphic Order, and the following year was knighted. From 1827 to 1833 he was engaged in investigations on the best methods of illumination for light-houses, and published a treatise on the subject, which led to the great improvements that have been made in light-houses since that time. In 1833 he was chosen principal of the United Colleges of St. Leonard's and St. Salvator at St. Andrew's, which position he continued to hold till his death. In 1859 he was chosen as one of the eight foreign associates of the Institute of France, and, the same year, Principal and Vice-Chancellor of Edinburgh University. He was one of the prime movers in the organization of the "British Association for the Advancement of Science," and attended its annual sessions very regularly till within the last two years of his life. In 1857 he presided over its session at Edinburgh. Though not the discoverer of the principle of the stereoscope, he was the first to reduce it to practical uses. His improvements upon the construction of microscopes and telescopes were numerous and of great value to science. Among his other contributions to practical science were the initiation of the Bude Light, and his demonstration of the utility of dioptric lenses and of zones in light-houses. Few men were as familiar as he with the profoundest secrets of natural science, yet no man of his time did as much to popularize it, and excite a thirst for scientific knowledge in the hearts of even the illiterate. His works on the "Kaleidoscope," "The Stereoscope," "Natural Magic," "Martys of Science," "More Worlds than One" (a reply to Dr. Whewell's "Plurality of the Worlds"), his admirable "Life of Newton," and that long succession of brilliant and charming articles on scientific subjects in the *North British Review*, and *Popular Science Magazine*, gave evidence of his disposition in this respect. He retained his intellectual and much of his physical vigor to the close of his life, and, though in his eighty-sixth year, came forward in the summer of 1867 and took an active part

in exposing the literary forgery of the pretended correspondence between Sir Isaac Newton and Pascal. Sir David was the last as he was one of the ablest of the great physicists of the last generation.

BRIDGES. *Quincy Railway Bridge.*—This bridge, crossing the Mississippi, and connecting with the Chicago, Burlington, Quincy, and the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railways, having just been completed, was opened for general traffic on the 7th of November. The design and execution were intrusted to Mr. T. C. Clarke, of Chicago. The part of the bridge crossing the main branch of the river, consists of two draw spans of 180 feet each, 11 spans of 157 feet each, 2 spans of 250 feet, 3 of 200 feet, 1,400 feet of embankment and trestle-work, and a smaller bridge 613 feet long, divided into one draw span 160 feet long, and four openings of 85 feet each, making the total length of the bridge and embankment from one railway to the other nearly two miles. The bridge is elevated 10 feet above high-water, and 20 feet above low-water mark, and the iron superstructure, on the Pratt-truss system, is supported on stone piers and abutments. The work was completed with unusual expedition, the first stone having been laid on September 25, 1867, and the bridge finished on the 5th of August, 1868. The total cost was \$1,500,000.

The bridge is so proportioned that, under the greatest loads, the utmost strain that can be brought upon it is 7,500 tons to the inch, the ultimate strength being 60,000 lbs. to the inch. In selecting the iron employed, all bars were tested up to a strain of 23,600 lbs. to the inch. The average quality of the material resisted a tension of 28,000 lbs. to the inch before a permanent set took place; some of the specimens broke under a strain of 80,000 lbs. The bridge before it was opened was subject to the following tests: Three of the heaviest locomotives upon the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, weighing together 300,000 lbs., were coupled together, and placed upon each of the 250-foot spans, in succession, and the deflection was accurately observed. The maximum deflection under this load was $2\frac{2\frac{2}{3}}{1000}$ inches, being less than one-sixteenth of the previous calculation. The same load was then placed upon a span 157 feet; the deflection in this case was $1\frac{2\frac{7}{8}}{1000}$ inches. The three locomotives, still coupled together, were then run backward and forward over the 157-foot span, at rates varying from 10 to 16 miles an hour. The deflection produced was $1\frac{4\frac{0}{6}}{1000}$ inches, or $\frac{3}{10}$ of an inch more than was produced by the load when at rest. In every case the structure resumed its form when the engines were withdrawn, no permanent set being visible. On the 157-foot span the load applied was equivalent to a stress of 9,000 lbs. per square inch on the wrought iron, and 10,200 lbs. on the cast iron, or about one quarter more than the passage of the heaviest freight trains over the bridge can produce.

Railway Bridge at India Point, Providence.

—Soundings for this bridge were made to ascertain the nature of the river-bed, the depth of water, etc., in June, 1868. A good solid bottom was found, consisting of gravel, covered with a layer of mud, on top of which is a crust of oyster-shells, forming the river-bed. In the places where the piles were to be sunk, no obstructions were discovered, with the exception of the stump of an old pile, which was removed by the divers. On account of the soft, muddy layer of several feet in thickness, which covers the solid bottom, the piles were driven from temporary platforms. They were constructed of piles driven in four rows, about 20 feet into the bed of the river, and about 9 feet apart; these piles were capped with hard pine, about 13 inches square, and then covered with spruce plank. The permanent piles are arranged in clusters of 12 for the 2 piers west of the draw, and also 2 groups under the draw contain the same number. The other groups, five in number, contain 9 piles each. The piles were driven in the following manner: the first pile driven in was sharpened on all sides, the bevel commencing about 18 inches above the lower end, and the end left about 4 inches square; all the remaining piles, that presented only one side to those already driven, were sharpened only on one side, and the corner piles and those that were in contact with other piles were sharpened upon the two opposite sides. They are encased in cast-iron cylinders driven over them, the space between the piles and cylinders being firmly packed with concrete; the diameter of the cylinders west of the draw is 6 feet; the other 5 feet. The castings were made four and a half feet long, one and an eighth inches thick, having a flange four and five-eighths inches wide. The weight of the sections, as they came from the moulds, was, for those six feet in diameter, 5,459 pounds, and those five feet in diameter, 4,360 pounds. The rough castings were covered with a coating of cement, which attached itself firmly to the rough scale, thus forming a solid, durable covering; the sections were then firmly bolted together and carried by a scow to the platform, upon which they were hoisted, and from there forced down over the piles by means of a powerful screw-press. Notwithstanding the immense pressure brought to bear upon the cylinders, they were unable to penetrate the solid crust of oyster shells at the river-bed; the crust was then broken up by driving piles all around, and the cylinder again lowered; its weight alone, this time, carried it about four feet into the crust, and upon piling about ten tons of iron together, with continued rocking (accomplished by means of levers), the cylinder was finally forced home; all the others were sunk in a similar manner.

The capping of the piers west of the draw consists of yellow pine, that of the draw is formed of oak; the pier upon which the east end of the draw rests consists of granite,

twenty-two feet long, and six feet thick, resting on piles driven to a depth of thirty feet below the river-bed. The superstructure is of the ordinary form of Howe truss.

Bridge over the Alleghany.—The bridge of the Pittsburg, Fort Wayne, and Chicago Railroad, over the Alleghany River, is now completed. An interesting account of its construction we extract from the *Pittsburg Gazette*: The original superstructure for double track was of wood, on the Howe-truss plan, with arches for additional strength, and consisted of seven spans of various lengths, being in all 1,172 feet long. On account of the peculiar form and location of the company's freight-yard at Pittsburg, an additional pier 101 feet long was built on the wharf, under the first span on the Pittsburg side, and the abutment extended parallel with the river, along Duquesne Way, to 148 feet in length. By this arrangement the bridge opens gradually like a fan toward the Pittsburg freight-yard, being at the narrowest part, next to the main span, 55 feet in width, and extending out for 176 feet in length, to the point where it connects with the yard, where the width is 138 feet. For symmetry and economy in the construction, another pier was also built on the wharf at the Alleghany City end span of the bridge. At both of these end spans the tracks are now supported from below by girders, made entirely of plate and angle iron. The two western spans have each three girders 89 feet in length and 6 feet 6 inches deep, to support the double line of railway, the middle one being made proportionately stronger. On the two eastern spans, which form the above-mentioned addition to the yard, eighteen iron-plate girders, varying in length from 86 to 93 feet, all 6 feet 1 inch deep, are placed, distributed according to the tracks they are intended to support. The five large spans over the main part of the Alleghany River are built for a double line of railway, with one projecting footpath on the outside, consisting of three main girders, one on each side and one in the centre, between the ways. The average length of the spans is 153½ feet in the clear, with a bearing of 5 feet on each pier. The depth of the girders is 19 feet. The clear width between the outside and the central girders is 14 feet, except the south part of the first main span, where it widens from 14 feet at one end to 32 feet at the other. The top and bottom sections of the girders are in the form of the letter T; the cross-sectional area of the top chord consists of 4 thicknesses of iron laid one over the other, well riveted, and forming together a plate 2½ inches thick, and 24 inches wide in the centre part of the girder, and diminishing gradually to about two-thirds its cross-section at the ends, where it rests on the piers. In addition to which there are 2 large angle-irons 5 inches by 3½ × ¾ inch to ½ inch thick, and two vertical bars 12 inches by ½ inch on the inside between the angle-iron, running along the centre of the horizontal

plates which form the top and bottom portion of the girders, to which they are attached by two of the angle-irons, the other two serving to join the flanges to the bars, which form the vertical web. The cross-sectional area of the bottom chords consists of three thicknesses of iron, well riveted, forming together a plate, in the centre part $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick, and 27 inches wide, the balance of the construction being similar to the top chord. The vertical web is composed of lattice-work, which is framed with two sets of bars six inches wide, crossing each other and inclined to the top and bottom at an angle of 48 degrees, and forming a network, the distance of the crossing apart being 2 feet 1 inch between the centres of the rivets, measured along the bars, the thicknesses of the bars increasing from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch at the centre part, to $\frac{3}{8}$ inch at the ends of the girders. They are secured at their crossings by two rivets. The lattice-work is stiffened by vertical angle-irons fixed double on both sides, at distances of about 8 feet apart. The central girder has about one-third more iron in the cross-section than the outside girders. The principle of the construction is known as the latticed-girder plan with vertical stiffenings.

Bridge Strains.—Mr. W. Airy has invented and applied a very novel and ingenious method of determining bridge strains. The problem was on the determination of the strains on every one of the intermediate bars connecting the top and bottom members of a bowstring bridge as ordinarily constructed, the said strains being those due to various arrangements of weights upon the bridge. To solve this problem practically, Mr. Airy has availed himself of the sense of hearing, or rather of comparison of musical sounds. It is well known that a steel wire, if stretched and sounded, will give forth a note dependent on its weight, length, and tension. If, therefore, two wires of the same steel, and of equal lengths, and at equal tensions, are sounded, they will give forth the same note, and, conversely, if they give forth the same musical note, it is to be inferred that the tensions are equal. In order to turn this principle to account, a model of a bowstring girder was constructed with great care, of which the intermediate ties were of thin steel wire. If, therefore, a load were hung from the string, these ties would at once go into tension, and each one, if sounded, would give forth a musical note due to its length and tension. To determine this tension, a wooden frame was constructed, and in this frame was hung a wire of the same steel as the ties; a sliding bridge was provided by which the wire could be cut off to any required length, by merely leaning against the bridge, and a small scale-pan was fastened to the end of the wire. This frame was moved close up to the model, and the wire in the frame being cut off by the bridge to the exact length of any one of the ties, the scale-pan was gradually loaded with weights till the

musical note of the monochord exactly coincided with the note of the tie under comparison. In this condition, since the two wires are of the same steel and of the same length, and give forth the same musical note, their tensions are equal, and the weight in the scale-pan is the tension of the tie. In this way every tension was determined separately and independently. Mr. Airy reckons that he determined all the tensions on his model to the extent of $\frac{1}{1000}$ th part of the whole tension of each.

An ingenious artifice was employed to eliminate the unavoidable errors of original adjustment of the wires, and at the same time to obtain expressions for the strains of *thrust* as well as strains of tension; it is clear that there must be errors of original adjustment of the wires, for, even if it were possible so to adjust the lengths of the wires that each should have the strain due to a certain disposition of load, yet this very condition assumes that the problem is already solved, and that we know the exact strain that each wire ought to have; consequently, the determination of the strains is throughout a differential process: a certain load is laid upon the model, and each wire acquires a degree of tension, the precise amount of which is determined by the method of comparison with the monochord; these tensions are booked, and an additional load is then introduced; this will cause an alteration of the tensions on every wire, and the tensions of all are again taken. The differences of the tensions, before and after the introduction of the additional load, are formed for every wire, and these represent the strains on the wires due to the additional load only. The same process determines also the strains of *thrust*, for thrust is but negative tension, and if the tension of a wire, after the additional load is introduced, be less than it was previously, the difference is negative, and represents a thrust strain of that amount on that wire. Mr. Airy also discovered a ready method for throwing *all* the wires into tension, by a uniform distribution of the preliminary load along the whole length of the model.

BROOKE, Sir JAMES, K. O. B., D. C. L., Rajah of Sarawak, and Governor of Labuan, an English knight-errant, philanthropist, and governor, whose love of adventure made his career one of the most remarkable of modern times, born in Bandel, Zillah Hoogly, Bengal, in 1803; died at Burrator, Devon, June 11, 1868. His father, who was a government officer of considerable wealth and prominence, returned to England when James was a child, and he received his education there. His father's influence secured him a cadetship in the East-Indian army, and he soon distinguished himself by his bravery and daring. He was in most of the engagements of the Burmese War, under Sir Archibald Campbell, but in the storming of a stockade, in 1826, received a severe gunshot wound in the chest, and was forced to return to England for surgical treat-

ment. Having recovered, he was ordered to report for duty in India, but, his furlough being extended, he travelled for a time on the Continent, and, being shipwrecked on his voyage to India, did not reach headquarters till some time after its expiration. Finding that he had thus forfeited his position in the army, he resigned, and sailed from Calcutta, for China, in 1830. Observing the condition of the islands of the Indian Archipelago, and the prevalence of piracy there, he formed the determination to attempt the improvement of their condition. Returning to Europe in 1834, after the death of his father, he purchased one of the yachts of the Royal Yacht squadron, and, selecting a crew with great care, whom he drilled thoroughly in a preliminary cruise in the Mediterranean, he sailed from London, in October, 1838, for the East. Arriving at Sarāwak, a province on the northwest coast of Borneo, he found Muda Hassim, the uncle of the Sultan of Borneo, and acting Rajah of the province, carrying on an unequal contest with rebel tribes from the interior, who descended in large bands upon his territory to plunder and lay it waste. He promptly offered his assistance, and, with his guns and trained troops, soon punished the rebels so severely that they were glad to make peace. Muda Hassim at once prompted his nephew to offer the Englishman the rajahship and make him absolute governor of the province. Mr. Brooke accepted the appointment, and, selecting a council of intelligent Dyaks to aid him in administering the government, he commenced a series of reforms which, carried out through many years, entitled him to be regarded as the greatest benefactor of the native population of Borneo. He would not suffer the people of Sarāwak to be taxed for his support, but maintained himself upon his own income, and the rewards paid by the British Government for the suppression of piracy. His people had been a nation of pirates, but, by attaching the native rulers to himself by his astute measures for their welfare, and by making war upon pirates a pastime, he succeeded, in a few years, in clearing the entire archipelago of its bands of freebooters. He accustomed his people to the strict execution of justice, suffered no bribes to be given, was as accessible to the lowest and humblest of his subjects as to the mightiest; encouraged industry, commerce, and such manufactures as they were capable of producing, and so won the love of his people, that they almost paid him divine honors. The jealousy of some of the officials of the East India Company was excited, by the independence of the Rajah; they coveted his territory, and desired to squeeze from the natives the revenue which Rajah Brooke had so nobly refused, and hence they were loud in their clamors against him, to the English Government, to which he was really not responsible. Waiving his rights in the matter, however, Mr. Brooke visited England, in 1847, and courted the most thorough

investigation of his conduct. This resulted in a complete approval, in his receiving the honor of being created Knight Commander of the Order of the Bath, and a baronetcy, and of his appointment as Governor of the island of Labuan, near Sarāwak (which had been purchased by the British Government), with a salary £2,000. He still retained his office as Rajah of Sarāwak. He returned to his Dyaks and prosecuted, with even more zeal than before, his measures for their improvement and elevation. The port of Sarāwak, which at his first visit contained but 1,000 inhabitants, had risen, under his management, to a population of 25,000, and its exports from £25,000 to more than £300,000. He compiled laws, coined money, made roads, established schools, raised a regular revenue, and provided for the security of persons and property, and the strict administration of justice. But his enemies were still unsatisfied. Taking advantage of a change of administration, they procured his removal from the governorship of Labuan, thwarted his projects for making the ports of Borneo free to British vessels, and professed the utmost horror at the strictness of his rule over the lawless and thievish tribes of the interior, and the Chinese pirates, who began again to make their appearance on the coast of Borneo. The attachment of his people was strikingly manifested in 1857, when he was suddenly attacked in his house, at night, by a band of about 4,000 Chinese pirates and opium-smugglers, who hated him for his interference with their nefarious business. They burned his house, destroyed his gardens, and committed terrible havoc with his property, and he was compelled to save his own life by swimming. In the early morning, however, he had collected his faithful Dyaks, who were almost frantic with grief for the losses which the Chinese had inflicted upon him, and, leading them in person, attacked the Chinese, defeated them in several successive fights, and drove them into the jungle, with a loss of over 2,000 killed. The next year he returned to England again, and though a public subscription was made, amounting to a large sum, to reimburse his losses at Sarāwak, yet the bitter attacks made upon him by his enemies in Parliament distressed him, and probably induced a paralytic attack, from which he suffered that year. He made his residence thenceforward in Burrator, Devon, but in 1861 made two voyages to Borneo, for the purpose of suppressing an insurrection, and settling the government, which he afterward left in charge of his nephew, though he retained the title and authority of Rajah till his death. Portions of his journals have been published, and also "The Private Letters of Sir James Brooke, K. C. B., from 1838 to 1853," edited by J. C. Temples, Esq., in three vols., London, 1853.

BROUGHAM, HENRY, Lord BROUGHAM AND VAUX, a British statesman and reformer, Lord

Chancellor of England 1830-1834, born in Edinburgh, September 19, 1778; died in Cannes, France, May 9, 1868. His father, Henry Brougham, was the descendant of an ancient family in Westmoreland, and his mother, Eleonora Syme, was a niece of Robertson the historian. Young Brougham was afforded excellent advantages of education, receiving his early training in the Edinburgh High School, and being transferred at an early age to the University. He was particularly fond of mathematical studies, and at the age of eighteen or nineteen communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh three mathematical papers which possessed such merit as to be published in the Society's Transactions. He was, even at that age, a proficient in the highest branches of mathematical science; and late in life he often avowed the opinion that he had mistaken his calling; that he should have devoted his life to mathematical studies, and that in them he might have surpassed all previous mathematicians. After taking his first degree at the University, he spent some time in travelling on the Continent, and in 1800 was admitted to the Scotch bar. He became about this time a member of the "Speculative Club," an association for the discussion of metaphysical and political questions, and was then brought into intimacy with Jeffrey, Horner, and Sydney Smith, with whom in 1802 he participated in the establishment of the *Edinburgh Review*, to which from its commencement he was a constant contributor, and the writer of some of its most powerful and caustic articles. So versatile were his talents, and so wide the range of his knowledge, that no subject came amiss to him. He was equally at home in physical and mathematical science, history, biography, literary criticism, and politics, and even plunged into the more recondite investigations of the medical and surgical professions. With two classes of topics, however, he did not interfere, theology and poetry. For neither of these had he any predilection. He displayed marked ability as an advocate, but his known liberal opinions embittered the Tories, who were largely in the majority, against him, and the character he had acquired for eccentricity and indiscretion prevented his attaining a large practice, except in the unremunerative work of the criminal courts. In 1807, he was retained as one of the counsel in the case of the disputed succession of the dukedom of Roxburgh before the House of Lords. His argument in this case was one of his finest efforts, and attracted the attention of the nation to the eloquent young advocate, who, yet under thirty years of age, could bring such learning, research, and legal ability to such a cause. Encouraged by the warmth of his reception in London, and despairing of any speedy success in Scotland, Brougham now resolved to remove to the metropolis, and was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1808. He rose rapidly in his profession, and soon acquired a large and lucrative

practice in the common law courts, and in the northern circuit. He was employed in the winter of 1809-'10 by some Liverpool merchants to bring their grievances before the House of Commons, and ask for the repeal of the Orders in Council, and in his advocacy of their cause displayed such eloquence and legal ability, that he attracted public notice, and became a distinguished favorite of the leading Whigs, who caused his election to Parliament the same year for the pocket borough of Camelford. In Parliament his vehemence in debate, his aggressive zeal, his caustic wit, and unsparing sarcasm, combined with a remarkable and convincing eloquence, made him a welcome and valued addition to the Whig force, and a formidable opponent to the Tories. He associated himself with the most advanced Whigs, and proved a valuable recruit to Wilberforce and Clarkson, who had been, for years, struggling against the slave-trade. Within a few months after entering Parliament, he had carried the first public measure he proposed, that of making the slave-trade a felony. He was unceasing in his attacks upon the measures of the Tory Government, and in 1812 succeeded in carrying the repeal of the obnoxious Orders in Council. He had also successfully defended Leigh Hunt, the poet-editor, against a libel prosecution instituted by the Government. He had advocated Catholic emancipation, reform in the government of India, and the abolition of flogging in the army. At the general election in 1812, he boldly contested (in company with another Whig) the membership for Liverpool, against Mr. Canning and his Tory associate. But the great Tory minister was too strong in Liverpool to be beaten, and Brougham and his friend were defeated. In a subsequent canvass for a seat from Scotland, he was also defeated, and remained out of Parliament till 1816, when he was returned for Winchelsea, and again became an opposition leader. He signalized his return to the House of Commons also by a movement of inquiry into the state of education of the poor in the metropolis, which he followed, in 1818, by procuring the appointment of a commission to inquire into the abuses of the public charitable foundations of the kingdom connected with education. These efforts for the improvement of the schools and the establishment of a system of national education were never intermitted until the end sought was gained. He had acquired by this time also a high reputation as an advocate in the defence of persons prosecuted for libel or other offences by the crown. His most famous appearance in this capacity was in 1820 and 1821, when, associated with Lord Denman, he undertook the defence of Queen Caroline against the charges of the King, before the House of Lords. Both the eminent counsel knew that the result would be their exclusion for years to come from all professional advancement; but Brougham's defence was bold, able, eloquent,

and effective, and greatly endeared him to the people, whose sympathies were on the side of her majesty. For the next ten years (1820-1830) he was the popular idol, and he used his power wisely and well. He pressed, persistently, his scheme of national education, though for a long time in vain; was active in procuring the establishment of the London University, in 1825, and projected and established the first Mechanics' Institute, and the "Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge," in 1827. In Parliament he devoted his energies to the promotion of law reform, the abolition of colonial slavery, and of the corporation and test acts. Early in 1830 he resigned his seat for Winchester, but was immediately returned for Knaresborough, and became the leader in the House of the Reform party. In the dissolution which followed the resignation of the Tory Cabinet, Brougham was chosen a member of the House from the county of York, mainly, as he believed, for his powerful attack upon slavery in that year, and on the formation of the Grey ministry the same year (1830) was made Lord Chancellor, and elevated to the peerage. He remained in office till 1834, when, with the remainder of the cabinet, he resigned, and never subsequently took office. The Reform Bill was carried through by his zealous and persistent efforts, which extended almost to positive coercion of the King into the granting permission, if necessary, for the creation of a sufficient number of new peers to carry the measure through the House of Lords. Since his resignation of the chancellorship, Lord Brougham had maintained an independent position in the House of Lords, criticising freely the measures of all parties, and advocating with great strenuousness, and a fair measure of success, law reform, and the perfecting of the system of national education. Of late years, his temper, never of the best, had seemed to become soured, and he was, except on rare occasions, morose, peevish, and dictatorial, to such a degree that many of his friends were only restrained from alienation of feeling toward him by the recollection of his great services in the past. As an orator, Lord Brougham was, in his day, inferior only to Canning. Through his whole career he was a rapid and voluminous writer. His contributions to literature and science occupy many volumes, and include a very wide range of topics, in all of which he seemed equally at home. They are, however, with some exceptions, more remarkable for their rapid comprehension and clear nervous exposition of the subjects of which they treat, than for any new truths or original discoveries which they enunciate, and were therefore rather of transient than enduring interest. Abundant literary honors were heaped upon him. He was chosen Lord Rector of Glasgow University, President of University College, London, member of the Institute of France, Chancellor of the University of Edinburgh, and D. C. L. of Oxford. His residence for many years past, when not in

attendance upon Parliament, was at Cannes, on the Mediterranean, in the south of France.

BROWN, Rev. JOHN NEWTON, D. D., a Baptist clergyman, theological professor, and author, born in New London, Conn., June 29, 1803; died in Germantown, Pa., May 15, 1868. He removed with his parents to Hudson, N. Y. during his childhood. After obtaining an academical education, he entered Hamilton Literary and Theological Institution (now Madison University), and graduated with honor in 1823, and soon after was settled as a preacher and pastor, at Buffalo, N. Y., and subsequently at Malden, Mass., and Exeter, N. H. Not long after his removal to Exeter, in 1828, from undue exposure to severe cold, he laid the foundation of a pulmonary disease which tortured him for forty years. In 1833 he removed to Boston to prepare his *Encyclopædia of Religious Knowledge*, a work of great merit, and involving extensive research, and after its completion returned to Exeter and resumed his pastorate. In 1838 he was chosen Professor of Theology in the Literary and Theological Institution at New Hampton, N. H. Here he remained for six years with constantly-increasing reputation and success as a theological instructor, when the complete failure of his health made a removal to a warm climate his only chance for life. By a residence of somewhat more than a year in Georgia, his health was so far restored that he accepted the pastorate of a church in Lexington, Va., where he remained four years. In 1849 he was appointed Editorial Secretary of the American Baptist Publication Society, and in the preparation of its works for the press, in editorial labors in connection with the *Christian Chronicle* and the *National Baptist*, and the preparation or revision of numerous religious works, he spent the remainder of his life. He was often a great sufferer, but had so far gained the ascendancy over the almost constant pain which afflicted him that he rarely intermitted his labors in consequence, and the amount of literary work he performed was enormous. The Publication Society's editions of Fuller's and Bunyan's works were carefully edited and annotated by him, as were many smaller works of the society. He had also edited and annotated with great care Fleetwood's "Life of Christ." But his great work, which unhappily he did not live to complete, was an elaborate history of the Baptist denomination, on which he had been engaged for many years.

BRUNSWICK, a duchy belonging to the North-German Confederation. Duke, Wilhelm I., born April 25, 1806; succeeded his brother, Duke Karl, in 1830. The area is 1,425 square miles; population, in 1867, 303,401 (in 1864, 292,708). The capital, Brunswick, had 50,502, and Wolfenbüttel, 10,114 inhabitants. The ducal house will become extinct on the death of the present Duke. The legislative power is vested in one Chamber, consisting of forty-three members. The budget for 1868 estimates

the revenue and expenditures at 2,480,000 thalers each. The public debt in 1866 amounted to 14,913,796 thalers. The army is organized on the Prussian system, and consists of four thousand eight hundred and fifty-seven infantry and cavalry, and five hundred and two artillery. (*See GERMANY.*)

BUCHANAN, JAMES, LL. D., President of the United States from 1857 to 1861, born in Stony Batter, Franklin County, Pa., April 23, 1791; died at Wheatland, Lancaster County, Pa., June 1, 1868. He was of Scotch-Irish descent, his father being an emigrant (of Scotch-Irish family), from County Donegal, Ireland, in 1783; and his mother, though born in Pennsylvania, being from an Irish Presbyterian family. His early training at home had so thoroughly qualified him for a college course, that he graduated with high honors at Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., at the age of eighteen. He immediately commenced the study of law, and in 1812, when but twenty-one years of age, was admitted a member of the Lancaster bar. Soon after (during the War of 1812), when Baltimore was in peril from the British troops, which had burned Washington, Mr. Buchanan, with many of his fellow-citizens, volunteered as a private soldier to go to the defence of the threatened city, but the danger had passed before their arrival, and their services were not required. He rose rapidly into a large and lucrative practice as a lawyer, his knowledge of the law, his bland and courteous manners, and his tact and eloquence as an advocate, contributing greatly to his success. His name occurs oftener in the Law Reports of the State, between 1812 and 1831, than that of any other lawyer. At the age of forty he retired from his profession, with an ample competence, and, except in a single instance, never pleaded another cause. In 1814 he was elected a member of the Pennsylvania Legislature, and, though a Federalist, voted and acted for the vigorous prosecution of the war. He was reelected in 1815, and in 1820 was chosen a member of Congress from the Lancaster district, and reelected four times. At the close of his fifth term, in 1831, he declined a reelection.

During these ten years of service in the national Legislature, Mr. Buchanan supported the Federal authority; opposed the bankrupt law; favored a tariff for revenue, with incidental protection only; discouraged entangling alliances with Mexico and the South American republics, and earnestly protested against the island of Cuba falling into the hands of any European power, except Spain, on account of its strategic importance to the United States. In the Twenty-first Congress (1829-'31) he was chairman of the Judiciary Committee. In 1831 Mr. Buchanan was appointed by President Jackson minister to Russia, but held the post only two years. On his return, in 1833, he was chosen United States Senator from Pennsylvania. He continued in the Sen-

ate twelve years, and during that period was regarded as one of the principal and most trusted leaders of the Democracy. He took the lead in the efforts to stifle the agitation of the subject of slavery, when it first came up in the Senate, and was consistent in his adherence to the pro-slavery power through his whole subsequent life. He favored General Jackson's policy with regard to the French indemnity; supported Mr. Benton's famous expunging resolutions; defended the right of resident aliens to the elective franchise on the question of the admission of new States; opposed the banking schemes of John Tyler; advocated the preëmption rights of settlers on the public lands; and earnestly supported the annexation of Texas in 1845. He entered Mr. Polk's Cabinet, in 1845, as Secretary of State, and during his administration effected the settlement of the Northwestern boundary dispute, though not without serious menaces of war with Great Britain, and influenced, very greatly, Mr. Polk's policy in the Mexican War. At the close of Mr. Polk's administration, Mr. Buchanan retired to private life. During the administration of President Taylor, and its continuation under President Fillmore, he held no office; but, on the accession of Mr. Pierce to the presidency, he appointed Mr. Buchanan minister to the court of St. James, where he continued until April, 1856, when he resigned and returned to the United States. His career as minister to England was creditable to him, and he well maintained, at that court, the dignity of the nation he represented. The Ostend Conference of the American ministers in Europe, favorable to the purchase of Cuba, was held at Ostend and Aix-la-Chapelle, during his residence in England, and was called at his suggestion.

In July, 1856, nearly three months after his return from England, Mr. Buchanan was nominated by the Democratic party for the presidency, and, in November following, elected over Colonel Fremont and ex-President Fillmore, the opposing candidates. He was regarded, by many men of all parties, as a safe, prudent, though perhaps a somewhat timid man, and in the exciting questions which had grown up in the preceding administration in regard to the Fugitive-Slave Law, the compromise measures, popular sovereignty, and the perplexing Kansas imbroglio, it was hoped that his prudence and tact would prove available in quieting the national agitation. His position was one of great difficulty. There was violent excitement, liable at any moment to break out in open hostility, between the North and the South; and though he did all in his power to gain and retain the good-will of the South, with which he had always been disposed to identify himself, he was not fully trusted by either party. John Brown's raid caused him great trouble; and, though he attempted to put it down with the strong hand, his efforts did not satisfy his Southern friends, while they

greatly displeased the North. When, in the autumn and winter of 1860-'61, it became evident that Mr. Lincoln's election would be followed by the uprising of the Southern leaders, and that a civil war would probably ensue, Mr. Buchanan did all in his power to avert the conflict. Desirous of preventing a revolution,

he still declared himself constitutionally without power to use coercion to arrest or subdue secession, and, at the expiration of his term as President, retired, leaving the country still at peace. In private life, Mr. Buchanan was of exemplary habits, and polished manners and address.

C

CALIFORNIA, one of the United States, situated on the Pacific slope of the Continent, having Oregon for its boundary on the north, Nevada and Arizona on the east, Lower California on the south, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. Its area has been settled, after a long controversy, at 188,981 square miles. Its population in 1860 was 379,994, and a semi-official enumeration at the close of 1867 gave a population at that time, in round numbers, of 550,000, of which about 350,000 were males. Full one-fifth were under eighteen years of age. The proportions of the different races were said to be: whites, 478,000; colored, 5,000; Chinese, 60,000; domesticated Indians, 4,000; wild Indians, 3,000. Of the white population, about 130,000 were voters, of whom 85,000 were native Americans, 55,000 from the Northern and 30,000 from the Southern States. The Germans, Swedes, Danes, and Russians numbered about 20,000 voters, the English, Scotch, and Welsh, 5,000; Irish, 15,000; French, Italians, Spanish Americans, etc., 5,000. The assessed value of personal and real estate at the close of 1867 was \$221,341,608; the State debt in 1868 was \$4,700,000, and the debts of counties, cities, and towns, about \$12,300,000. The total gold product of California, to the close of 1868, was nearly \$900,000,000. The production of gold in 1868 was somewhat larger than in either of the previous four years, the result not of the discovery of new placers or quartz veins, but of better and more thoroughly exhaustive processes, especially in those extensive beds of ore where the gold was combined or mingled with iron and copper pyrites. Some of the chlorine processes have in these ores proved effective in the extraction of 90 per cent., or more, of the gold contained in them, and in a condition of nearly absolute purity.

It is probable, however, that the gold product of California will not for some years to come greatly exceed \$30,000,000. But the great increase and development of the agricultural productions and manufactures of the State have more than made up for the falling off in the amount of gold produced. The largest amount of gold ever mined in the State in a single year was \$65,000,000 in 1853. In 1867 the gold product was \$25,000,000. The production of other metals (quicksilver, copper, iron, etc.), about \$6,000,000; the export of wheat alone was about \$13,000,000. The wines of the State brought over \$2,000,000, and the na-

tive brandy, about \$800,000 more. The value of the manufactures was \$30,000,000, a large part of which was exported. Here, then, in these four or five articles was an aggregate of \$78,000,000, and, with the exception of the gold and quicksilver, they were all imported, instead of being exported, in 1853.

There were no elections for State officers held in 1868, the Governor and other State officers, and the Legislature, being chosen in 1867. As stated in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, the Democratic candidate for Governor, Henry H. Haight, was elected. The Legislature, also elected in 1867, stood: Senate, twenty-three Republicans and seventeen Democrats; the House, thirty Republicans, and fifty Democrats, the Republicans having a majority of six in the Senate, and the Democrats a majority of twenty in the House, and the Democrats having a majority on joint ballot (for the election of Senator) of fourteen. At the session of the Legislature in 1868, Eugene Casserly was chosen U. S. Senator for six years from March 4, 1869, in place of John Conness, whose term expires at that time. In November, 1868, at the election for President, members of Congress were also chosen. The Republicans carried the presidential ticket, polling 54,592 votes for Grant, against 54,078 for Seymour, a majority of 514. In the first congressional district, Samuel B. Axtell, Democrat, was elected by 3,551 majority; in the second district, Aaron A. Sargeant, Republican, was elected by 3,140 majority; in the third district, James A. Johnson, Democrat, was elected by 164 majority. The representation of the State in the Forty-first Congress is, therefore, one Republican and one Democrat in the Senate, and two Democrats and one Republican in the House.

The agricultural interests of California have been more rapidly developed within the past two years than those of any other State in the Union. For the first ten years of her history she afforded a good market for almost every thing in the way of agricultural, horticultural, or manufacturing products; the attention of her citizens was given almost entirely to the mining of the precious metals; but no sooner did it become evident that her rich, deep soil was well adapted to the growth of almost every crop which could be raised in any part of the United States, than she took giant strides in the way of agricultural production, and the vast crops produced on her virgin soil have enabled her

n numerous instances to export articles which ten years ago she imported very largely. Of *wheat* she harvested in 1867 about 15,000,000 of bushels, and in 1868 over 18,000,000. Of the crops of 1867, nearly 8,000,000 of bushels were exported, including 520,000 barrels of flour. The wheat of California ranks very high for its nutritive properties, having much more gluten than that of the Eastern States. The principal market for it is England and France. Of *oats*, from two to two and a half millions of bushels are raised, and almost wholly consumed in the State, besides large quantities of wild oats. Of *barley*, 10,000,000 of bushels were grown in 1867, and a considerably larger amount in 1868. It has hitherto been used mostly for feeding horses, cattle, and swine, but there is growing up a demand for it for the manufacture of ale and porter.

Indian corn is not a successful crop in California, on account of the long dry season. Buckwheat and rye are but little cultivated. The grass crops of the State are peculiar. There is little or no sod in California, and for hay or pasture the grass-seed must be sown or must sow itself anew every season. Of the natural grasses, the principal are *bunch-grass*, growing on the most barren hill-sides and affording a nutritious food to cattle; *alfalfa*, a species of clover, whose roots reach moisture at almost incredible depths—when cultivated it makes excellent hay; *burn-clover*, which yields a rich oily seed enclosed in a prickly capsule, but much sought after by cattle when ripe; *alfilerilla*, a grass resembling the wild geranium, but very rich and attractive to cattle, and enduring drought well. The lupin, alfalfa, and alfilerilla are cultivated to some extent, and these, with green oats and barley, make the greater part of the hay of California. The wild oats also furnish considerable hay. The grasses usually cultivated in the Atlantic States do not succeed well here.

Cotton will only be cultivated successfully when irrigation is systematically practised. *Flax* succeeds better and is already becoming a crop of some importance. The cultivation of the *sugar beet* for sugar has also been begun on a large scale, and is likely to prove more successful than anywhere else, as the beets grow to an enormous size, contain 40 per cent. more saccharine matter than those of France, and can be kept in the ground till wanted for manufacture. The *hop* is produced in rare perfection in California, and is becoming an article of large production, especially for home consumption. *Tobacco* of excellent quality is also grown in the State. *Chicory*, *mustard-seed* (cultivated for its oil), and the amole or soap-plant, a fine fibrous plant much used for upholstery purposes, are among the other crops almost peculiar to the State.

FRUITS, both of the temperate and semi-tropical climates abound, and are of excellent quality when properly cultivated. Apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, and quinces,

oranges, lemons, bananas, limes, citrons, pomegranates, olives, almonds, Madeira-nuts, strawberries (which are plentiful for five months in the year), raspberries, blackberries, and currants, are all abundant, and of excellent quality. The root crops and garden vegetables of California are of great size, but are also remarkably tender and succulent, and in every respect of excellent quality; potatoes, beets, carrots, turnips, parsnips, onions, cabbages, celery, cauliflowers, pumpkins, and squashes, are uniformly of large size, and perfect in flavor and taste. The canning, drying, and preserving of fruits and vegetables have grown into an immense business. The dairy products of the State are rapidly taking the place of the imported butter and cheese, which they greatly excel. There are over 1,200 dairies in the State, having from 50 to 150 cows each. In 1867 6,000,000 lbs. of butter were made, and the prospect was that, in 1868, 9,000,000 lbs. would be produced, a quantity which would permit considerable exportation to Panama, the West Indies, China, and Japan, in all of which countries it is in demand. Cheese is also made in large quantities, though as yet not quite sufficient to supply the home demand. There are about 600,000 head of cattle and 200,000 horses in the State. Neither cattle nor horses are sheltered in any part of the year, and the cattle are not fed, but win their own living. The climate and pasturage are excellent for sheep, and no kind of live stock pays so well, even in the present depressed condition of the wool-market. 3,000,000 sheep were raised for shearing in 1868; and the wool-clip, which, in 1867, was about 9,000,000 lbs., exceeded 12,000,000 in 1868. Swine are numerous, and easily reared. Honey is also abundant, and of excellent quality. But, of all agricultural or horticultural products, the culture of the *grape* and the *rearing of silk-worms* are those which yield the largest profits. There are now in the State more than 30,000,000 of bearing vines, of which probably about one half are of the Mission or native grape, and the remainder of a great variety of kinds, European and American. The average number of vines to the acre is about 900, from which 800 gallons of wine and 20 gallons of brandy are made. In France, 300 gallons of wine and 4 to 5 gallons of brandy to the acre are a full average of the product. The predominance of saccharine matter in the California must makes the wines somewhat stronger and richer than those of Europe. 100 lbs. of California must contains from 25 to 40 lbs. of grape sugar; the same quantity of European must would yield only from 15 to 20 lbs. "In California," says Cronise,* "no doctoring is done, no flavoring, no coloring, no sweetening; but some brandy is added from the same grape to some of the sweet wines. Nothing can be procured for adulteration that will not cost more

* "Natural Wealth of California," by Titus Fey Cronise. H. H. Bancroft & Co. 1868.

than the pure juice of the grape." The product of California wine for 1867 was somewhat more than 4,000,000 of gallons, and 400,000 gallons of brandy. In 1868 this production will doubtless be increased by about 30 per cent. Wine matures fast in the dry, warm, evaporating air of California, and at three years it has the age of eight years in Europe. The grapes ripen thoroughly and evenly on the bunches, and in 1,000 lbs. there will be scarcely a pound of unripe or rotted berries. The vine suffers nothing there from elemental disturbances. It is not mildewed nor storm-stripped; nor does it need leaf-pulling to give sun to ripen the grapes. Stakes are used but a short time; soon the vine acquires great size of stem, and they are dispensed with. In appearance the vine in fruit is like an umbrella opened out. The wines made are, in the order of the quantity of sales, the white wine or hock, port-wine, angelica, sherry, sparkling champagne, muscat, and claret. The *silk-culture* is extending with great rapidity, but the size and excellence of the California cocoons and silkworm-eggs have created such a demand for them in Europe, that it is, and probably will be for some years to come, more profitable to export them than to manufacture the silk in California.

The development of the various MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES of California has been rapid, but healthful. In every department of manufacture, the wares, goods, furniture, or machinery produced, are of the highest excellence, not merely makeshifts to keep out the goods or wares of the Eastern States, or of other countries, but of such quality that a demand has at once sprung up for them abroad, generally very far beyond the ability of the manufacturers to supply. *Woollen goods* have only been manufactured in the State since 1859, yet between 5,000,000 and 6,000,000 lbs. of wool are now consumed, and blankets, broadcloths, tweeds, cassimeres, flannels, shawls, and cloakings produced, all of the best quality. Their blankets and flannels in the Paris Exposition of 1867 took the first premium over all other American manufacturers. There has been a commencement of cotton and flax manufacturing, mainly of flour-bags, osnaburgs, drills, etc., and nearly \$500,000 worth of these goods is produced. The *flouring-mills* of the State produced in 1868 over 1,000,000 barrels of flour, of which more than 600,000 barrels were exported. The *sugar-refineries*, drawing their crude sugar and molasses from the Hawaiian Islands, Central America, Manila, Batavia, and Peru, produced in 1868 over \$3,000,000 of manufactured sugar and syrup. But it is in the manufacture of railroad iron, machinery, locomotives, steam-engines, mining and agricultural machinery, iron plates for armored vessels and for building purposes, sheet-iron, and small articles made of sheet, cast, or rolled iron, that the largest amount of capital has been invested, and the greatest number of operatives em-

ployed. Nearly \$3,000,000 worth of castings alone was produced in the 15 manufactories of San Francisco only, in 1868, while the 25 other iron-works in other parts of the State produced probably nearly as much more. Wire-rope, cordage, wire-cloths, etc., are also largely manufactured. Lumber of the softer woods, pine, fir, spruce, cedar, and redwood, is produced to the extent of over 250,000,000 feet annually. The leather of California, tanned with the bark of the chestnut-oak (which is said to contain more tannin than any other species of oak), has the highest reputation in the markets of the world, and all the surplus is exported. Over 100,000 hides are tanned annually. Gunpowder, fuse, paper, glass, soap, candles, glue, chemicals, vegetable-oils, lime, cement, boots and shoes, saddlery and harness of excellent quality, wagons, carriages, agricultural implements, furniture, pianos, organs, billiard-tables, malt liquors, brooms, wood and willow-ware, clothing, shirts, type, stereotype and electrotype plates, cigars, furs, packed meats, dried and canned fruits, sashes, blinds, stairs, mouldings, pitch, rosin, and turpentine, etc., are among the other manufactures of considerable magnitude in the State.

CANDIA, or CRETE, an island belonging to the Turkish empire. The area of Candia, inclusive of a number of small adjacent islands, is about 3,319 square miles. The population amounts, according to Captain Spratt ("Travels and Researches in Crete," London, 1865), to about 210,000, living in about 800 villages, and the three towns, Candea, Canea (Khania), and Retimo. According to another recent work on Candia (Elpis Melena, *Die Insel Creta unter der Ottomanischen Verwaltung*, Vienna, 1867), the population of Crete numbers about 300,000, of which 220,000 belong to the orthodox Greek Catholic Church, and the rest to Islam. The Cretan Mohammedans are not Turks, but Greeks, like the rest of the Cretans, who, under pressure of foreign conquest, have adopted the religion of the conquerors.*

The insurrection of the Cretan Christians against Turkish rule continued throughout the year. The Turkish Government several times officially announced the end of the insurrection, and the restoration of quiet; but all these reports proved untrue. As the war throughout the year consisted almost exclusively of guerilla operations, the military history of the revolution is not of importance. A large number of engagements took place, in which generally both parties claimed to have obtained a victory.

The Turkish Grand-Vizier, Ali Pacha, who had arrived in Crete on October 4, 1867, convoked an assembly of delegates to discuss the best means for improving the condition of the island. The assembly was opened on the 23d of November, and consisted of seventy-five mem-

* For fuller statistical and historical information, see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

bers, of whom only twenty-six were Christians. The Christian members of the Assembly asked for an exemption for several years from imposts; foundation of banks to develop agriculture, and several other similar measures, all of which were granted by the Turkish Government on the 11th of December. The Grand-Vizier was recalled from Crete on the 11th of February, 1868, and in March made a very elaborate report to the Sultan on the insurrection. The report—a quarto pamphlet of fourteen pages—is interesting as giving the views of one of the most prominent Turkish statesmen, not only on the condition of Crete, but on the Eastern question in general. It begins with an historical sketch of the revolt, and attributes the origin, maintenance, and still lingering vitality to four causes:

The first, strictly speaking, but the semblance of a pretext, is the discontent attributed to the populations. The second is the Panhellenic *grande idée*, that unrealizable utopia which is traded upon for the exclusive advantage of other ambitions. It is a ramification of the subterranean work which is undermining the majority of European states, by the aid of a new instrument, known as the principle of "nationalities"—a dangerous principle, which Turkey will never admit, and which in Crete serves as a mask for a war of religion. In point of fact, the Cretan populations all speak the same language; religion alone separates them, the Mussulmans being as indigenous as the Christians. The third exists in the pressure put upon the cabinets friendly to Turkey by public opinion, misled by an unheard-of system of falsehoods and calumnies propagated through the press. This has given rise to a novel mode of intervention, known henceforward by the designation of the rescue (*saoudage*) of families, the evident result of which is to give the insurgents freedom in their movements by withdrawing from them all family cares as also the motives to submission which the sufferings of beseeching women, children, and old men would afford. There is a fourth cause, which existed before all the others, which dominates every thing in the East, and which your Majesty will recognize by this simple mention of it. It is sufficient to see each of these causes in operation to determine what amount of influence each exercises upon the actual state of things in Crete, and to discern the obstacles which were calculated, in their artificially combined aggregate, to complicate my task before my arrival.

The moral cause is the "Hellenistic malady," which, through the liberty enjoyed by the Sultan's subjects, has been infiltrated into the minds of an ignorant and credulous population. There were also material causes:

Before the insurrection, the debts due between private persons amounted to about 150,000,000 piastres, of which the Mussulman population were creditors for more than two-thirds. There were, moreover, a certain number of individuals having a personal interest in shaking off "the yoke" of the Government to get rid of obligations they had contracted toward the Treasury in their character of tithe-farmers. Many of the principal leaders of bands are in this condition. Such a state of things gave rise in the minds of some to the thought of ridding themselves of their debt, and inspired the mass of the Christians with the hope of enriching themselves at the expense of the Mussulman population, who would, it was expected, be expelled from the island, at the same time that annexation would take place to Greece.... If Europe had been aware of these odious acts, it would have been indignant at them; it was, therefore, necessary

to deceive it; and the revolt, which had one hundred and seventeen newspapers at its service in Greece alone, used them very skilfully in order to impute the destruction of property to Mussulman barbarism. Moreover, individuals killed in the combats fought against the imperial troops were represented as inoffensive victims. Europe believed these falsehoods, systematically retailed by the Hellenic press with prodigious audacity, not suspecting that it was being made the victim of a studied fraud on its good faith. It might very easily, however, have satisfied itself as to the value of these calumnies, by calling to mind the old Roman adage, "The guilty is he who benefits by the crime." Is it credible that the Mussulman populations, whose fortunes depended upon the olive plantations, either directly as owners or indirectly by trade debts or mortgages, should have eagerly given themselves up to the destruction of the security of their property? Is it not more probable that those are the authors of the devastations who, desiring to get rid of the payment of their debts and to expel the Mussulman population, were alone interested in committing the crime?

After reviewing the history of the insurrection, the Grand-Vizier narrates the measures which he adopted on arriving in Crete. The first were to confirm and execute the amnesty, and to relieve the distressed Mussulmans and Christians who had been obliged to take refuge in the fortresses. The Grand-Vizier next considered the means of protecting the peaceful inhabitants against the "cruel and pitiless molestations" of the insurgent bands. Two plans of pacification presented themselves—one, general repression, the other, measures of prevention. The latter appeared to Ali Pacha as the only one adapted to the exigencies of the situation:

I found that the Cretan population could be classed in three categories: the first, and most numerous, wearied by disorders in which they had taken no part, and sincerely desiring a reestablishment of order; the second, hesitating and timid, fearing, above every thing, the vengeance and reprisals threatened by the rebels against those who submitted; and a third, which included all who had an interest in disorder. In such a state of things, armed repression was impossible, the formal order of your Majesty being to avoid the shedding of blood except in case of necessity, so as not to expose the innocent to suffering for the guilty.

The convening of a General Assembly on November 23d is next referred to, and the submission of the Lakiotes as "an important incident, the Lakiotes having always been at the head of the rebels, and it being their village which gave the signal of the last rising." The new administration was inaugurated on December 3d. On the 8th of December, the Grand-Vizier visited Candia, where he received a requisition from the inhabitants of Zourva, a village near Lacos, "soliciting the destruction of their own dwellings in order that they should no longer be tyrannized over by the bands who had taken refuge there." This request was executed by the imperial troops, being the only instance, his highness remarks, during his stay in the island, that any measures were adopted except such as were purely defensive and for the protection of the inhabitants themselves. With the prorogation of the assembly on Feb-

ruary 15th, when the Grand-Vizier promulgated the new administrative *réglement*, and announced the fiscal concessions granted to the Cretans, he brings his narrative to a close, and winds up his report with the following sketch of the present situation of the island :

Hussein Avni Pacha, governor-general and commander-in-chief of the imperial troops, is charged with the continuation of the work in which three months of effective assistance have initiated him. During this latter period I have had occasion to appreciate his remarkable military qualities and essentially politic temperament, which enable me to recommend him as a man equal to every emergency, and whose talent and character guarantee success against all future eventualities.

A sub-government, composed in equal number of Mussulmans and Christians, chosen amongst the most intelligent and experienced functionaries, extends its ramifications over all the districts of the island without exception. Its express mission is to satisfy all the moral and material wants of the populations, the sole point reserved being the maintenance in their integrity of the fundamental laws of the empire and the sovereign rights of your Majesty. Its line of conduct is traced by regulations carefully elaborated and clothed with your Majesty's sanction.

The populations themselves participate in public affairs in as full a measure as is practised in countries the most advanced in civilization. They have the right of controlling taxation by means of representatives. These representatives are returned by universal suffrage in each community ; they form special councils in each district ; and meeting together constitute the General Council which discusses the interests of the whole island. Elected judges decide private litigations, punish crimes and offences, and protect the honor and the property of the citizens. The action and responsibility of the Government in judicial matters do not go beyond the execution of the sentences. The Government is justified in stating that the political and administrative system applied to the island of Crete is that of *self-government* in the most democratic acceptance of the word. Without doubt, if public feeling were on a corresponding level with the new rights, the populations would return to your Majesty, in gratitude and devotion, the inexpressible advantages which you have designed to concede to them.

In August, an English correspondent, who was in intimate relation with the chiefs of the revolution, stated that in Mylopotamo, Amari, and St. Basili, the insurgents were absolutely masters of the situation ; in Sphakia they held all but the village of Sphakia, Castel Franco, and Amalo ; in the far west they were still pretty strong ; and in the east (Lassithe) they were stronger than in 1867. In November, the correspondent of a New York paper reported the strength of the insurgents, saying : "The insurgents number between 10,000 and 12,000 now in arms, and are divided as follows : At Psariforado, Capa Taniana, and Calousleneves, there are 3,400. On the southern coast there are 3,000 men. In the western provinces, there are 2,500 men. In the north, and in close proximity to the Turks, there are now 2,000 men. While the Cretans occupy the whole interior, and are likely to, from all I can hear or see, the Turks content themselves by occupying the fortresses and walled towns of Canea, Rthymo, Candia or Hieracleum, Spinalonghi, Eavapatra, Castle of

Kissamos, and a chain of block-houses which run in a direct line from Canea, on the north, to the plateau of Amalo and Luina, on the south. Altogether the Turks have a force of about 50,000 men, including the navy, employed in actual war in Crete.

"The Provisional Government over Crete is at Amari, where the major part of the insurgents is at present. The members of it are seven in number, to whom the four committees immediately controlling the twenty-four provinces of Crete make their reports. At Amari are the general hospitals for the sick and wounded, under the charge of Mr. Hilary Skinner, the ex-correspondent of the *Daily News* of London. Also the principal depots from whence the insurgent army is supplied with arms."

Throughout the year the Cretan insurgents received reinforcements from Greece. A telegram from Constantinople, dated January 12, 1869, says :

According to the last official news received, all the volunteers remaining in Crete, including Petropoulake's son and several Cretan leaders who had surrendered, will leave the island on board a French vessel, in order to return to Greece. The insurrection is considered at an end.

The dispatches received in December from the chiefs of the insurrection showed, on the other hand, a determination to continue the struggle and an unshaken confidence in ultimate success. Thus the provisional government, in a dispatch, dated December 12th, states :

The insurrection is still in the same condition, and although, on account of the severity of the season, the engagements with the enemy are less frequent than before, they still from time to time occur at different points of the island, which shows the steadfast decision of the Cretans to support their independence, and the utter falsity of the rumors of the Turkish agents. We hear with great gratitude of the endeavors made in New York in favor of the Cretans.

COSTAROS BELOUDAKIS,
A. NANOUSSELIS,
A. BOUBOLAKIS,
N. P. SCOULODIS.

The Secretary, J. ZAROUTAKIS.

The *Cretan Committee's Bulletin*, published at Athens, says in its issue of December 16th :

"Several severe battles between the Cretans and Turks have taken place, resulting in a loss of life of several hundred men to the Turks, the Turkish commander-in-chief of Mylopotamos being among the killed. The disaster which overtook several hundred Greek volunteers who were beheaded, their remains being mutilated and insulted by the Turks, and the complicity of the French consul in Crete with the Moslem, were ineffective in dampening the ardor of the Cretan warriors who continue to sustain the war of independence, depending for their supplies upon the provisions sent from various Greek ports, so that even the blockade of the Syra steamers proved unavailing against the inflexible resolution of the Cretan people to continue the struggle."

At the close of December, several members of the Provisional Government were in the hands of the Government. The President had left the island to go to the United States, and there to ask for aid to carry on the insurrection.

The government and people of Greece did not weary in the manifestation of the liveliest sympathy with the Cretan cause. Grecian steamers throughout the year continued to make trips between Greece and Crete with cargoes of provisions and munitions of war, and all classes of the population in Greece endeavored to provide for the support of the numerous Cretan refugees living in their midst. The General Assembly of Cretan deputies having voted in favor of the annexation of the island to Greece, the Provisional Government sent some Cretan deputies to sit in the Athens Parliament, and represent their country there. The Cretan deputies received a very ardent welcome from the Greek population, but, as the protest of the Turkish minister against their reception was supported by strong representations of the ministers of most of the great powers, the Government of Greece did not dare to receive them. In December, the continuing sympathy of Greece with Crete induced the Turkish Government to present an ultimatum at Athens, the rejection of which by Greece led to a grave complication. (*See GREECE; TURKEY.*)

CANTERBURY, Most Rev. CHARLES THOMAS LONGLEY, D. D., Archbishop of, the Primate and Metropolitan of all England, born at Boley Hill, near Rochester, England, in July, 1794; died at Addington Palace, Surrey, October 28, 1868. He was the fifth of seventeen children of the late John Longley, Esq., Recorder of Rochester, a man of great literary ability, and a successful and elegant writer, and received his early education, first at a private school at Cheam, and afterward at Westminster School, from which he was entered at Christ Church College, Oxford, where he was the most popular man of his time, and gained a first class in classics on taking his first degree in 1815. After receiving this degree, he continued his connection with the University, where he became successively tutor and censor of his college, public examiner and proctor; and was first curate and afterward vicar of the adjacent village of Cowley. He was Rector of West Tytherly, from 1827 to 1829, and in the latter year was elected head master of Harrow School. He continued to fulfil the duties of this position till 1839, when he was appointed Bishop of the newly-created See of Ripon. On the resignation of Dr. Maltby, in 1856, he was translated to Durham; on the death of Archbishop Musgrave, in 1860, to York, and on the death of Archbishop Sumner, in 1862, to Canterbury. As the chief Anglican bishop he convoked, in 1867, the so-called Pan-Anglican Synod, a meeting of all the bishops of the Church of England, and the churches in

communion with her, presided over the sittings of the Synod, and transmitted, in its name, a copy of its proceedings to all the bishops of the Greek Church. Dr. Longley was visitor of All Souls and Merton Colleges, Oxford, King's College, London, Dulwich College, and St. Augustine's College, Canterbury, and of Harvard School in connection with the Bishop of London. He was also President of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, and of the National Society, a principal trustee of the British Museum, and a governor of the Charterhouse. The annual value of the see is £15,000 (= \$75,000 in gold), and the archbishop has the patronage of 177 livings. By virtue of his position, the archbishop took rank next to peers of the blood royal, above the Lord Chancellor, and the sovereign and royal family were regarded as his parishioners, wherever the court might be. It was his duty, on the accession of a new monarch to the throne of Great Britain, to perform the act of coronation. Archbishop Longley was remarkable for his humility and gentleness of character, his freedom from all rancor and party spirit, and was much beloved by his clergy. He was a moderate High Churchman, and endeavored zealously to restore the self-government of the Church in matters purely ecclesiastical, and to strengthen its connection with other Anglican, and some of the Eastern Churches, but opposed with great earnestness the Ritualistic movement.

CARDIGAN, Lieutenant-General JAMES THOMAS BRUDENELL, seventh Earl of, K. C. B., an English nobleman and army-officer, born at Hambledon, Hants, October 16, 1797; died at Dune Park, Northamptonshire, from injuries received in a fall from his horse, March 28, 1868. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford, and was a member of Parliament from 1818 till his succession to the earldom, in 1837, first for Marlborough, then for Fowey, in Cornwall, and from 1832 to 1837 for the northern division of Northamptonshire. He entered the army in 1824, by the purchase of a cornetcy in the 8th Hussars, but was court-martialed, censured, and placed on half-pay for his treatment of a brother-officer. His family interest and his resolute will sufficed, however, to insure his promotion, in 1832, to the lieutenant-colonelcy (which, in the British army, makes the officer the actual commander of the regiment) of the 15th Hussars. Here he was the most unpopular of officers; overbearing, imperious, and quarrelsome with the officers, brutal in his treatment of his men, a martinet in discipline, and unscrupulous and dissolute in his treatment of women, he was constantly involved in difficulties with his regiment; held one hundred and five court-martials in two years, and, though the regiment numbered but three hundred and fifty in actual strength, made more than seven hundred arrests in that time. In 1834 he quitted the 15th Hussars in consequence of a personal quarrel, but in 1836,

at the earnest solicitation of his father, was reinstated, and put in command of the 11th Hussars, where he reenacted the same tyrannies and insults which had made him so odious in his previous command. He was censured by the adjutant-general; but he was so brave and accomplished a soldier, and took so much pride in the perfect equipment of his regiment, which he accomplished mainly at his own expense, that the Government did not, as they should have done, cashier him for his gross offences. In 1840, he fought a duel with Captain Harvey G. Tuckett, who had been an officer of his regiment, and whose wife he had seduced. Captain Tuckett was wounded, and Lord Cardigan was indicted for felony, and tried before the House of Lords, of which he was a member. The trial was a miserable farce, and the Lords acquitted him on an absurd technicality, but really because he was a peer. At the commencement of the Crimean War, he was promoted to the command of the Light Cavalry Brigade as major-general. No cavalry brigade in Europe was ever more superbly equipped, his lordship having expended many thousand pounds in procuring horses alone, suitable, according to his ideas, for his command. His conduct during the campaign, though exhibiting in the highest degree personal daring and courage, was yet reprehensible from his needless exposure of his men, and the stubbornness with which he suffered his personal piques to control him. The charge of the Light Brigade, under his leadership, in which six hundred cavalry attacked thirty-six hundred heavy cavalry troops of the Russian army in a strong position, and finally returned with a loss of more than half their number, has been immortalized by Tennyson, in his "Charge at Balaclava," but was really a foolhardy performance, for which there was no sufficient justification. The earl was greatly censured for his conduct in the Crimea. Soon after his return he was appointed Inspector-General of Cavalry, a post for which he was well fitted, and which he retained till 1860. In 1855 he was created K. C. B.; in 1859 was appointed to the colonelcy of the 5th Dragoon Guards; and transferred in 1860 to the colonelcy of the 11th Hussars, which, as lieutenant-colonel, he had previously commanded. He was promoted to the lieutenant-generalship in 1861.

CARRELL, Right Rev. GEORGE ALOYSIUS, D. D., Roman Catholic Bishop of Covington, Ky., born in Philadelphia, June 13, 1803; died at Covington, Ky., September 25, 1868. His paternal grandfather, Timothy Carrell, a native of Ireland, emigrated to Philadelphia some years before the Revolutionary War, and established himself in business in that city. His father was born in Philadelphia, and his mother was of an old Pennsylvanian family. Young Carrell was sent to the college at Emmettsburg, Md., to study the classics, at the early age of ten years; entered the college of Georgetown, D. C., in 1816, and the novitiate

of the Society of Jesus, at White Marsh, Md., in 1820. He left the novitiate in 1822, and entered the Theological Seminary of St. Mary's, Baltimore, and, after spending two or three years there, returned to Mount St. Mary's, Emmettsburg, and completed his theological course under Bishop Brute. He was ordained priest in 1829, in Philadelphia, and spent several years as pastor of churches in that city, and its vicinity, and in Wilmington, Del. At Wilmington, he established two excellent schools. In 1835, impelled by his strong attachment to the life of a religious community, Mr. Carrell again entered a novitiate of the Society of Jesus, at Florissant, Mo., and remained there for two years, and then joined the Society of St. Ignatius. In 1837 he was appointed a professor in the University of St. Louis, and the same year pastor of the College Church of St. Xavier; in 1845 he was made Rector of the University, which position he held till 1848. In 1849 he was called to Cincinnati, and made President of the Purcell Mansion College for young boys, and the same year became pastor of St. Xavier Church, Cincinnati. In 1851 he took charge of the Catholic church at Chillicothe, Ohio, for a few months, but was speedily recalled to Cincinnati, where he remained as pastor and rector of St. Xavier Church and College till November 1, 1853, when he was consecrated Bishop of Covington. In this responsible position he was a model bishop, active in promoting the spiritual interests and advancement of the churches of his diocese; promoting, to the utmost of his ability, the instruction of the young; and, by his constant attention and gentleness to the poor, the ignorant, the sick, and the erring, winning their affections, and leading them to a higher and better life.

CARSON, Brevet Brigadier-General CHRISTOPHER, U. S. A., better known as KIT CARSON, a famous mountaineer, trapper, and guide, born in Madison County, Ky., December 24, 1809; died at Fort Lynn, Colorado, of a rupture of an artery in the neck, May 23, 1868. While he was yet an infant, his parents emigrated to what is now Howard County, Mo., but was then an almost unbroken wilderness. At the age of fifteen he was apprenticed to a saddler, with whom he continued two years, after which he joined a hunting expedition, and thus commenced the pursuit he followed during the remainder of his life. For eight years he was on the plains, leading the adventurous life of a trapper, which he relinquished only on receiving the appointment of hunter to Bent's Fort, where he continued eight years more. At the expiration of this time he paid a short visit to his family, and on his return met, for the first time, General (then Lieutenant) John C. Fremont, by whom his experience in the backwoods was at once appreciated, and by whom, also, he was engaged as guide in his subsequent explorations. In this position he was eminently useful, and to him is

probably due much of the success of those explorations. He was, perhaps, better known to a larger number of Indian tribes than any other white man, and from his long life among them learned their habits and customs, understood their mode of warfare, and spoke their language as his mother tongue. No one man did more than he in expediting the development of the wildernesses of the Northwest, which have opened so many fruitful fields of enterprise and thrift. In 1847, Carson was sent to Washington as bearer of dispatches, and was then appointed lieutenant in the Rifle Corps of the United States Army. In 1853 he drove 6,500 sheep over the mountains to California, a very hazardous undertaking at that time, and, on his return to Laos, was appointed Indian Agent in New Mexico. Since this appointment he had been largely instrumental in bringing about the treaties between the United States and the Indians. He was an excellent judge of character, and knowing the Indians so thoroughly, his cool judgment and wisdom, in dealing with them, made him of great service in the negotiations undertaken with them. During the late war, he was warmly and firmly on the Union side, and repeatedly rendered great service to the Government in New Mexico, Colorado, and the Indian territory. He rose to the rank of colonel, and was brevetted brigadier-general for his meritorious conduct during the war. At its close, he resumed his duties as Indian Agent. In this relation to the Indians he had, in the winter and early spring of 1868, visited Washington, in company with a deputation of the Red-men, and made a tour of several of the Northern and Eastern States. Unlike most of the trappers and guides, General Carson was a man of remarkable modesty, and in conversation never boasted of his own achievements.

CATTLE, RECENT EPIDEMIC OR CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF. The year 1868 has been remarkable for the great mortality among cattle in certain sections of the United States. The *rinderpest*, or cattle-plague, which wrought such extensive mischief in England in 1866, does not seem to have made its appearance on this side the Atlantic, though it has several times been reported by hasty and ignorant veterinarians; but there have been four other epidemics, each of considerable extent, and causing, in the sections where they prevailed, severe losses of stock. These were: 1st, the *Texas, Spanish, or Splenic, Cattle Fever*, which proved fatal to many thousand cattle in Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, and to a very considerable number of the droves sent to Albany, New York, Boston, Providence, Pittsburg, and Philadelphia. From the numerous conflicting statements in regard to the history, origin, character, and symptoms of this disease, we have gathered the following particulars, which seem to be well authenticated: The disease in a mild form, and not generally

fatal, seems to have existed in Texas for many years, and was probably a form of typhus fever, contracted possibly from the marshy and malarious regions in which many of the herds are pastured. It was first observed in Missouri, in 1853, when Texan or Spanish cattle had been driven through some of the great highways of that State, and had been pastured at intervals along their route. There is no evidence that any of the Texan cattle were themselves affected with the disease, at the time, though probably many of them had had it, and recovered from it; but Missouri cattle, driven over these highways and pasturing in these fields, during the same summer, were attacked with the disease, and very many died. A report made to the Missouri State Board of Agriculture, in 1868, from Vernon County, Mo., where it first made its appearance, details so carefully the progress and history of the disease there, that we transcribe it, as throwing much light on the origin of this mysterious epidemic.

The drove mentioned as having passed through the county in 1853 was owned by Mr. Richard Burris, of Spring River. They were driven from Texas the fall previous, and wintered about fifty miles south of here, near Sarcoxie. In the early part of June, Mr. Burris came into this county with his cattle, apparently healthy, in good order, and no lame ones in the drove, numbering about 450 head. He made a slow passage through the county, grazing on the best grasses near the road unmolested, as no one knew at this time that this species of cattle communicated a disease to ours. Early in July the fever broke out on the road travelled by this drove, lasting until the frost put a stop to it, with the fatality previously mentioned. As the disease, this year, was in no other locality, except where these cattle were driven and grazed, the citizens, after carefully tracing their route through the county, in all its windings, came to the conclusion, for the first time, that this fever was engendered from the Texas cattle. This was fully verified in the next year; and, up to the outbreak of the war, hundreds of cases occurred to prove that they were not mistaken. No Texas cattle, until this year (1866), except two yoke of oxen, worked here in the fall of 1865 by Mrs. Box, have passed into or through this county since 1860; neither has there been a case of Spanish fever during this period, or any other fatality among our cattle. Mrs. Box's oxen, so far as could be seen, were healthy, and not lame. The neighbors whose cattle came in contact with these oxen were Mrs. Smalley, Mr. Cothran, and Mr. Packard, each having the Spanish fever among their stock, losing some, notwithstanding the lateness of the season. About 3,000 head of Texas cattle passed through this county in the month of June, this year (1866), and a portion of them reached six or eight miles into Bates, or the adjoining county, before being turned back by citizens of that county. They returned on the same road previously travelled, making no delay in their passage, either way, more than was necessary. The disease did not break out for some six weeks after the passage of the droves—many more recovering than usual, and about 40 per cent. dying—extending into Bates County to the point where they were turned back. It proved more fatal on the crossings of watercourses, killing about 70 per cent. In 1858 my stock were exposed to this fever by coming in contact with a drove of Texas cattle. The fever was very bad among them, one or two dying every day though the month of August; they were in daily contact with Mr. Millender's stock, who kept a herder, not suffering them to reach the ground that had been used by the Texas droves, yet he had not a single

case of fever. When spoken to about keeping my stock from coming in contact with his, he told me there was no danger of our own cattle diseasing one another. I have since watched many such exposures, and in no case has the fever been propagated. The farmers have each an opinion as to how the disease was propagated to their cattle, some thinking it is through the lame ones, a few of which will be found in almost every drove coming from Texas. Their feet become worn out and sore from long travel, matter forms between the hoofs and is left on the ground and in the water through which they pass, and it is contended this inoculates our cattle by being taken in the stomach or otherwise. Others think it is done by the excrements left by those that are lame or diseased, while some think it is through the slobber or froth which is left on the grass. On one thing they agree, that the fever is communicated in some way, raging until the cold weather puts a stop to it, no remedy appearing to have any effect.

The disease committed great ravages in Missouri, in 1866 and 1867, single counties losing cattle to the value of \$300,000 to \$500,000 in a single year, but it did not cross the Mississippi River till 1868. It had previously prevailed to some extent in Kansas and Iowa, and was thought in those States to have been introduced by droves of cattle from the Indian Territory. From the 1st of June to the middle of July, many thousand Texan cattle were brought into Illinois, and scattered, by way of the Illinois Central Railroad and its connections, over considerable districts of southern and central Illinois, and the corresponding sections of Indiana. It has not been satisfactorily ascertained that any of these Texan cattle were sick with this disease, though there is evidence that many of them had previously had it and recovered. But, wherever these droves stopped for two or three weeks, the disease broke out among the native cattle, and the mortality ranged from 50 to 90 per cent. of the cases attacked. It soon began to make its appearance among the cattle shipped to the Eastern cities for slaughter, many of which sickened on the cars and died before reaching their destination. This rapid diffusion of the malady, and the fear that the carcasses of some of the diseased cattle would be sold for beef, led to a general alarm, and to prompt and decisive action on the part of the authorities of the several States through which the infected cattle had passed. Commissioners, men of extensive medical and veterinary knowledge and sound judgment, were appointed by the States of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, and vested with powers to take summary measures for the prevention of the further progress of the disease. The Metropolitan Board of Health, New York, gave its energies to the same work, and the United States Department of Agriculture appointed Professor J. Gamgee, a distinguished English veterinarian, visiting this country, who had rendered great service in the prevalence of the *rinderpest*, to act as its representative in investigating the disease. Illinois and Indiana suffered severely from the epidem-

ic, many thousand cattle dying in each State, and Mr. Alexander, one of the largest stock-raisers in Kentucky, submitting to the sacrifice of several entire droves of cattle, which he had sent to Eastern markets, in consequence of their having been subjected to the infection.

The reports of these commissioners from the different States, though throwing much light upon the symptoms and pathology of the disease, did not reveal its causes, and differed materially in regard to its treatment. They agreed, however, on the best measures for prevention. With the early frost of September, 1868, the disease disappeared for the season. The symptoms described in Missouri, in 1867, were substantially the same as those manifested in Illinois, Indiana, and at the cattle-yards of Albany and New York in 1868. The following is the Missouri description of the symptoms:

The first symptom of the fever, discoverable several days before any appearance of sickness, is a dry cough, noticeable by careful observers. In a few days after this the nose becomes dry, and the ears slightly drooping, and more flies will collect than on healthy cattle. At this stage the breath will be found to have lost its sweetness, and assumed the sickening, feverish smell, generally, if not always, found in the Texas cattle, which I can best describe by comparing it to the smell of our slaughter-houses, or constantly-crowded stock-yards in cities. From this condition in one or two days the fever gains its highest stage, and is found to have disseminated itself over the whole body, the heat being very great; the arteries of the neck are seen to beat in short, heavy throbs, the ears becoming very much lopped, the hinder parts reel in walking, the animal getting up or lying down with difficulty; the breath and exhalations are very disagreeable, the end of the tail usually hollow for two or three inches; the pith in the horn has commenced to decay, if not already decayed; the animal refusing to notice the herd, remaining stupid, if not disturbed, neither seeking food nor water. Some, in this stage, will pass water mixed with blood, and dung naturally; others will pass water of a natural color, and not dung at all, or but very little, and that in a dryish lump. In another type of the disease, which will occur in every eighth or tenth case, after being taken the same way, and having the same symptoms as those described, even to the hollow horns and tail, the animal does not get weak, sluggish, or stupid, but is always to be found on his feet, in a watchful attitude, with head turning to any noise, which, if close by, it rushes toward, even through fences or against trees, the eyes being of a green cast, very glaring and wild; those of the first type have a dead, sleepy, and glazed appearance. Both these classes die, as I have described them, without any change, except that the hair deadens before death and has the appearance of that on a dry hide.

The New York Commissioners, Messrs. M. R. Patrick and J. Stanton Gould, thus describe the earliest symptoms of the disease: "The first symptom of the disease, in all the cases observed by us and by our Assistant Commissioners, is an appearance of languor and weariness, which is unmistakable; the head droops, the ears hang down, the eyes are staring; this sometimes occurs when cattle are terrified, but the stupid stare of the cattle affected by the disease is very different from the furious stare produced by terror. The back is arched,

strong efforts are made to dung, which are often ineffectual, the droppings being usually dry, scanty, and stained with blood. These symptoms are invariable. The urine is generally dark brown in color, and commonly called 'blackwater.' This symptom is not, however, always present in the earlier stages of the disease. The coat is generally rough, the hair standing almost erect. The horns are hot, the nose dry, a froth drools from the mouth, flies settle in great numbers upon the animal, and it rarely makes an effort to brush them off. These latter symptoms are not invariable, especially the roughness of the coat. In cases of doubt, the most reliable distinguishing mark is undoubtedly afforded by the thermometer. If, in connection with the before-named symptoms, the thermometer introduced into the rectum for two or three minutes shows a temperature much higher than 100° Fahrenheit, the animal may safely be pronounced as suffering under the disease. In some cases it has gone up to 109° Fahrenheit."

An Illinois stock-raiser in Sadonia (one of the most infected districts), evidently a careful observer, thus states the symptoms, which he had noticed in some hundreds of cases: "They are not all taken alike. Still the general symptoms are the same. A hacking cough is one of the first in some. They droop the head and ears, and, as they get worse, invariably you will see the head hanging down, a slow, dragging step, showing great weakness of the whole body. The flank is drawn in, so much so that in thirty hours the beast will look as though it had been starved for weeks. In milk cows one of the first indications is a sudden failure of milk. I had a fine cow that was giving three gallons twice a day. She was milked at night and gave the usual amount, seemed well, took water and feed the same; the next morning she failed one-third; at night she gave only one gallon, and by the next morning was dry. I have been particular in the above description, hoping it may be of some use to others. In most cases the bowels are constipated, but in one I saw it was the reverse, and the cow scoured badly. The water resembles bloody brine; in all the cases I have seen it is of this character. They have a high fever from the first, and suffer loss of flesh faster than in any disease I have seen. The type of the disease is alike, and the same symptoms, and the fatal result as at the first, still continue. So far no cure has been found. There is a wildness, in some cases, amounting to madness, that renders the beast dangerous. There is one thing remarkable: while they have an acute inflammatory fever, with loss of strength and flesh, the most I have seen will eat for the first two days. On the third day the appetite fails entirely, and they die the third or fourth day. Some have not lived so long."

The pathological symptoms seem to have varied materially in different cases. The Illi-

nois commissioners state that, in some cases, the lungs were congested; in others (and this was more general), the stomach and intestines; in many the bowels were constipated; in a few cases, there were bloody evacuations and in about as many bloody urine. Professor Gamgee found the greatly elevated temperature of the cavities of the body a marked and constant symptom, ranging from 105° 6' F. to 106° 7' F. He discovered, upon dissection, no special congestion of the lungs, but the small intestines were more or less reddened throughout; the large intestines had blackish-looking deposits of changed blood along the free margin of the longitudinal folds; the liver was usually much enlarged, and the spleen invariably of three or four times its normal size. There were many who doubted the generally-received statement of the origin of the disease from the Texan cattle, and they attempted to adduce other causes of the disease, but without much success. The theory was broached that the cattle were infected with an insect called a tick, which adhered to their hair, and annoyed them till they bit it off and swallowed it, and that it acted as a poison somewhat after the manner of the *trichina*. This theory was completely exploded by the Illinois commissioners, who found ticks in the stomachs of healthy cattle, and no ticks in the stomachs or intestines of those which died of the disease, and whose observations demonstrated that cattle entirely free from the tick were as subject to the disease as any other. Another theory propounded was, that the disease was owing to overheating and driving, and to confinement in the impure and deadly air of overcrowded cattle-cars. That these conditions may have aggravated the disease is possible, but, if it caused it, it should have been prevalent years ago. The most skilful veterinary surgeons, Professor Gamgee among the number, regard the disease as a malignant typhus, epidemic and possibly contagious (as two or three deaths, of persons who, in skinning the dead animals, had accidentally inoculated themselves with the poisonous fluids of their carcasses, would seem to demonstrate), communicated under favorable circumstances from the bodies or diseased secretions of the Texan cattle, or in some instances, perhaps, originating in the malarious exhalations of the swamps and marshes in which they had been pastured. The disease was not necessarily fatal. Under favorable circumstances, fifty per cent. or more recovered. The free administration of salt and the use of very dilute carbolic acid as a drink were thought to be the most effective remedies. The disease disappeared almost immediately after the first hard frost, and in Missouri did not return until the next warm season. The use of carbolic acid, carbolate of lime, and coal-tar, as disinfectants, was found effective in purifying the cars, cattle-yards, and highways, or pastures which had been used by the diseased cattle.

2. PLEURO-PNEUMONIA, the epidemic disease

affecting the lungs of cattle, which was only stamped out in Massachusetts with so extensive destruction of the animals affected by it, two or three years since, has been, during the past year, endemic in several sections of the country. Several of the dairy districts of New York, especially Long Island and the Dutchess County milk-producing region, and portions of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, have suffered seriously from this disease. The contagiousness of this disease is not fully settled, though many of the most eminent veterinarians are inclined to regard it as contagious, but its epidemic tendency is well known. It is more generally fatal in cattle than in horses, and the only safe course to adopt is, to kill at once any animal affected with it, isolating it, on the first appearance of symptoms of the disease, from the rest of the herd, and using disinfectants freely and plentifully.

3. Late in the year, in October and November, a disease of great severity, and speedily fatal, made its appearance, almost simultaneously, at widely-distant points. In Polk County, Iowa, a hundred cattle or more died very suddenly, after manifesting, for a few hours, extreme pain, accompanied with frothing at the mouth, weakness and stupidity, and general torpor, and indisposition to rise or move. In Rhinebeck, Dutchess County, N. Y., six cattle died with similar symptoms, and in West Springfield and North Hadley, Mass., five more died, at intervals of a week or two, after a very brief illness, with the same symptoms. There were no indications of contagion here; the season was too far advanced for Spanish fever, and the symptoms were not those of pleuropneumonia. Professor Gamgee investigated some of the cases with care, and gave it as his opinion that they had been poisoned by eating freely of smutty corn and corn-fodder which had become extensively smutted in the tassels. There was an unusual quantity and size of this fungous growth upon the corn in Iowa, Eastern New York, and Massachusetts, and it is said to be a virulent poison. Many intelligent stock-raisers, however, discard the "smut theory," but offer no satisfactory one in its place.

4. The endemic disease of abortion in cows, which has so seriously affected the dairy interests in New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, still continues, and the protracted and elaborate investigations which have been made seem neither to have discovered its cause nor a remedy for it.

A remarkable and very fatal epidemic has existed among horses in Texas for two winters past, which seems to be of the nature of the cerebro-spinal meningitis which, in 1863, affected both man and beast in North Carolina. Intelligent officers of the Quartermaster's Department report that it first appeared during the winter of 1866-'67, at Camp Verde and Fort Mason, the former sixty-two and the latter one hundred and sixteen miles, in a north-westerly direction, from San Antonio. So far

as could then be learned, it was a disease of the stomach and brain. Horses were seized with apparently great pain, and became very restless, plunging and rearing in a frightful manner, and, after a few hours, died. *Post-mortem* examinations showed an inflamed brain, and the stomach very full of undigested food, greatly distended, and also somewhat inflamed. The disease was very rapid and fatal. The private horses of officers suffered as well as public ones, and also the animals of citizens in the neighborhood. In the fall and winter of 1867-'68, a similar disease broke out at the San Antonio Depot, and extended to Austin, though less prevalent there. The symptoms were much the same as before, perhaps less aggravated, but accompanied by a disease of the throat and neck. At first a good many animals were lost, but in the course of a few weeks the disease was mastered by a skilful veterinary surgeon, after which but few animals were lost. The treatment most successful was, in mild cases, simply blistering the throat, and more or less of the neck, as the severity of the case seemed to require, administering expectorants, and feeding only bran "mash." After the acute form of the disease had passed away, the animal was carefully fed on bran, and quinine was administered. In severe cases, blistering of the throat, neck, and top of the head was resorted to with good success, as also bleeding at the neck. In all cases the animal was "smoked" with a mixture of tar, feathers, and leather, intended to keep open the air-passages of the nose and head. When this was not done, the symptoms of suffocation and suffering were far greater. In no cases were purgatives used, unless the constipation was extreme, as they seemed to have a bad effect. This was the whole treatment, and it was very successful. *Post-mortem* examinations showed great inflammation of the throat, glands of the neck, trachea, stomach, and brain. There were also found very large effusions of serum in the cavity of the brain. On the appearance of the disease at the San Antonio depot the most rigid police of the stables was enforced, and disinfectants were freely used, under which, and the treatment already alluded to, it disappeared. The disease manifested itself at other military posts in Texas during the same winter. The cause of the disease, after careful observation and study, could not be conclusively ascertained.

CENTRAL AMERICA. There are at present in Central America five independent republics: Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

1. GUATEMALA.*—President (1865–1869), Vincente Cerna. The State ministry, in 1868, consisted of the following members: Foreign Affairs, Marquis Pedro de Aycinena; Interior, Justice, Instruction, and Worship, Manuel Eche-

* A full account of the movement of commerce from 1857 to 1866 is given in the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

verria; Finances and War, Manuel Cerezo. American minister at Guatemala, Fitz-Henry Warren (since 1865). Area, 44,778 square miles. Population, according to the census of 1865, 1,180,000. Population of the capital, Guatemala, about 40,000. The revenue, in 1866, was \$1,359,340; the expenditures, \$1,350,083. The public debt, in 1865, amounted to \$2,461,978. The regular army consists of 3,200, the militia of 13,000 men. The imports, in 1867, amounted to \$1,574,587; the exports to \$1,996,450. The official returns for the port of San José de Guatemala for the months of January, February and March, 1868, show the exportations of produce to amount to about \$600,000 during that period, of which the coffee amounted to 3,759,982 lbs., valued at \$450,955, and sugar 1,601,809 lbs., valued at \$80,098. A telegraph line was completed in 1868, from the capital to Amatitlan.

The House of Representatives opened its regular sessions on the 25th of November. The President of the republic delivered the usual address, in which he says that the relations of the state with the neighboring republics of Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua, are of the most friendly nature, as also with the United States and Europe. Peace and tranquillity reign through the interior, and thus the public authorities have been able to devote all their attention to the improvement of the country, the protection of industry, and the development of the rich natural resources of the state. Roads have been opened and improved throughout the department; public edifices have been repaired, and schools have been established as far as the limited means of the population would admit. Steps have been taken to favor the production of indigo—in former times a favorite staple of Guatemala. A new contract for five years has been entered into with the Panama Railroad Company, for continuing their line of steamers semi-monthly between Panama and San José at an annual subsidy of \$8,000, the company agreeing to touch at the ports on the coast of Suchitepequez, during the months of January, February, March, and April, to take off the crops from that part of the republic. The law of the past session, passed with the object of encouraging immigration, has not been without good results, and further steps have been taken to favor the immigrants arriving on the north coast. The cultivation of sugar is increasing rapidly under the liberal law passed by the last Congress, and great hopes are entertained of the progress of its cultivation in the future. Measures are being adopted for the improvement of public prisons, and Sisters of Charity have been employed to look after youthful delinquents and attend in educating them. The financial condition of the country is favorable, the rents being considerably in advance of the expenses.

2. SAN SALVADOR.—President (1865–1869), Francisco Dueñas. Area, 7,335 square miles. Population about 600,000. The budget of 1866

estimates the receipts at \$628,252; and expenditure at \$524,329. According to a report made to Congress in the spring of 1867, the actual surplus of receipts over expenditures, in 1866, amounted to \$59,000. In the budget for 1867, the revenue amounts to \$783,713, the expenditure to \$693,003; in the budget for 1868, the revenue at \$832,150; the expenditure at \$745,375. The consolidated public debt amounts to \$650,000; the nonconsolidated to \$80,000. Imports in 1867 were valued at \$1,680,000; and exports at \$585,000 (the principal articles of export are indigo, sugar, cotton, coffee, etc.). In 1867, 26 American (United States) steamers entered the ports of the republic, and 27 sailing-vessels (6 North American), 7 English, 6 South American, 3 French, 3 German, and 2 Italian. The standing army consists of about 1,000 men; the militia of 5,000.

An election for President was held in 1868, and resulted in the reelection of the present incumbent, Francisco Dueñas, for the term of 1869 to 1873.

The extradition treaty was concluded between San Salvador and Italy.

3. HONDURAS.—President, José Maria Medina (February, 1866, to February, 1870). Area, 47,092 square miles. Population, about 350,000 inhabitants. The republic is divided into seven departments. The capital, Comayagua, has about 18,000 inhabitants. Minister of the United States at Comayagua, R. H. Rousseau (appointed in 1866). Receipts of the Government, about \$200,000; expenditures, \$183,000; annual surplus, about \$17,000. An internal debt of about \$800,000 is paid off by the annual surplus of the revenue. Value of imports (mostly from Great Britain), about \$750,000; exports, \$825,000. Imports now generally come to the port of Amapala, on the island of Tigre, in the bay of Fonseca, which was opened in February 1, 1868; formerly to the port of Omoa. On the Atlantic coast the port of Ruatan has been opened. The legislature of the republic approved a contract made by two of its citizens with some agents in Europe for the establishment of a colony of German and Swiss emigrants. The President of the republic has received the title of Captain-General of the Forces.

4. NICARAGUA.—President (1867–1871), Fernando Guzman. Area (after the reannexation of Greytown and the Mosquito Territory), 58,169 square miles. Population, about 400,000. Capital, Managua, with about 10,000 inhabitants. Imports were valued, in 1865, at about \$1,154,000; exports at about \$722,000. During 1867, the commerce of San Juan del Norte (Greytown) was as follows: Exportation, \$705,731.06; importation, \$487,209.29; balance in favor of the republic, \$218,521.77. On the Pacific side the result is different. The business of Corinto for the same year was: importation, \$284,367.18; exportation, \$188,289.33; balance against the republic, \$96,077.85.

85. The revenue, in 1865, amounted to \$632,471; the expenditures to \$630,120; public debt, to about \$4,000,000.

In March, the Legislature of Nicaragua ratified a "treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation" with the United States, which had previously been sanctioned by the Senate of the United States:

ARTICLE 1 declares that there shall be perpetual amity between the two nations.

ART. 2 declares there shall be reciprocal freedom for the citizens and subjects of both nations to come and go, remain, reside; for their ships to enter all ports; to occupy homes and warehouses, and enjoy the most complete protection and security; also for their ships of war. Such liberty to be subject to the laws of the country in which it is exercised. The coasting trade of each country is reserved to its own citizens or subjects.

ART. 3 puts both nations on the footing of the most favored nation.

ART. 4 forbids other and higher duties on imports.

ART. 5 forbids other and higher duties on account of tonnage, lights, etc.

ART. 6 makes the duties on United States imports the same, whether made in American or Nicaraguan bottoms, and *vice versa*.

ART. 7. Shipmasters and others to manage their own affairs or employ a broker, factor, agent, or interpreter as they please. Absolute freedom also for buyer and seller. The citizens of both nations to have free access to the courts and enjoy in every matter the same rights and privileges as native citizens.

ART. 8 gives the citizens and subjects of both the right to hold and inherit real estate within the States of the American Union or the republic of Nicaragua, in which foreigners shall be entitled to hold or inherit. But in case real estate situated within the territories of one of the contracting parties should fall to a citizen of the other party, who could not on account of his being an alien be permitted to hold such property in the State in which it may be situated, there shall be accorded to him such time as the laws permit for him to sell it and withdraw and export the proceeds thereof, without paying to the government other charges than would be paid by the inhabitant. In case of intestates, the minister of the country to which the deceased belonged shall take charge of his effects for the benefit of his lawful heirs and creditors.

ART. 9, *section 1*, permits citizens of both parties to intermarry with natives of the other party, hold and possess, by purchase, marriage, or descent, any estate, real or personal, without thereby changing their national character, subject, however, to the laws which may exist or which may be enacted in this respect.

Section 2 exempts citizens of both countries from forced loans and military service by the other, but obliges them to pay the same lawful taxes as the natives of the country they may reside in.

Sec. 3 provides for full compensation, paid in advance, for all property taken for a public object.

Sec. 4. Citizens of both countries to travel as they please to every part of the country of the other party.

ART. 10 contemplates the appointment of consuls.

ART. 11. In case of interruption of friendly relations, the citizens of the other party who may be residing on the coast shall have six months to close up their business and leave, and, if residing in the interior, twelve months. In case of rupture, citizens who are in settled employment shall have the privilege of continuing such trade so long as they behave peaceably. Debts between individuals, property in public companies, and shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, nor detained, nor sequestered.

ART. 12 gives civil and religious liberty, provided such citizens respect the religion, laws, and constitution of the country in which they may be residing, and provides for the burial of the dead.

ART. 13 provides for aid or comfort to vessels-of-war, driven by stress of weather or chased by pirates or national enemies into the ports, bays, and harbors of the other party's country.

ART. 14 grants the right of transit between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The republic of Nicaragua reserves the right of sovereignty over the route.

ART. 15. The United States to extend their protection and guarantee the neutrality and innocent use of the same and to use their influence to induce other nations to join in the guarantee of neutrality. The republic of Nicaragua to establish a free port at each end of the route, which United States vessels can frequent free from tonnage dues. The United States, on giving notice, to have liberty to convey troops across the route, provided these troops are not to be used against any Central American nation friendly to Nicaragua. The United States Postmaster-General to be at liberty to transport the mails across the route.

ART. 16. The republic of Nicaragua agrees to employ military force for the protection of persons and property passing over any of the routes, but, upon failure from any cause, the United States may, with the consent or at the request of the republic of Nicaragua, employ force for this and no other purpose. In exceptional cases of unforeseen or imminent danger the United States forces may act without such consent previously obtained—such exercise of force to be subject to the laws of the United States Congress.

ART. 17. The United States protection is conditional on the good faith of the company controlling the route, but protection is not to be withdrawn without six months' notice.

ART. 18 makes article 14 inoperative if there is now in existence any valid concession by the Nicaraguan Government having reference to the interoceanic route, and the protection of the United States stipulated under article 15 is reserved until the owners of such concession recognize the concession made in this treaty to the Government and citizens of the United States.

ART. 19. After ten years from the completion of a railroad or any other route of communication from the Atlantic to the Pacific, the company in possession shall not directly or indirectly divide by the issue of stock more than fifteen per cent. per annum. Whenever the rates produce a greater revenue, they shall be reduced.

ART. 20. The treaty to last fifteen years, and terminate by twelve months' notice on either side at or after that time.

ART. 21. The treaty to be ratified and the ratification exchanged within one year, or sooner if possible, at the city of Nicaragua.

5. COSTA RICA.—The President of the republic for the term of 1866 to 1869, Dr. José María Castro, was overthrown by a revolution in October, 1868, and Jesus Jimenez declared Provisional President. Area, 21,495 square miles. The population, in 1844, amounted to 79,982; in 1864, to 135,000, of whom 12,000 were independent Indians. The capital, San José, has about 30,000 inhabitants. Revenue, about \$1,000,000. There is no public debt.

The standing army consists of 1,000 men; the militia of 5,000. The imports, in 1866, amounted to \$2,000,000, and the exports to \$1,938,900. The movement of shipping of the port of Punta Arenas, which, until 1867, was the only one open to commerce, was as follows: Arrivals, 71 vessels (18 English, 6 German, 4 French, etc.), of about 72,000 tons;

clearances, 67 vessels (8 English, 8 German, 3 French, etc.), of about 69,000 tons. On September 23, 1867, the port of Lomon, on the Atlantic side, was also opened to commerce.

CERIUM. M. Wöhler has published an account of his researches on cerium. He obtained the metal by the following process: A solution of the brown oxide of cerium in hydrochloric acid was mixed with an equivalent quantity of chloride of potassium and of chloride of ammonium, and the whole evaporated to dryness. The mass was then transferred to a platinum crucible, and heated till the whole of the chloride of ammonium was volatilized and fusion obtained. The fused mass was poured out and mixed, while still warm, with fragments of sodium, and introduced into an earthen crucible previously heated to redness. When the contents had again fused, and the excess of sodium volatilized, the crucible was removed from the fire; the deep-gray resulting mass was filled with little metallic globules. In a second experiment a large piece of sodium was thrown into a red-hot crucible containing chloride of potassium, and then the coarsely-powdered chloride used before. In operating in this way, a larger proportion of metallic globules was obtained, some of which weighed 50 to 60 milligrammes. These metallic globules appear to consist principally of cerium. The color of the metal is intermediate between the color of iron and that of lead. The metal is lustrous when polished; it is malleable. Its density is about 5.5 at 12°. Exposed to the air, it loses its lustre, and becomes slightly blue. It feebly decomposes water at 100°. Hydrochloric acid dissolves it with energy; concentrated nitric acid converts it into clear brown oxide, and the dilute acid dissolves it. By evaporation, a white salt is obtained, which leaves, after calcination, a brown oxide, insoluble in nitric acid and in dilute sulphuric acid. Concentrated sulphuric acid slowly dissolves this oxide, forming a yellow solution which shows the reactions of ceric salts. Hydrochloric acid dissolves this oxide with disengagement of chlorine, forming a colorless solution. When a globule of cerium is heated by the blow-pipe to dull redness, the metal inflames and burns vividly, forming brown oxide; but, upon submitting a globule suddenly to a very high temperature, it burns with explosion, sending out bluish sparks. Cerium powder can inflame below 100°. When the saline mass containing the cerium globules is treated with water, a fetid hydrogen gas is liberated, and a brilliant powder of a deep purple color is deposited, which is easily separated by washing. Dilute hydrochloric acid extracts from this powder a small quantity of metal, as well as of oxide. This body is a cerous oxychloride. Concentrated hydrochloric acid attacks it with difficulty; concentrated nitric acid dissolves it, forming a colorless solution.

CHEMISTRY. *The Artificial Formation of Organic Substances.*—Mr. C. G. Williams com-

municated to the Royal Institution of Great Britain in May, 1868, a brief history of the progress made by chemical science in the artificial formation of organic substances. He showed that Wöhler's synthesis of urea was one of the earliest in point of date, and his method was described, and also Kolbe's new process, by the mere heating of ammoniac carbonate to a point just below that at which urea is decomposed. The conversion of carbonic disulphide into carbonic tetrachloride or perchlorinated marsh-gas was another example of true synthesis. So was the production of oxalic acid by the direct union of carbonic anhydride and sodium, recently accomplished by Dr. Drechsel; and it was shown that, as oxalic acid by distillation yields formic acid, the synthesis of the first acid leads directly to a new synthesis of the second. Allusion was made to Berthelot's process of making formic acid by heating potassic hydrate in an atmosphere of carbonic oxide, and Kolbe and Schmidt's method of making the same substance by exposing potassium to a warm atmosphere of carbonic anhydride. The manufacture of acetic acid from carbonic bisulphide and the chlorides of carbon, of acetylene by several processes, of succinic acid, of tartaric acid, and of organic alkaloids, were successively described and illustrated by experiments. The author said that one of the most interesting of the cases of synthesis recently accomplished was that in which Mr. W. H. Perkin had succeeded in producing artificially the odoriferous principle of new hay and the Tonquin bean. The delicious fragrance of new hay is entirely due to the presence of the sweet-scented vernal grass, *Anthoxanthum odoratum*. It is the same substance which is the cause of the sweet smell of the woodruff, *Asperula odorata*; and the melilot, *Melilotus officinalis*. It is also the flavoring ingredient in the *Maiwein* of the Germans, which is perfumed with woodruff. Until lately, nothing was known about coumarin, except that it was a colorless crystalline body, having the formula $C_9H_6O_2$. The crystals of coumarin appear very beautiful under the influence of polarized light. The image of some artificial coumarin, which had been fused and allowed to crystallize in a plate of glass, was then thrown upon the screen, and, the light being polarized by the aid of Nicol's prisms, the crystals assumed the most gorgeous and varying colors as the prisms were rotated. The clew to its constitution was shown to be the circumstance that when heated with potassic hydrate it yields salicylic and acetic acids. The production of salicylic acid from coumarin was then shown experimentally, the presence of the acid being proved by its yielding a deep-purple coloration with ferric chloride. Artificial coumarin was obtained from the hydride of salicyl. By treatment with sodium it yielded hydride of sodium-salicyl; this substance, heated with acetic anhydride, gave hydride of aceto-salicyl.

This last substance was then distilled with acetic anhydride and sodic acetate, and, when the temperature reached 290° , the distillate solidified to a mass of crystals of pure coumarin, having all the fragrance and beauty of that obtained from the Tonquin bean.

Fermentation and the Source of Muscular Power.—At the May meeting of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences the president, Baron von Liebig, delivered a lecture on this subject. He showed that Pasteur's celebrated discovery of the increase and propagation of the yeast-fungi in a mixture of tartrate of ammonia, sugar, and yeast ashes, rested on a palpable error. He explained that, according to his analysis, the chief constituent of the yeast was a substance similar to the caseine of milk, containing nearly 1 per cent. of sulphur, and recognizable when in putrefaction, even by the unprofessional, through the odor of rotten eggs. Pasteur, according to Liebig, overlooked the fact that his mixture contained soluble and insoluble phosphates, due to the yeast-ash, and that, on expelling the ammonia with caustic magnesia, the well-known phosphate of ammonia and magnesia must be formed, and that, hence, the very means he employed to ascertain the amount of ammonia rendered the solution of this question impossible. The ammonia, then, which disappeared, had not been employed in the growth of the fungi, but simply had entered into a chemical combination whose formation Pasteur had overlooked. It has been observed that fresh pure beer-yeast left to itself, in the presence of water, disengages carbonic acid and produces alcohol. Liebig found that the power of yeast to excite fermentation is retained as long as this process is going on; at its close, putrefaction sets in. Liebig regards this process as a vital act in the interior of the cell, and as the immediate cause of the action of yeast in the fermentation. When a solution of sugar comes into contact with the yeast-cell, the inner decomposition of the latter is retarded, and the molecules of sugar in contact with the cell are decomposed. One hundred parts by weight of yeast left to themselves furnished 9.18 per cent. of alcohol. Pasteur has assumed that this alcohol is produced from the cellulose of the yeast, which had changed itself into sugar. If this assumption were true, the cellulose ought to disappear entirely: it remains, however, unaltered behind. During the formation of alcohol no trace of ammonia is generated. As some of the most remarkable products of this vital process, Liebig mentioned leucine and tyrosine, and a nitrogenous substance containing a certain amount of sulphur. With regard to the investigations of Pick, Wislicenus, and Frankland, which have been regarded by many as a proof against Liebig's theory of the mode in which muscular power is generated, Liebig remarked that they rest upon imperfect conceptions of the nature of the organic process involved. It was just as impossible by the combustion of dried mus-

cle to calculate its efficiency in the living body (the assumption of these physicists) as it was by the combustion of a dried bee to estimate the work which it accomplishes in the flight of many hours, carrying the weight of its own body several miles. The muscle in the living body acts like the apparatus in a watch, which gradually expends the power stored up in it.—(*Chemical News*, vol. xvii., No. 443.)

The Occlusion of Hydrogen Gas by Metals.—This is the subject of an interesting and valuable essay, by Mr. Thomas Graham, Master of the British Mint, read before the Royal Society. Mr. Graham had previously published an account of his experiments on the occlusion of hydrogen by the metals palladium, platinum, and iron, showing that the absorption of the gas was of uncertain occurrence at low temperatures, but was insured by heating the metal, whether in the form of sponge or aggregated by hammering, and allowing it to cool slowly and completely in a hydrogen atmosphere. This fact was referred to the condition of absolute purity of the metallic surface being essential to the absorbing action, as it is to the action of platinum foil or wire in determining the combustion of the gaseous mixture of oxygen and hydrogen, as observed by Faraday. The author then goes on to describe and illustrate a new method of charging metals with hydrogen at low temperatures, as follows:

When a plate of zinc is placed in dilute sulphuric acid, hydrogen is freely evolved from the surface of the metal, but no hydrogen is occluded and retained at the same time. A negative result was indeed to be expected from the crystalline structure of zinc. But a thin plate of palladium immersed in the same acid, and brought into metallic contact with the zinc, soon becomes largely charged with the hydrogen, which is then transferred to its surface. The charge taken up in an hour by a palladium plate, rather thick, at 12° , amounted to one hundred and seventy-three times its volume.

The absorption of hydrogen was still more obvious when the palladium plate was constituted the negative electrode in acidulated water to a Bunsen battery of six cells. The evolution of oxygen gas at the positive electrode continuing copious, the effervescence at the negative electrode was entirely suspended for the first twenty seconds, in consequence of the hydrogen being occluded by the palladium. The final absorption amounted to 200.4 volumes, and was greater in amount than the volume of hydrogen occluded by the same plate heated and cooled in an atmosphere of the gas, which did not exceed ninety volumes.

A thin plate of palladium, charged with hydrogen in the manner described, was washed, dried by a cloth, and then sealed up in an exhausted glass tube. On breaking the tube under mercury after two months, the vacuum was found perfect. No hydrogen had vaporized in the cold (about 12°); but, on the appli-

cation afterward of a heat of 100° and upward, three hundred and thirty-three volumes of gas were evolved from the metal.

It appears that when hydrogen is absorbed by palladium the volatility of the gas may be entirely suppressed; and hydrogen may be largely present in metals without exhibiting any sensible tension at low temperatures. Occluded hydrogen is certainly no longer a gas, whatever may be thought of its physical condition. The same conclusion was indicated by another series of experiments, in which it was found that, to be occluded by palladium, and even by iron, hydrogen does not require to be applied under much pressure, but, on the contrary, when highly rarefied is still freely absorbed by these metals.

Platinum may be charged with hydrogen by voltaic action, as well as palladium, but with the usual inferior proportion of gas. The charge of hydrogen taken up in a decomposing voltaic cell by old platinum in the form of a tube, of the thickness of a small crucible, was 2.19 volumes. This absorbed gas was also readily withdrawn from the platinum and oxidized on reversing the place of the metal in the decomposing cell. The platinum acquired its well-known polarizing power in virtue of the occluded hydrogen. This power was retained by the metal after being washed with pure water and wiped with a cloth, and was brought into action on placing the metal in dilute acid. The temperature required to expel the hydrogen so absorbed by platinum was found to be little short of a red heat, although the gas had entered the metal at a low temperature.

Soft iron, left some time in a dilute acid, occluded 0.57 volume of hydrogen. This charge of gas was also retained at low temperatures, and did not escape into a vacuum till the temperature was raised nearly to redness. This proves that, like platinum, iron is not penetrated through in the cold by hydrogen, the temperature of emission being elevated considerably.

While hydrogen was absorbed freely by palladium and platinum as negative plates, no oxygen whatever was absorbed by plates of the same metals in the position of positive electrodes. Oxygen gas was disengaged freely on the surface of the latter without being condensed. A platinum plate, which had acted for several hours as a positive electrode, gave afterward, when submitted to heat with exhaustion, a small trace of carbonic acid but no oxygen.

The author is inclined to conclude that the passage of hydrogen through a plate of metal is always preceded by the condensation or occlusion of the gas. But it must be admitted that the rapidity of penetration is not in proportion to the volume of gas occluded; otherwise palladium would be much more permeable at a low than at a high temperature. A plate of that metal was sensibly exhausted of hydrogen gas at 267° , but continued permeable,

and in fact increased greatly in permeability at still higher temperatures, and without becoming permeable to other gases at the same time. In a striking experiment, a mixture of equal volumes of hydrogen and carbonic acid was carried through a small palladium tube, of which the internal diameter was three millimetres, and the thickness of the wall 0.3 millimetre. From the outer surface of this tube gas escaped into a vacuum, at a red heat, with the enormous velocity of 1017.54 cubic centimetres per minute for a square metre of surface. This gas did not disturb baryta-water. It was pure hydrogen.

The quantity of hydrogen held by the metal at these high temperatures may become too small to be appreciated; but Mr. Graham presumes it is still present, and travels through the metal by a kind of rapid cementation. This extreme mobility is a singular property of hydrogen, which was involved in the fundamental discovery, by MM. H. Sainte-Claire Deville and Troost, of the passage of that gas through plates of iron and platinum at high temperatures.

Liquid diffusion has also a bearing upon the rapid dissemination of hydrogen through a soft colloid metal, like palladium or platinum, at a high temperature. The liquid diffusion of salts in water is known to be six times as rapid at 100° as at 0° . If the diffusion of liquid hydrogen increases with temperature in an equal ratio, it must become a very rapid movement at a red heat. Although the quantity absorbed may be reduced (or the channel narrowed), the flow of liquid may thus be increased in velocity. The whole phenomena appear to be consistent with the solution of liquid hydrogen in the colloid metal. The "solution affinity" of metals appears to be nearly confined to hydrogen and carbonic oxide, so that metals are not sensibly penetrated by other gases than these.

The Velocity of Chemical Changes.—Mr. A. Vernon Harcourt, Secretary of the Chemical Society, associated with Mr. Esson, arrives at the following conclusions after an investigation of the rates at which chemical action takes place:

1. The rate at which a chemical change proceeds is constant under constant conditions, and is independent of the time that has elapsed since the change commenced.

2. When any substance is undergoing a chemical change, of which no condition varies, excepting the diminution of the changing substance, the amount of change occurring at any moment is directly proportional to the quantity of the substance.

3. When two or more substances act upon one another, the amount of action at any moment is directly proportional to the quantity of each of the substances.

4. When the rate of any chemical change is affected by the presence of a substance which itself takes no part in the change, the acceleration or retardation produced is directly proportional to the quantity of the substance.

5. The relation between the rate of a chemical change occurring in a solution and the temperature of the solution is such, that, for every additional de-

gree, the number expressing the rate is to be multiplied by a constant quantity.

Tyndall on Molecular Force.—Professor Tyndall, in an address delivered before the Mathematical and Physical Science section of the British Association in August, 1868, made the following suggestive remarks :

Every particle that enters into the composition of the muscle, a nerve, or a bone, has been placed in its position by molecular force. And unless the existence of law in these matters be denied, and the element of caprice be introduced, we must conclude that, given the relation of any molecule of the body to its environment, its position in the body might be predicted. Our difficulty is not with the quality of the problem, but with its complexity; and this difficulty might be met by the simple expansion of the faculties which man now possesses. Given this expansion, and given the necessary molecular data, and the chick might be deduced as rigorously and as logically from the egg as the existence of Neptune was deduced from the disturbances of Uranus, or as conical refraction was deduced from the undulatory theory of light.

You see I am not mincing matters, but avowing nakedly what many scientific thinkers more or less distinctly believe. The formation of a crystal, a plant, or an animal, is in their eyes a purely mechanical problem, which differs from the problems of ordinary mechanics in the smallness of the masses and the complexity of the processes involved. Here you have one half of our dual truth; let us now glance at the other half. Associated with this wonderful mechanism of the animal body, we have phenomena no less certain than those of physics, but between which and the mechanism we discern no necessary connection. A man, for example, can say, "I feel, I think, I love;" but how does consciousness infuse itself into the problem? The human brain is said to be the organ of thought and feeling: when we are hurt, the brain feels it; when we ponder, it is the brain that thinks; when our passions or affections are excited, it is through the instrumentality of the brain. Let us endeavor to be a little more precise here. I hardly imagine that any profound scientific thinker who has reflected upon the subject exists, who would not admit the extreme probability of the hypothesis, that for every fact of consciousness, whether in the domain of sense, of thought, or of emotion, a certain definite molecular condition is set up in the brain; that this relation of physics to consciousness is invariable, so that, given the state of the brain, the corresponding thought or feeling might be inferred; or, given the thought or feeling, the corresponding state of the brain might be inferred. But how inferred? It is at bottom not a case of logical inference at all, but of empirical association. You may reply that many of the inferences of science are of this character; the inference, for example, that an electric current of a given direction will deflect a magnetic needle in a definite way; but the cases differ in this, that the passage from the current to the needle, if not demonstrable, is thinkable, and that we entertain no doubt as to the final mechanical solution of the problem; but the passage from the physics of the brain to the corresponding facts of consciousness is unthinkable. Granted that a definite thought and a definite molecular action in the brain occur simultaneously, we do not possess the intellectual organ, nor, apparently, any rudiment of the organ, which would enable us to pass by a process of reasoning from the one phenomenon to the other. They appear together, but we do not know why. Were our minds and senses so expanded, strengthened, and illuminated as to enable us to see and feel the very molecules of the brain; were we capable of following all their motions, all their groupings, all their electric discharges, if such there be; and were we intimately acquainted

with the corresponding states of thought and feeling, we should be as far as ever from the solution of the problem, "How are these physical processes connected with the facts of consciousness?" The chasm between the two classes of phenomena would still remain intellectually impassable. Let the consciousness of love, for example, be associated with a right-handed spiral motion of the molecules of the brain, and the consciousness of hate with a left-handed spiral motion. We should then know when we love that the motion is in one direction, and when we hate that the motion is in the other; but the "why?" would still remain unanswered.

In affirming that the growth of the body is mechanical, and that thought, as exercised by us, has its correlative in the physics of the brain, I think the position of the "Materialist" is stated as far as that position is a tenable one. I think the materialist will be able finally to maintain this position against all attacks; but I do not think, as the human mind is at present constituted, that he can pass beyond it. I do not think he is entitled to say that his molecular groupings and his molecular motions explain everything. In reality they explain nothing. The utmost he can affirm is the association of two classes of phenomena of whose real bond of union he is in absolute ignorance. The problem of the connection of the body and soul is as insoluble in its modern form as it was in the pre-scientific ages. Phosphorus is known to enter into the composition of the human brain, and a courageous writer has exclaimed, in his trenchant German, "Ohne phosphor kein gedanke." That may or may not be the case; but even if we knew it to be the case, the knowledge would not lighten our darkness. On both sides of the zone here assigned to the materialist he is equally helpless. If you ask him whence is this "matter" of which we have been discoursing, who or what divided it into molecules, who or what impressed upon them this necessity of running into organic forms, he has no answer. Science also is mute in reply to these questions. But if the materialist is confounded, and science rendered dumb, who else is entitled to answer? To whom has the secret been revealed? Let us lower our heads, and acknowledge our ignorance, one and all. Perhaps the mystery may resolve itself into knowledge at some future day.

Action of Light.—Professor Tyndall has communicated to the Royal Society the results of experiments made by subjecting the vapors of volatile liquids to the action of concentrated solar or electric light. A tube 2.8 feet long, and 2.5 inches internal diameter, is closed at both ends by glass plates. It may be connected with an air-pump, and with a series of tubes used for the purification of air. A number of test-tubes were converted into Wolf's bottles by means of corks and tubes. Each test-tube was partly filled with the liquid to be examined and introduced into the path of the purified air. When the experimental tube was exhausted, and the air then allowed to bubble through the liquid, a mixture of air and vapor entered the experimental tube together, and was then submitted to the action of light. At one end of the experimental tube was placed an electric lamp transmitting an intense beam of light through the tube parallel to its axis. When the vapor of amylac nitrite was allowed to enter the tube in the dark, and the beam of light was then sent through the tube, the tube appeared for an instant optically empty; then a sudden shower of liquid spherules was precipitated on the

beam. On repeating this experiment with a condensed beam of light forming a cone eight inches long, the cone, which was at first invisible, flashed suddenly like a luminous spear. The rapidity of the condensing action diminished with the density of the light. The same effects were produced when oxygen or hydrogen was employed as a carrier; when the head of the beam was sifted out through a plate of alum, or when the beam was used without sifting. That the amylic nitrite undergoes decomposition is proved by the formation of brown fumes of nitrous acid. Sunlight produces similar effects. The author proves, in the next place, that the decomposition is effected by the more refrangible rays of light, and that liquid amylic nitrite is most potent in arresting the rays which affect its vapor. This seems to show that the absorption takes place in the atoms, and not in the molecules. The author anticipates wide, if not entire, generality for the fact that a liquid and its vapor absorb the same rays. When the tube is filled with a rare and well-mixed vapor, the electric light develops a blue color, which may be pure and deep, or milky, according to the intensity of the light. The author connects this result with that of Brücke's experiments on the colors of the sky. Various other liquids were tried with success. In many cases the condensed vapors formed extremely beautiful and regularly-shaped clouds, the particles rotating around the axes of the tube, or round other axes. The most beautiful forms appear to have been those produced by iodhydric acid.—(*American Journal of Science*, January, 1869.)

White Gunpowder.—The *Mechanics' Magazine*, of August 7, 1868, speaks in terms of approval of white gunpowder, on account of the comparative safety of its manufacture and use, and its superior effectiveness as an explosive material. This substance is a white, impalpable powder, resembling flour, powdered chalk, or magnesia, in its superficial appearance. Its composition is as follows:

Chlorate of potash.....	48
Yellow prussiate of potash.....	29
Finest loaf-sugar.....	23

100

In manufacturing it the yellow prussiate must be dried in an iron ladle until it is as white as the chlorate. The ingredients are ground separately to very fine powder, and then mixed by means of a conical sieve, until they are thoroughly incorporated, but not by trituration. For small quantities a common Wedgwood mortar and pestle may be used, but they must be kept perfectly dry and clean. The operation of mixing does not take many minutes, and with these precautions is absolutely free from danger. In loading, it is treated the same way as ordinary gunpowder, being pressed down by hand, solid, but not hard. The charge is ignited in the usual way, either with a common cap or nipple, or on a rim or

central-fire cartridge. No alteration is required in fire-arms in order to use it, but the cartridge-case must be little more than half its usual length, which will give the same result as double the quantity of ordinary gunpowder, but with greater quickness, penetration, and accuracy. It produces neither smoke nor flash of flame at the muzzle, on discharge, and can be used in a casemate with perfect comfort to the gunners. In actual use it does not appear to possess a bursting so much as a propulsive power. The economy of the powder is apparent when it is stated that its wholesale cost is about 86 s. per cwt., but, as its strength is said to be at least one-third greater than that of ordinary powder, its cost may be comparatively estimated at about 60s. per cwt. Mr. Henry W. Reveley, C. E., the manufacturer of the white gunpowder (unpatented), has not been able to procure a practical trial of it from the Royal Ordnance department. A sample of three dozen rounds of Enfield cartridges, which he sent to the department for trial, were returned to him, in the original package with the seal unbroken, accompanied by a note, stating that the cartridges were not suitable for military purposes. The officials had evidently decided about them without even looking at them.

Nitroglucose.—The *American Journal of Science*, for May, 1868, contains a paper upon this compound from the pen of Mr. M. Carey Lea. He prepares the article in the following way: two ounces of fuming sulphuric acid; two of common sulphuric acid, two of strong nitric acid are mixed. Sugar is stirred into this in the form of powder, to a thin paste. The stirring is kept up, and as fast as the nitroglucose separates in doughy masses, it is removed with a spatula, and thrown into cold water. More sugar being added will give more nitroglucose, but considerably less in proportion than the first addition. As soon as possible the nitroglucose must be kneaded up with cold water to get the acid out; otherwise (in ten or fifteen minutes) it passes to a greenish color, and decomposition commences: The removal of the adhering acid is much more difficult than in the case of peroxylin, and is an extremely disagreeable operation. The acid pervades the whole of the doughy mass so fully, that the fingers are stained and burned by it, nor can the whole of the acid be removed satisfactorily in this way. The best means found by the author was, to dissolve the crude nitroglucose in a mixture of alcohol and ether, and then to pour this into a large quantity of cold water with constant stirring, and violent agitation afterward. The method is not altogether satisfactory, and seems to be attended with some loss of material. Prepared in this way, nitroglucose is a white lustrous body, which may either assume the doughy amorphous condition, or the crystalline, and passes from one to the other with extreme ease. When first formed by the

mixed acids, it always has the doughy form. That obtained by the use of nitric and sulphuric acid was crystalline from the first. When precipitated by water from its solution in alcohol and ether, it is doughy and almost liquid, and remains so for a long time, if there is any considerable quantity of it. The best mode of preserving it appears to be under water. By standing thus it gradually hardens, and passes sometimes to a somewhat hard amorphous mass, and sometimes to a granular crystalline state. It appears to be wholly insoluble in water. A few minute grains of the crystalline form diffused through fifteen or twenty ounces of water, and did not dissolve after many hours' standing. In a mixture of alcohol and ether it dissolves as easily as sugar in water, and in such quantity as to make the liquid syrupy. Its detonating properties are but slight. If it be well dried and a match be applied, it deflagrates with a feeble flash. It has been stated by Dr. V. Monck-hover that, when dissolved in alcohol and kept some time in a warm place, it undergoes decomposition, as shown by the fact that the solution then gives an abundant precipitate with nitrate of silver, which at first it did not do. An experiment made in this direction did not give the result thus indicated. A solution of nitroglucose in alcohol, containing about forty grains to the ounce, was placed in a stoppered phial and was kept in the sand-bath at a temperature of about blood-heat for nearly a month. But neither it nor a fresh solution gave a precipitate with alcoholic solution of nitrate of silver.

Ozone and Antozone.—An experiment of M. Schönbein's, illustrating the simultaneous formation of ozone and antozone, is said to be the following: Into a flask of five hundred c. c. capacity, and three or four centimetres in diameter across the neck, a little ether is poured, just enough to cover the bottom, and a spiral of red-hot platinum is plunged into the vapors. It is necessary to avoid heating the flask too strongly. The platinum glows until all the ether has been destroyed. The experiment is repeated two or three times, and now the question is, to demonstrate that both ozone and antozone are formed in this slow oxidation of the ether. The first is, of course, easily shown to be present by means of the iodide of potassium and starch-paper. To show the presence of antozone, the flask is rinsed with a small quantity of ether, which will then be sufficiently charged with peroxide of hydrogen to give clearly the perchromic acid reaction. Some solution of bichromate of potash is placed in a test-tube, and a drop of sulphuric acid added, the ether with which the flask has been rinsed is then poured in, when the ethereal layer becomes colored a beautiful violet blue. The conclusion to be arrived at from this experiment is, that, during the formation of ozone, antozone is also formed—this, in the presence of water, being converted into peroxide of hydrogen.

During the autumn of 1867, when the cholera was felt severely in Turin, Father Denza studied the meteorological condition of the atmosphere; he studied especially the connection between the prevalence of the disease and the absence of ozone. His observations were made at Moncalieri, rather more than half a mile from the town; the electricity was measured as well as the ozone. During the days in August and September, when the cholera was at about its height, the amount of ozone present was variable, but considerable—perhaps about the average. The electricity, however, during these days almost entirely disappeared; it is an interesting observation.

Professor Frankland made this reference to the ozone question in his address to the Chemical Section of the British Association, in August, 1868:

Chemists had long regarded with regret the labor expended by meteorologists on observations made with the intention of estimating ozone in the atmosphere, in the absence of any conclusive evidence of the existence of this substance in the air. It is, therefore, highly satisfactory that Andrews, to whom we were already so much indebted for our knowledge of the properties of ozone, has at length proved that the reaction exhibited by ozone test-papers at a distance from towns is in reality due to ozone. Thus the numerous observations, extending over so many years, now attain a value which they did not before possess.

Microscopic Crystallography.—Mr. H. S. Waddington has read a paper before the British Pharmaceutical Society, on this subject. He says that the formation of perfect crystals depends upon the rapidity with which they are deposited. He has obtained better results, by allowing the crystals to deposit from a hot and concentrated solution, than by placing a few drops of a cold saturated solution on a clean slide and allowing it to evaporate spontaneously. When crystals are quite soluble in water, his mode of procedure is as follows: "A solution is made in hot distilled water, the liquid filtered, and a few drops poured on a clean slide, just before the crystals begin to form in the solution itself, and immediately poured off; sufficient will remain behind for the production of crystals, which will form at once. When of a sufficient size, the remaining liquor, if any, should be drained from them and the slide allowed to dry. The result will generally be a slide, evenly covered with crystals, having well-defined edges, and but few of which are agglomerated. This process answers well for alum, chlorate of potassium, nitrates of barium and strontium, potassio-tartrate of antimony, sulphate of copper, sulphate, acid tartrate, binoxalate, and quadroxalate of potassium, the strength being regulated by experience. If crystals are not very soluble in cold water, they may be allowed to separate in the bulk of the solution itself as it cools; then remove a small quantity of liquid and crystals to a slide, by means of a glass tube. The slide must be kept moving, to prevent the aggregation of the

crystals, and the superfluous liquid removed by applying blotting-paper to the edges of the slide. For hippuric acid, the solution, when on the point of crystallizing, should be poured on a cold slide, and, when the crystals have formed, the remaining liquid should be poured off, and the slide allowed to dry. Sugar, citric and tartaric acids, and all substances very soluble in water, may be obtained in crystals by making a concentrated solution, filtering it, and then pouring it on a slide, taking care that only a thin layer of liquid remains, which should be allowed to dry in the air. To obtain crystals from sulphate of iodoquinine or 'Herapathite,' the author mixes three drachms of spirits of wine, and one drachm of acetic acid, in which he dissolves ten grains of bisulphate of quinine. He then pours ten or fifteen drops on a slide, and adds a drop of tincture of iodine. When clear he pours it from slide to slide as long as the liquid holds out. The best method of obtaining uric acid in crystals is, to allow eight or ten ounces of urine to stand some hours, after the addition of two or three drachms of acetic acid. In a day or two the crystals will have grown larger, when the bottle should be shaken, to detach them from the sides; then wash them with distilled water, acidulated with acetic acid. To obtain the rarer forms, it is requisite to allow the crystals to deposit quickly, which may be done by making a solution of urate of sodium, by boiling uric acid with solution of caustic soda, until no more is taken up. If one or two drachms of this are put into eight ounces of urine, and a small quantity of acetic acid added, not more than sufficient to neutralize the soda, very perfect crystals will be obtained. Another deposit found in urine is the phosphate of ammonium and magnesium, or triple-phosphate, which may be prepared in prisms by dropping about twenty-five or thirty grains of carbonate of ammonium into eight or ten ounces of urine, and allowing it to remain quiet for some hours. When the crystals are of sufficient size, the bottle may be gently shaken and the urine poured off. This deposit may also be obtained in stellate crystals by adding a drachm and a half to two drachms of carbonate of ammonium to urine, and allowing it to stand. The crystals should be washed with distilled water, to which a little liquor ammoniæ has been added. Calcic oxalate may be obtained by dropping a single small crystal of oxalate acid into eight or ten ounces of urine, and leaving it at perfect rest for some hours. Mr. Waddington has also obtained good results from salicin, by pouring a saturated solution in cold water on a slide, holding it over a flame until it is at the boiling-point; then pouring off the slide, when only a viscid film will remain. This must become quite cold, and the under surface held close to the flame of a lamp or gas-jet. The moment it begins to crystallize it must be removed a few inches from the flame, or else it will fuse."

Crystallization under the Blowpipe.—It sometimes happens in experiments with the blowpipe, when borax, phosphorus, common salt, or soda, is used, that the bead, at first limpid, becomes suddenly opaque. M. G. Rose finds that this is due to the development of crystallized bodies in the interior of the mass. The crystallization is often confused, although sometimes it is very regular, and, on operating with titanium under sufficiently varying circumstances, M. Rose has been able to obtain anatase, and to effect a crystallization of the two allotropic states of the titanic acid. With felspar and phosphorus salt (by the aid of which, as is well known, silicates are reduced to silica and phosphates), he obtained crystallized quartz, confused, but insoluble in alkalies. In order to recognize the crystals, obtained under these conditions, flatten the yet warm bead and observe it under a microscope; or it may be attacked by water or an acid, in which case the residual crystals may be collected on a glass plate.—(*Chemical News*, vol. xvi., No. 421.)

Crystallization of Sulphur.—M. Schützenberger, of Paris, has made an interesting experiment upon the crystallization of sulphur. He filled a matrass, of a capacity of one hundred and fifty or two hundred grammes, with refined sulphur, commercially pure, so that, when fused, the liquid occupied the whole of the space below the neck; the upper part of the neck was drawn out into a capillary tube, which was twisted several times, but left freely open to the atmosphere. The sulphur being melted in a bath of oil heated to 120°, the flask was placed in water heated to 95°. In these conditions, the sulphur remains perfectly fluid for hours, even when occasionally moved and drawn out of the hot water. If the temperature be made to fall very slowly, transparent crystals, possessing the same density as the melted sulphur, form either on the surface or in the midst of the fluid at about 90°. The mass of crystals gradually augments, but with great slowness; sometimes they are isolated, sometimes united in groups of two, three, four, etc. The amount of crystals being considered sufficient to separate them, the matrass is sharply inverted, so as to cool and solidify the melted sulphur in the neck. Thus the crystals are separated from the rest of the sulphur, and only remain suspended by their peaks. They are transparent and remain so indefinitely; in form they are octahedral and bear close resemblance to natural crystals. Measurement of the angles has confirmed their identity. The experiment is surer when two or three drops of sulphide of carbon are added to the sulphur before fusion; the phenomenon takes place, however, independently of this admixture. By this experiment of M. Schützenberger's it is proved that melted sulphur crystallizes below 100° in octahedra of the fourth system without the aid of any solvent. The facts will probably be turned to account in the study of the formation of natural crystals.

The question of how and under what circumstances sulphur will crystallize from substances containing it, was referred to in a recent murder trial at Versailles. The victim had been poisoned, it was said, by lucifer matches. The chemist stated, that after a scrupulous examination of the exhumed matter (interred two years) he had failed to detect phosphorus, probably volatilized or oxidized long ago, but he had separated several pieces of melted sulphur, which he exhibited. From these facts he concluded that chemical matches must have been present, for these traces of sulphur, though very small, could not occur in culinary or pharmaceutical preparations. The question was then put—did he not know that sulphur similar to that which he had exhibited was found in deposits of fecal matter which had undergone a certain fermentation in the air? and upon this point, the finding of sulphur perfectly crystallized or in concentered masses, in the old deposits in the sewer of Montfaucon, was cited; the specimens of sulphur here referred to are preserved in one of the public museums. Great doubt was thus thrown upon the source of the sulphur; indeed, judging from the chemist's evidence, he would appear to have argued farther than the experimental data justified him in doing. The prisoner was acquitted.

Industrial Preparation of Oxygen.—M. Gondolo has made some improvements in M. Bous-singault's process of extracting oxygen from the air by means of baryta. M. Boussingault, in 1852, found that in passing a current of air over baryta, heated to dull redness, oxygen was subtracted from the air, and binoxide of barium formed, and that, upon then raising the heat to bright redness, the oxygen was set at liberty so easily that the oxygen might be first absorbed and then evolved *ad infinitum*. M. Gondolo has made, in carrying out the details of the process, certain changes which admit of oxygen being prepared upon a manufacturing scale. For the porcelain tubes he substitutes iron ones, which may be made either of wrought or cast iron. Internally a coating of magnesia is applied, and externally asbestos, so as to diminish the porosity of the tube and the consumption of fuel. These tubes are arranged in a brick furnace having dampers, by means of which the temperature may be changed at will, and dull redness and bright redness easily obtained. To the baryta a mixture of lime, magnesia, and a small quantity of manganate of potash is added; this prevents fritting of the material. M. Gondolo says that he has made one hundred and twenty-two alternate operations, and that the atmospheric oxygen and nitrogen are easily separated upon an industrial scale; the apparatus has been at work during six months, and fulfilled its purpose thoroughly. The process is patented.—(*Paris Cor. of Chemical News.*)

Oxychloride of Silicium.—MM. Friedel and Ladenburg have reported to the French Academy their discovery of this compound. In passing chloride of silicium through an empty

porcelain tube, or one filled with fragments of felspar, heated to a temperature approaching the point of fusion for that mineral, and distilling, they observed that the product condensed at the extremity of the apparatus was a liquid less volatile than the chloride. By repeating the operation a great number of times with the more volatile portions, a notable amount of a liquid boiling above 70° is obtained. This product submitted to fractional distillation is easily separated into chloride of silicium and a liquid chiefly boiling between 136° and 139° . Limpid and fuming in the air, this liquid bears great resemblance to chloride of silicium; it is likewise decomposed by water energetically. Analyses were made by introducing weighed bulbs, full of the liquid, into flasks containing a certain quantity of water; breaking the bulbs afterward, almost the whole of the silica, when sufficient water was present, remained in solution. The acid liquid, saturated with ammonia, was evaporated on the water-bath; the residue dissolved in water and filtered gave on the one side silica mixed with the glass of the bulb, on the other a solution in which the chlorine was determined. The numbers obtained lead to the formula Si_2OCl_4 , from which the new body is seen to be an oxychloride of silicium.

Iodide of Silicium.—Mr. M. C. Friedel has given to the *Chemical News* the result of his recent studies of iodide of silicium. He makes it by the following process: In a tube he places crystallized silicium. The tube is heated to redness, and through it is passed the vapor of iodine, along with a completely desiccated carbonic acid. If the distillation of iodine is rapid, or if the silicium does not fill the tube, the product obtained is mixed with much iodine. But with a tube of sufficient length, and the exercise of caution, the crystals sublimed in the cool part of the tube will be white, and the liquid proceeding from their fusion yellowish. The product thus obtained, purified when necessary from iodine, by solution in sulphide of carbon and agitation with mercury, may be distilled in a current of carbonic acid without decomposition. Not so in the air, where its vapor, on being heated, catches fire, and burns with a red flame, emitting much iodine vapor. The product, distilled in carbonic acid, is colorless, or slightly yellowish. Its boiling-point is 290° , and at 120.5° it solidifies and crystallizes into a mass, having a watered appearance (*moiré*) which is nearly always rose-colored, owing to a slight decomposition which takes place at the moment the tube is sealed. In those parts of the vessel which were merely moistened by the liquid, dendrites are formed analogous to those of chlorhydrate of ammonium. The crystalline form of iodide of silicium is cubic, and it may be obtained either by sublimation, evaporation, or refrigeration of its solution, in small regular octahedra or groups of octahedra, which are transparent, colorless, and incapable of action on polarized light.

Iodide of silicium decomposes in water with formation of silica and iohydric acid, without liberation of hydrogen or precipitation of iodine. This reaction suffices to prove that its composition is analogous to that of the chloride, SiCl_4 . Its analysis is performed by breaking in a stoppered flask, and containing dilute ammonia, a glass bubble filled with the substance. When decomposition ceases, the liquid is evaporated in the same flask over a water-bath, a current of air being passed into it by means of an aspirator, and the liquid produced by evaporation condensed in a cool receiver. Without the latter precaution part of the iodine would be lost. After evaporation to dryness, the residue is taken up by the condensed water, filtered, and washed; and, in order to obtain the weight of the silica, it is merely necessary to deduct, from the weight found, that of the bubble. The iodine is precipitated in the filtering liquid. Thus figures are found agreeing with the formula SiI_4 . Following the excellent process of MM. Sainte-Claire Deville and Troost, the density of its vapor was taken in mercurial vapor. It was found indispensable to fill the globe with carbonic acid, and sundry precautions were used to prevent the reëntrance of air. At the close of the experiment, the globe proved to contain no free iodine. The number obtained for the density was 19.12. The theoretical value corresponding with the formula SiI_4 , and with two volumes of vapor is 18.56. These results complete the analogy of iodide of silicium with the chloride.

Persulphide of Hydrogen.—Dr. A. W. Hofmann has been investigating the constitution of persulphide of hydrogen, taking advantage of the fact that great quantities of the substance are produced in certain technical processes at Dienne. He has succeeded in rendering it certain that there is a persulphide having the formula H_2S_2 . When a cold saturated solution of strychnine in strong alcohol is added to an alcoholic solution of persulphide of ammonium, brilliant crystalline spangles soon appear, and, after twelve hours, beautiful orange-red needles are formed, which, after washing with cold water, are perfectly pure. They are insoluble in water, alcohol, ether, and bisulphide of carbon; in fact the author has found no solvent from which they could be recrystallized. Analysis leads to the formula $\text{C}_{21}\text{H}_{24}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2\text{S}_2 = \text{C}_{21}\text{H}_{22}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{S}_2$. In contact with sulphuric acid the crystals are decolorized, and, on adding water, colorless, transparent oily drops of persulphide of hydrogen are separated, which, after some time, are resolved into sulphur and sulphuretted hydrogen. Quinine, cinchonine, benzine, and some other alkaloids gave no analogous compounds.—(*Proc. Royal Society*, vol. xvi., p. 437.)

New Method of Sugar Manufacture.—M. Leplay's new process of extracting sugar from beet-root juice, as well as syrups and molasses of all descriptions, is thus alluded to in the *Chemical News*:

M. Leplay sought to extract the sugar from the matters in question, by transforming it into insoluble sucrate of lime, which has not yet been made on an industrial scale. This combination is effected in the saccharine fluids treated, less by an addition of ready-formed free lime, than by the aid of solutions of calcareous salts, and particularly of chloride of calcium, and of caustic soda, which precipitates the lime, and this combines and is precipitated with the sugar. The sucrate of lime, after precipitation, is decomposed by means of carbonic acid, the soda in the solution regenerated, and the carbonic acid obtained as a secondary product in the formation of the chloride of calcium. When a solution of sugar in water is saturated with all the lime which it is capable of absorbing, and boiled, there is formed a white precipitate of sucrate of lime, which is redissolved on cooling. The quantity of sugar thus eliminated is only a small proportion of that present, and the greater part remains in solution when the precipitate is separated from the liquid during ebullition. Feebler still is the proportion of sugar that can be extracted from beet-root juice or molasses, and the more impure the saccharine fluid is, the less considerable is the separation obtained by this means. On the contrary, the whole of the sugar may be precipitated in the state of sucrate of lime, when in the solution already saturated with lime, a fresh quantity of lime is separated in the nascent state, then the precipitation is independent of the degree of purity of the saccharine solutions. Besides the juice of the beet-root, the molasses of sugar-refineries are capable of treatment by the process. The quantity of soluble salts of lime present in the syrups, etc., exerts an influence on the proportion of calcareous salt which should be added; as these salts contain organic acids, the soda is no longer found in corresponding quantity, as chloride of sodium, but as carbonate of soda in the ash obtained from the mother liquor—an important advantage. The previous saturation of the liquor submitted to treatment by pure lime, before the addition of the calcareous salt, is then essential, since by this means a portion of the calcareous salt, which would be otherwise required, is replaced by the cheaper material, lime. The sucrate of lime precipitated is separated from the liquor, washed with water, and decomposed by carbonic acid.

Analysis of British Waters.—In an article which was read before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, on the 3d of April, 1868, by Professor Frankland, "On the proposed Water-supply for the Metropolis," he gives the following tables:

Results of Analysis of Welsh, Cumberland, and London Waters.

100,000 PARTS OF WATER GAVE—

	WELSH.	CUMBERLAND.	LONDON
	Mean.	Mean.	Mean.
Total solid impurity.....	4.85	4.74	32.66
Organic Carbon.....	.460	.276	.270
Organic Nitrogen.....	.006	.010	.025
Ammonia.....	.903	.002	.003
Nitrogen as Nitrates and Nitrites.....	.017	.009	.323
Total combined Nitrogen.....	.025	.021	.354
Previous sewage or manure contamination.....	.47	6	2930
Hardness.....	1.4	2.2	20.13
Lime.....	.599	1.113	9.822
Magnesia.....	.288	.272	.590
Potash.....	.126	.158	.851
Soda.....	.679	.532	1.666
Sulphuric Acid.....	1.093	.969	3.674
Carbonic Acid.....	.201	.691	7.187
Silica.....	.254	.133	.834
Chlorine.....	.876	.490	1.480

Analysis of London Waters, 1867, 1868.

100,000 PARTS OF WATER CONTAINED—

	Total solid impurity.	Organic Carbon.	Organic Nitrogen.	Previous Sewage Contamination.	Hardness.
THAMES.	Mean.	Mean.	Mean.	Mean.	Mean
1867	28.5	.272	.013	2062	19.3
January, 1868	30.9	.399	.048	3150	17.3
February, "	31.4	.339	.043	3010	19.3
March, "	30.0	.216	.028	2388	19.3
RIVER LEA.					
1867	27.5	.196	.005	1611	19.3
January, 1868	33.1	.131	.019	3030	21.6
February, "	32.6	.244	.031	3320	20.5
March, "	28.7	.088	.016	2115	19.5
KENT COUNTY.					
1867	39.3	2.13	.002	3619	25.6
January, 1868	44.8	.064	.013	3770	26.2
February, "	59.2	.081	.013	5330	30.0
March, "	70.2	.093	.029	3680	32.3

In reference to the sewage which pours into the Thames, and its chemical effect upon the waters, Professor Frankland says:

As average London sewage contains ten parts of combined nitrogen in 100,000 parts, it follows that 100,000 parts of this sewage as it flows into the Thames will contain only two parts of organic nitrogen. Further, if the sewage of the 600,000 persons who drain into the Thames above the point whence the water companies draw their supply have the strength of average London sewage, it will amount to 18,000,000 gallons daily, and if the average flow of the river at Teddington be taken at 800,000,000 gallons daily, it follows that the river will there contain 2,250 parts of sewage in 100,000 parts, or 2½ per cent. This quantity of sewage, if in the condition as delivered at the sewer outfall, would contaminate the whole volume of the river, only to the extent of .045 part of organic nitrogen in 100,000 parts of water. Now, on the 21st of January last the water delivered by the five companies drawing their supplies from the Thames contained the following amounts of organic nitrogen in 100,000 parts:

Chelsea (turbid).....	.058	Grand Junction (clear).....	.031
West Middlesex (clear).....	.027	Lambeth (turbid).....	.062
Southwark (turbid).....	.061		

It will be seen, therefore, that three out of the five samples of water actually contained more organic nitrogen than would be due to the admixture of the 18,000,000 gallons of sewage which are poured into the Thames above the point from which these samples came. But Thames water holds in solution a certain amount of peaty matter which contains organic nitrogen; a sufficient proportion of this substance, however, to furnish the above larger quantities of organic nitrogen would render the water brownish yellow when viewed in a quart decanter, while these samples of Thames water were, when filtered, colorless or nearly so. I am therefore of opinion that the Thames water delivered in London by the Chelsea, Southwark, and Lambeth companies on the 21st of January last contained unoxidized sewage. This opinion is confirmed by the results of some experiments which I have recently made in my laboratory, and which show that, contrary to the generally received opinion (which is, however, based upon no reliable experimental data), sewage in which the urea is already decomposed undergoes further change with extreme slowness, even when freely exposed to the air, and mixed with large volumes of water. Thus I find that a mixture of weak sewage from one of the London sewers with nine times its volume of water (containing bicarbonate of lime in solution) at a temperature of 20° to 25° C., and well agitated every day by being made to flow in a thin stream through three feet of air, oxidizes but to a slight extent in the course of eight days. Immediately after mixture this sewage-contaminated water contained .267 part

of organic carbon and .081 part of organic nitrogen in 100,000 parts, while after ninety-six hours it still contained .250 part of organic carbon and .058 part of organic nitrogen, and even after the lapse of 192 hours the undecomposed organic matter still contained .200 part of organic carbon, and .054 part of organic nitrogen.

Carbon Tubes and Crucibles.—Mr. G. Gore, having had occasion to use small rods and vessels of carbon free (or nearly so) from silica for experiments with hydrofluoric acid, and with fused fluorides, devised the following method of obtaining them: Articles and vessels of the desired shape, but of sufficient dimensions to allow for shrinkage, were formed of different kinds of wood. The kinds used were lignum vitæ, boxwood, beech, kingwood, ebony, ironwood, mahogany, zebrawood, Memel oak, rosewood, "bastard rosewood," maple, lancewood, walnut, Norwegian pine, partridge-wood, "Brazilletta," cocoa-wood, vegetable ivory, coquilla-nut, and the hard shell of the cocoa-nut. The carbonizing was done in a copper tube retort, provided with two exit tubes for the escape of gas, the tube being placed horizontally between fire-bricks, and heated with extreme slowness at first, and finally to bright redness by means of a row of Bunsen's burners. It was necessary continually to turn the retort, and so to distribute the heat, during the burning process, that none of the evolved tarry matter condensed; otherwise it altered their form and dimensions in a curious and fantastic manner. The red heat was continued until gas ceased to be evolved. If the burning was too rapid, the articles fell to pieces or cracked very much. The articles usually shrank about one-fourth of their original dimensions during the process. The best kinds of these various materials were found to be lignum vitæ, kingwood, ebony, and beech; rods made from most of these had a remarkably clear, metallic sound, when struck. The rods made from lignum vitæ and the other denser materials conducted electricity most admirably. The following were found to be chief conditions of success in carbonizing woods: 1. Vegetable materials of the hardest kinds and closest texture; 2. Wood of the straightest grain, free from knots and splits; 3. Very slowly heated and dried; 4. The heat very uniformly distributed; 5. Prolonged high temperature at the last; 6. Gradual cooling.

CHILDS, HENRY HALSEY, M.D., a distinguished physician and medical professor of Massachusetts, at one time Lieutenant-Governor of the State, born in Pittsfield, Mass., June 7, 1783; died in Boston, March 22, 1868. He was of patriotic Revolutionary ancestry, both on the father's and mother's side. He entered Williams College at the age of fifteen, and graduated with distinction in the class of 1802. His father was an eminent physician, and the son studied with him, and was in partnership with him in his practice, until the death of the father. He introduced into Pittsfield very early, and against much opposition,

the practice of vaccination. In 1822, as indeed for some years previous, Dr. Childs had advocated in the Berkshire Medical Society the establishment of a medical school in Pittsfield, for the benefit of the large number of young men in Western Massachusetts and the adjacent States who desired convenient facilities for obtaining a medical education. He succeeded in 1822 in raising a committee of the Medical Society, of which he was chairman, to petition and make efforts for the incorporation of such a school by the Legislature, and after considerable opposition obtained a charter. In September, 1823, the medical school was organized under the title of Berkshire Medical Institute, and Dr. Childs became professor of the theory and practice of medicine. He gave himself zealously to the work of obtaining an endowment, erecting buildings, and procuring a cabinet and library for the young institution. In 1837 it was detached from Williams College, to which it had hitherto been subject, in the matter of conferring degrees, and Dr. Childs was elected president of the college, as it was thenceforward named. He administered its affairs and retained his professorship until 1863, having been connected with it for forty-one years. He was elected Professor Emeritus, on resigning his active duties. The annual number of students, while it was under his charge, exceeded one hundred. During all this time he had a large medical practice, and for many years was a member of the faculty of the medical colleges at Woodstock, Vermont, and Cleveland and Columbus, Ohio, where he annually gave courses of lectures. He was a Jeffersonian Democrat through life, and as such represented Pittsfield in the Legislatures of 1816 and 1827, Berkshire County in the Constitutional Convention of 1820, and was elected Lieutenant-Governor in 1843. His whole life was characterized by benevolence, kindness, and the most unflinching integrity.

CHILI, a republic in South America. President, for the term from 1866 to 1871, José Joaquín Pérez. Minister of the United States in Chili, Judson Kilpatrick (since November 11, 1865). In the budget for 1866, the revenue amounted to 9,205,627 piastres; expenditures to 9,075,936; the budget for 1867 fixes the revenue at 9,756,838, expenditures at 10,814,000; the budget for 1868, the expenditures at 10,906,986.

The home debt at the close of 1867 amounted to 16,415,673 piastres; and the foreign debt to 21,415,000 piastres: total debt, 37,830,673 piastres. The army is composed of a corps of volunteers (3,700 in 1868), and of the national guards, the number of whom, according to an official document, amounted, at the close of 1865, to 35,600 men. The fleet consisted, in May, 1867, of fourteen screw steamers, with one hundred and twenty cannons. Four river steamers which in 1867 were bought in the United States, and sent to Valparaiso, with the object of converting them

into ships-of-war, although thoroughly overhauled and repaired on their arrival, were discovered to be almost utterly worthless in their new capacity, and, after having laid idle for more than a year, were sold at a very great decrease on the original purchase money, the sale causing to the Government a loss of \$183,000.

A new census of Chili was taken in April, 1866, according to which the area of Chili is 132,624 square miles; the population (inclusive of Araucania, Patagonia, and Terra del Fuego) is 2,084,945; the foreigners resident in the country numbered 23,220 (among whom were 3,876 Germans, 3,092 Englishmen, 2,483 Frenchmen); 832 of the inhabitants are from one hundred to one hundred and forty years of age, and 9,635 are physically or mentally helpless.

The commerce of Chili during the years 1861 to 1866 was as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.
1866.....	\$18,760,000	\$26,680,000
1865.....	21,240,000	24,900,000
1861-'65, annual average	18,900,000	21,690,000

The number of vessels entering the Chilean ports in 1866 was 3,094, making, together, 1,417,000 tons.

The merchant navy in 1865 numbered 257 vessels, together of 67,090 tons.

The national banks, in 1868, asked permission to issue notes to the full extent of their privileges, and obtained authority to do so as follows: National Bank of Chili, 3,300,000 piastres; Valparaiso Bank, 600,000; A. Edwards & Co., 600,000; McClure & Co., 600,000; Ossa & Co., 240,000.

To promote immigration, the Chilean Government entered into a contract with Godeffroy & Son, of Hamburg, for the introduction of Swiss and German colonists. The immigrants will have to be provided with good characters, viséd by the Chilean consul at Hamburg, and on their arrival out they will be sent on to Arauco by the Government and placed in possession of their land according to the terms of the law. The colonists will be furnished with 'tween-deck passages, and they will be allowed one ton of measurement for every adult, and one half ton for each person under twelve years, and they are to be treated on board in conformity with the Hamburg Passenger Act. The Government agrees to pay \$40 for the passage of each adult, and \$20 for each child under twelve years of age. The contract is to last four years, and, if the scheme should meet with favor in Germany, the Government agree to contract for one hundred families for the first year, one hundred and fifty for the second, two hundred for the third, and three hundred for the fourth; with liberty to Godeffroy & Son to exceed this number to the extent of twenty-five per cent.

Early in the year, arrangements were entered into between the representative of Chili in London and Lord Stanley, in order to facilitate

the departure from the Thames of two Chilian corvettes, the *Chacabuco* and the *O'Higgins*, and at the same time balancing the matter by consenting to the sailing of two Spanish iron-clads. The four vessels had suffered detention for some months, owing to the war existing between Spain and the allied republics of the Pacific. After the meeting of Congress, the Minister of Foreign Affairs presented to the Houses all the papers relating to the matter. These throw no new light on the subject, but very bitterly condemn the action of the Peruvian *Chargé d'Affaires* in London, who formally protested against the consummation of the agreement referred to. This protest made to the English Government showed, it is alleged, to the world the little true feeling of friendship and amity existing between the so-called allied republics. The report of the Chilian Government states that the arrangement entered into is highly advantageous to the allied republics, as they have the privilege of buying and exporting from England material of war to the value of £400,000, the difference in the cost of the Spanish and Chilian vessels, and that Government has already given orders to its agents in London to purchase a monitor which will, by the terms of the convention, be allowed to sail immediately on its completion. The House of Deputies, after two days of warm discussion, adopted the following proposition by a vote of 47 to 8: "The House of Deputies having before them the documents, and having heard the explanations given by the minister, approves the proceedings of the Government in the transaction made in London to liberate the corvettes *Chacabuco* and *O'Higgins*."

The Congress of Chili was opened on the 1st of June. The President delivered at the opening the usual message. The main topics upon which it touches are the war with Spain and all relating to it, the affair of the corvettes, and the question of electoral reform. As far as regards the war, the President disbelieves in a renewal of hostilities, and begs that, in consequence, the extraordinary powers granted him by the war statute of 1865 be revoked. The merchants who addressed a protest to the British Government on the subject of the departure of the Chilian corvettes and the Spanish iron-clads may, therefore, rest assured that, so far as Chili is concerned, there is no danger of fresh hostilities. On the question of electoral reform, the President expresses his full adherence to the measures proposed, and recommends them to the consideration of Congress. In August, the Chamber of Deputies accepted, by 42 to 16 votes, a motion by *Señor Sanfuentes* to impeach the Supreme Court, of which *ex-President Montt* is president. The impeachment trial created great excitement, the Liberal party sympathizing with the Supreme Court.

The Government had again considerable trouble with the Araucanian Indians. These savages have always been remarkable for their

ferocity, and for a settled determination to repel all advances made by the Government with a view to civilize and improve them. Since the colonization of the country by the Spaniards, the Araucanians have always held their own portion of the republic intact, and only lately has the Government been enabled to take some effectual steps toward opening to commerce and improvement the very valuable territory held by the Indians. On the 25th of April, a small outpost of Chilian troops, numbering one hundred and sixty-nine rank and file, was furiously attacked by six hundred of the savages, the latter armed with their bows, arrows, and spears, and after a sharp combat of some hours the troops were obliged to fly, leaving twenty-five of their number killed and wounded. Among the killed were several officers. The troops, however, inflicted a severe punishment on the Indians before the latter proved too strong for them. As a general movement of the Indians against the frontier settlements was feared, the Government dispatched a column of 1,400 men with a section of artillery to the theatre of war. This division, commanded by Colonel *San Martin*, an able and experienced soldier, prevented the repetition of disasters.

On August 13th, several places on the coast of Chili, especially *Talcabuana*, were visited by an earthquake. The damage done was, however, not so great as in Ecuador and Peru (*see EARTHQUAKES*).

On the 13th of May the first steamer of the line which places Chili in direct communication with Europe, by the way of the Straits of Magellan, sailed from Valparaiso. The line receives a government subsidy of \$60,000 annually, which will be increased to \$100,000 as soon as the line shall be permanently established.

In accordance with the notice given in 1867, the Government abolished the free-trade treaty with the Argentine Confederation. This treaty, which established a complete exemption from duties in favor of the overland trade, was concluded in 1856, during *Montt's* administration in Chili, and *Urquiza's* in the Argentine Republic. The majority of the Chilian press censured the decree abolishing the treaty as prejudicial to both parties.

CHIMNEY, THE TALLEST.—The chimney at the Port Dundas Works, Glasgow, is the tallest chimney and one of the highest masonry structures in existence. In Europe there are only two church steeples, those of the Strasburg Cathedral and of St. Stephen's Church, in Vienna, which, by a few feet, exceed the height of this chimney, and the great Pyramid of Ghizeh was—but is not at present—the only other human erection exceeding this great chimney in height. The dimensions of the chimney are: total height from foundation, 468 feet; height above ground, 454 feet; outside diameter at the level of ground, 32 feet; outside diameter at the top, 12 feet 8 inches;

thickness at ground level, 7 bricks; thickness at the top, $1\frac{1}{2}$ bricks. From this it will be seen that the portion below ground, which contains not only the foundation proper, but also the flues, with their arches and coverings, occupies a depth of 14 feet. The flues are four in number, placed at right angles to each other, so as to form an equilateral cross in the plan; they are of rectangular section, about 7 feet wide, and 9 feet high each, and arched both at the top and bottom. The foundation below these flues is built up from hard bricks, all placed on edge throughout several superposed layers up to the sides of the flues, which are arched and lined with fire-bricks. The masonry above the flues is built with the bricks laid flat in the usual way. The internal diameter at the base is 20 feet, and it gradually contracts toward the top to 10 feet 4 inches diameter. Up to a height of 50 feet there is an internal lining of fire-brick placed within the chimney proper, with an air-space between it and the outer wall. The outline of the whole structure is of extreme simplicity, viz., the form of a truncated cone, without any deviation, ornamentation, or addition. The "batter" is straight from the bottom to the top, and there is no "cap" or other protruding ornament at the top. The section is circular throughout. Professor Rankine, in his report upon the stability of this chimney, calculated the maximum pressure of wind which this structure is capable of resist at different horizontal joints, and the figures given by him are as follows:

Height of joint above ground.	Greatest safe pressure of wind.
360 ft.	90 lb. per sq. ft.
280 ft.	64 lb. "
200 ft.	63 lb. "
120 ft.	66 lb. "
40 ft.	74 lb. "

From this it appears that with the straight outline the line of weakness, or the point of least stability, is somewhere about 200 feet from the ground, and that at this spot the chimney should be thicker, in order to have an equal stability throughout. Yet, as the capability of resistance at any point is in excess of what it will ever be called on to exert, simplicity of construction is more important than the theoretical outline.

The Port Dundas chimney has, during its erection, undergone one of the most interesting and curious operations known in masonry practice, viz., the straightening by sawing the mortar-joints. The mortar in the newly-built portion of the work being still soft and plastic, the pressure of the wind caused a lateral deflection of the column, amounting to 7 feet 9 inches from the vertical at the top. The whole structure was thereby endangered, and, in order to restore its stability, it was necessary to bring it back to the vertical line. The operation of sawing, which was then resorted to, consists in attacking the mortar-joints at the windward side, and to reduce their thickness, so as to compensate for the compression of the mortar-

joints at the opposite side, effected by the pressure of wind. The sawing was done by first removing a portion of the brickwork inside the chimney, forming a groove about 14 inches wide half round the interior surface of the chimney. Narrow holes were then cut out by means of chisels, the workmen standing upon the internal scaffolding, and working exclusively from the inside. A saw with a single handle—in reality an old carpenter's saw—was the instrument employed. It was passed through one of the holes cut out so as to work through a horizontal mortar-joint, and it was then worked by hand, removing the mortar, as it proceeded through the joint, through part of the half circle on the windward side. Generally two saws were simultaneously employed, working in opposite directions toward each other. The mortar-joint operated upon was kept wet by a jet of water during the whole process, and the removed brickwork in the interior was replaced by fresh bricks as the sawing proceeded. As soon as the greater portion of any one mortar-joint is sawn through, the effect produced upon the superincumbent mass causes the latter to settle, and a considerable pressure is thereby exerted upon the saw, making it difficult to withdraw. If the precaution is taken to commence sawing at the lowest joints, and proceed in succession to the higher cuts, this difficulty is considerably lessened. In the case of the Port Dundas chimney, sawing was commenced at the top, 128 feet below the chimney-cope, and twelve cuts were made in unequal distances, varying from 12 feet to 49 feet. Judging by the effects produced by each incision, the spots were selected for the next cut by proceeding gradually downward until the last cut, 41 feet from the ground, restored the whole chimney to a perfectly perpendicular position. The chimney after sawing stood more correctly perpendicular than it had been before the action of the storm, and it is now more correct in that respect than the majority of well-built chimneys of much smaller sizes. The operation of sawing occupied nine days, from September 21st till October 1st, 1859, and the chimney has from that date remained in its perfect condition, requiring no further strengthenings or repairs.

CHINA, an empire in Eastern Asia. Emperor, Ki-Tsiang (before his accession to the throne, Tsai-Sung), born April 5, 1855; succeeded his father, Hieng-Fund, August 22, 1861. The estimates of the area of China Proper vary from 1,294,000 to 1,548,000 English square miles; and of the area of the dependencies of China, from 3,012,000 to 3,118,000 English square miles. The total area of China and dependencies is given by Behm (*Geograph. Jahrbuch*, vol. ii.) as 4,695,334 square miles. The population of China Proper was in 1812 estimated at 361,993,179; in 1842, at 414,686,994; and in 1866, at 450,000,000. The population of the dependencies of China is estimated as follows: Mantchooria, 3,000,000; Mongolia,

3,000,000; Thian-Shan-nanlu and Thian-Shan-pelu, together, 1,000,000; Thibet, 11,000,000; Corea, 9,000,000; the Loo-Choo Islands 500,000. The total population of China and dependencies would therefore be about 477,500,000. At the head of the department of Foreign Affairs is Prince Kung, an uncle of the Emperor. The empire is divided into eighteen provinces, each of which has a particular administration, army, and finances. The Chinese army, according to a recent statement (Moger, "Recollections of Baron Gross's Embassy to China and Japan," London, 1860), consists of about 600,000 men, scattered throughout the empire. Besides, there are about 200,000 Tartars at the immediate disposition of the government. The soldiers, when not on duty, practise some trade at their residences, so that it may be said that China has no standing army.

The revenue, according to an official report made in 1864, amounted to £63,934,713. The receipts from customs in the ports open to foreign commerce, from 1861 to 1866, were as follows:

	Average Annual Receipts, 1861 to 1865.	Duties paid, 1866.
Duties on Imports.....	£1,297,605	£3,285,852
" Opium.....	1,061,298	
" Exports.....	3,564,018	
Tonnage Duties.....	219,257	217,732
Duties on Coasting Trade	325,992	529,086
" Native Produce	53,726	27,249
Total.....	£6,521,896	£8,685,629
1865.....		8,177,144

The foreign commerce in the year 1867, according to official statements, was as follows (value expressed in taels, one tael = seven shillings):

PORTS.	Imports.	Exports.
Shanghai.....	44,330,000	29,230,000
Canton.....	7,860,000	10,550,000
Swatow.....	4,780,000	220,000
Amoy.....	5,800,000	1,760,000
Foochow.....	3,870,000	14,320,000
Takao.....	160,000	20,000
Tamsui.....	400,000	60,000
Ningpo.....	750,000	10,000
Ching-kiang.....
Kinkiang.....
Hankow.....	10,000	570,000
Chefoo.....	770,000	190,000
Tientsin.....	790,000	950,000
Newchang.....	370,000	10,000
Total.....	69,330,000	57,900,000

The movement of shipping in the years 1864 to 1866 was as follows:

YEARS.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1866.....	15,672	6,877,582
1865.....	16,628	7,136,301
1864.....	17,966	6,635,485

The appointment of Mr. Anson Burlingame, United States ambassador in Pekin, as the first ambassador of China to the United States and

the Governments of Europe, has already been announced in the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867. Information, received too late to be made use of in our former volume, shows how this appointment came to be made and accepted. Mr. Burlingame, as American minister, gave the Chinese Government ample proof of his diplomatic ability, and of his sincere friendliness to China. He took the lead in urging the adoption of what is known as the coöperative policy, by which the autonomy of that country has been guaranteed, and the old method of extorting concessions by menace and force has been discarded. He drew up a paper construing the doubtful passages in the treaties, which was accepted by all the members of the diplomatic body at Pekin. He successfully opposed the concession of territory in the neighborhood of the seaports to foreign powers. He procured, with the assistance of Sir Frederick Bruce, the exclusion of confederate pirates from Chinese waters. He induced the Chinese Government to employ Mr. Pampelly to make a thorough examination of the coal-mines of Northern China. He procured the grant for the submarine telegraph from Canton to Nintsing. He has constantly aided the missionaries in their work, has used all his influence to promote the study of the European languages and the natural sciences in Pekin, and has induced the Chinese Government to employ foreigners in its custom-houses, and in other departments of the civil service.

Early in November, Mr. Burlingame informed the Chinese Government that he intended to resign his post and return to his country. It was attempted, unsuccessfully, to dissuade him from this purpose. Finding him resolute, Prince Kung tendered him the compliment of a farewell dinner. All the members of the council of Foreign Affairs were present. Several mandarins spoke of the great service which Mr. Burlingame had done China during his visit to Europe and this country in 1865. Mr. Burlingame answered that he would always be ready to say a good word for their country when the chance should present itself to him.

The idea of the embassy seems to have been suggested by these speeches. The Inspector-General of Customs and the secretary of the British Legation were consulted, and, two days after the dinner, a deputation of high officials waited on Mr. Burlingame, and offered him an appointment as ambassador. He accepted on the single condition that the embassy "should be placed in all respects on a footing of the highest respectability." Mr. Burlingame placed his resignation as American minister in the hands of Dr. Williams, his secretary of legation. A week afterward he received his credentials from the hands of Prince Kung. The document is written on yellow silk, and bears the great seal of the empire. With regard to the Chinese officials

who were selected to accompany Mr. Burlingame, dispatches were addressed to the foreign ministers in Pekin, to the effect that the Chinese are novitiates in the art of foreign diplomacy, and that one object in their appointment is to fit them to represent China at the courts of the treaty powers at a future date. The document expresses a strong wish on the part of the Chinese to become better understood by foreign powers, and evinces a desire to enter upon a course of progress.

Mr. Burlingame left Pekin on the morning of November 25th. He was escorted to the gates by all the foreign residents, including his colleagues in the diplomatic body. In his suite were the late Secretary of the British Legation, a French gentleman lately holding a high office in the Maritime Customs, two mandarins, six *attachés* selected from the new college at Pekin, and some twenty others. The party were compelled to stop at a village about forty-five miles from Pekin, and send to that city for an armed escort to protect them from a formidable band of robbers which was scouring the district. Fortunately, they were not attacked.

Mr. Burlingame arrived at Shanghai on December 10, 1867, and sailed from there for Europe on February 25, 1868. Before leaving, he made a visit of courtesy to the Viceroy, resident at Nanking. Prior to and during his absence the official proclamation of the creation of the mission and the appointment of Mr. Burlingame was issued, and, during his stay at Shanghai, the high mandarins and government officials in the region round about Shanghai made official calls upon Mr. Burlingame, and manifested in every way the extreme respect and awe in which they held him in consequence of the position in which he had been confirmed, and the unprecedented dignity conferred upon him. It was found impossible to prevent them from prostrating themselves before Mr. Burlingame, and he could only remain passive and receive their attentions. On March 31st, Mr. Burlingame and the other members of the embassy arrived at San Francisco, where they were received with great honors. After a short stay in San Francisco, Mr. Burlingame proceeded to Washington, and entered at once into negotiations for a treaty, containing additional articles to the treaty of June 18, 1858. On the 4th of July, the treaty was signed in Washington; on the 11th it was transmitted to the Senate, which on the 16th ratified it, with but few and slight modifications. The text of the treaty, as ratified by the Senate, is as follows:

Additional articles to the treaty between the United States of America and the Ta-Tsing Empire, of the 18th of June, 1858.

Whereas, since the conclusion of the treaty between the United States of America and the Ta-Tsing empire (China), of the 18th of June, 1858, circumstances have arisen showing the necessity of additional articles thereto, the President of the United States and the august sovereign of the United States and the august sovereign of the Ta-Tsing empire having

named for their plenipotentiaries, to wit, the President of the United States of America, Wm. H. Seward, Secretary of State, and his Majesty the Emperor of China, Anson Burlingame, accredited as his Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, and Chih-Kang and Sun Chia-Ku, of the second Chinese rank, associated High Envoys and Ministers of his said Majesty, and the said plenipotentiaries, after having exchanged their full powers found to be in due and proper form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE 1. His Majesty the Emperor of China, being of the opinion that, in making concessions to the citizens or subjects of foreign powers of the privilege of residing on certain tracts of land, or resorting to certain waters of that empire for the purposes of trade, he has by no means relinquished his right of eminent domain or dominion over the said land and waters, hereby agrees that no such concession or grant shall be construed to give to any power or party which may be at war with or hostile to the United States the right to attack the citizens of the United States or their property within the said lands or waters; and the United States, for themselves, hereby agree to abstain from offensively attacking the citizens or subjects of any power or party, or their property, with which they may be at war, on any such tract of land or waters of the said empire; but nothing in this article shall be construed to prevent the United States from resisting an attack by any hostile power or party upon their citizens or their property. It is further agreed that if any right or interest in any tract of land in China has been or shall hereafter be granted by the Government of China to the United States or their citizens for purposes of trade or commerce, that grant shall in no event be construed to divest the Chinese authorities of their right of jurisdiction over persons and property within said tract of land, except so far as that right may have been expressly relinquished by treaty.

ART. 2. The United States of America and his Majesty the Emperor of China, believing that the safety and prosperity of commerce will thereby best be promoted, agree that any privilege or immunity in respect to trade or navigation within the Chinese dominions, which may not have been stipulated for by treaty, shall be subject to the discretion of the Chinese Government and may be regulated by it accordingly, but not in a manner or spirit incompatible with the treaty stipulations of the parties.

ART. 3. The Emperor of China shall have the right to appoint consuls at ports of the United States, who shall enjoy the same privileges and immunities as those which are enjoyed, by public law and treaty, in the United States by the consuls of Great Britain and Russia, or either of them.

ART. 4. The twenty-ninth article of the treaty of the 18th of June, 1858, having stipulated for the exemption of Christian citizens of the United States and Chinese converts from persecution in China on account of their faith, it is further agreed that citizens of the United States in China of every religious persuasion and Chinese subjects in the United States shall enjoy entire liberty of conscience and shall be exempt from all disability of persecution on account of their religious faith or worship in either country. Cemeteries for the sepulture of the dead, of whatever nativity or nationality, shall be held in respect and free from disturbance or profanation.

ART. 5. The United States of America and the Emperor of China cordially recognize the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance, and also the mutual advantage of the free migration and emigration of their citizens and subjects respectively from the one country to the other for purposes of curiosity, trade, or as permanent residents. The high contracting parties, therefore, join in reprobating any other than an entirely voluntary emigration for these purposes. They consequently agree to pass laws making it a penal offence

for a citizen of the United States or a Chinese subject to take Chinese subjects either to the United States or to any other foreign country, or for a Chinese subject or a citizen of the United States to take citizens of the United States to China or to any other foreign country, without their free and voluntary consent respectively.

ART. 6. Citizens of the United States visiting or residing in China shall enjoy the same privileges, immunities, or exemptions, in respect to travel or residence, as may there be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation, and, reciprocally, Chinese subjects visiting or residing in the United States shall enjoy the same privileges, immunities, and exemptions, in respect to travel or residence, as may there be enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation; but nothing herein contained shall be held to confer naturalization upon the citizens of the United States in China, nor upon the subjects of China in the United States.

ART. 7. Citizens of the United States shall enjoy all the privileges of the public educational institutions under the control of the government of China, and reciprocally Chinese subjects shall enjoy all the privileges of the public educational institutions under the control of the Government of the United States, which are enjoyed in the respective countries by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nations. The citizens of the United States may freely establish and maintain schools within the empire of China at those places where foreigners are by treaty permitted to reside, and reciprocally Chinese subjects may enjoy the same privileges and immunities in the United States.

ART. 8. The United States, always disclaiming and discouraging all practices of unnecessary dictation and intervention by one nation in the affairs or domestic administration of another, do hereby freely disclaim any intention or right to intervene in the domestic administration of China in regard to the construction of railroads, telegraphs, or other material internal improvements. On the other hand, his Majesty the Emperor of China reserves to himself the right to decide the time and manner and circumstances of introducing such improvements within his dominions. With this mutual understanding, it is agreed by the contracting parties that, if at any time hereafter his Imperial Majesty shall determine to construct or cause to be constructed works of the character mentioned, within the empire, and shall make application to the United States or any other Western Power for facilities to carry out that policy, the United States will, in that case, designate and authorize suitable engineers to be employed by the Chinese Government, and will recommend to other nations an equal compliance with such application, the Chinese Government in that case protecting such engineers in their persons and property, and paying them a reasonable compensation for their service.

In faith whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed this treaty and hereunto affixed the seals of their arms.

Done at Washington the fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD,
ANSON BURLINGAME,
CHIH-KANG,
SUN CHIA-KU.

The new treaty was received in the United States with general satisfaction, and Mr. Burlingame and his embassy were the recipients of great ovations. The English press, on the other hand, expressed the greatest dissatisfaction with the new treaty, which was represented as a victory of American over English diplomacy, and as altogether made in the interest of Americans. When Mr. Burlingame

arrived in England, he was at first received with studied coldness; but he succeeded in bringing about an understanding with the English statesmen, and in finally concluding a treaty, similar to the one with the United States. As the result of the agreement with China, the *London Times* remarks, that England now openly and formally recognizes the authority and obligations of the Supreme Government of the Chinese empire. England has even insisted on this recognition, and required that it should be mutual. A British minister is now actually resident at the court of Peking, charged with the protection of British interests in China. If these interests are attacked or imperilled, it is the duty of the minister to remonstrate, and of the Chinese Government to attend to his representation. If, however, British representatives in various parts of China could do no more in any exigency than transmit a complaint to Peking, much mischief might be done before the court of Peking could interfere. Reservation is made, therefore, for cases of actual danger to life and property. But on occasions where there is no expectation of violence, and merely a conflict of claims or dispute about rights, then the British consul shall, instead of summoning the captain of the nearest gunboat, put himself directly in communication with his superior at Peking. That minister would succeed in obtaining the desired consideration or redress, failing which, the Home Government might be consulted as to ulterior considerations, and might transmit its decision. At the close of the year, Mr. Burlingame left England for France; where the entire press received him with favorable comments upon the objects of his mission.

The United States steamer *Shenandoah* visited the coast of Corea, but could obtain no satisfactory information of the men on board the steamer *General Sherman*, which was wrecked there in 1867. The *Shenandoah* returned to Chefoo, on May 19, 1868, and reported, that, after spending four days in sounding among the islands which lay off Corea, the vessel anchored inside the river Ping-yang. From this point surveys were continued till the 21st of April, when a point about 25 miles from the mouth, where the natives have established a military station, was arrived at. This was the farthest point reached. The river is upward of a mile wide, and from six to eight fathoms deep. The boat in which the *Shenandoah's* officers were taking soundings was here fired upon, and, as Captain Febiger's instructions did not warrant the use of force, farther progress was abandoned. From all that could be learned, it was believed that none of the ill-fated party on board the *General Sherman* survived. The natives in their statements varied so much, that they betrayed a wish to conceal the real facts of the case, but they fully agreed in stating that all who were on board perished.

A proclamation was issued in May, notifying the disarmament of all Chinese fishing-junks

trading at Hong-Kong. This measure was adopted in order to suppress piracy in those waters, it having been found that, under cover of trading, numerous junkmen yet continue their old practice as freebooters.

The Christian missionaries, as well as foreigners in general, met with more or less of opposition in their labors, both from the people and from provincial authorities. Violent placards against the Christian religion were posted in several places. An anti-foreign riot occurred at Yung Chow, near Chin-Kiang. The mob burned and destroyed some missionary premises, and attempted to murder the inmates. The British consul at Shanghai, in the British ship *Rinaldo*, instituted an inquiry in the matter and demanded reparation. When this was not immediately granted, three British war-vessels went up to Nanking and threatened to enforce the demand. The Chinese authorities then yielded. In reply to the remonstrance of the French consul-general, the following proclamation was issued:

October 7, 1868.

Taou-tsi Ying to the Consul-General of France at Shanghai:

NOBLE CONSUL-GENERAL: I have received your dispatch on the subject of the anonymous proclamation fixed to the Great East Gate, etc.

The laws of the empire strictly forbid these anonymous proclamations, and I have ordered the Che-Hsien to find out and severely punish the offenders. At the same time, I will issue a proclamation, of which I herewith forward a copy:

PROCLAMATION.

The consul-general of France having advised me that an anonymous proclamation has been fixed at the Great East Gate, in which absurd rumors are spread about with audacious effrontery, he begs me to find out and punish the offenders, and at the same time forwards me the proclamation in question.

An anonymous proclamation is in itself a grave violation of the laws of the empire. In addition, the construction of churches and the propagation of the Christian religion, as done by Europeans in the empire of China, are authorized by the treaty; and further, it is optional with every individual to follow or not to follow this religion as he likes. Why, then, should such proclamation be fixed up contrary to law? It is evidently a violation of the laws. I have given orders to the Che-Hsien to find out the authors of this proclamation, and to punish them severely. I also publish this proclamation to inform the inhabitants of this part of the country and those from other provinces residing at Shanghai, that anonymous placards are prohibited, and that the right to propagate religion is contained in the treaty. In future, therefore, all must preserve peace and harmony, and each be allowed to follow his own belief and his liberty of conscience. Those who have the audacity to disobey will be arrested, judged, and punished without remission, and with all the severity of the law. Tremble!

The Government at Peking invariably showed a firm resolution to protect the missionaries and foreigners.

The Island of Formosa suffered greatly from an earthquake which took place on December 18, 1867. The shock pursued almost a direct course over the island from Keelung to Yamsin, at which latter place it was felt very severely, as well in loss of life as in the destruction of prop-

erty and houses, including a temple which had just been completed at a cost of \$30,000. A village on the northern extremity of the island suffered greatly, having lost 1,000 people. The number of lives lost was estimated at 30,000. Shocks of earthquake were also felt at Shanghai and Ningpo.

The Shanghai Steam Navigation Company held its annual meeting in February. The report states that the profits for the year amount to 806,000 taels. They have paid all debts and have 14 first-class steamers running to Hankow, Tientsin, Chefoo, Ningpo, and Hong-Kong. The company have purchased three more steamers—the *Express*, *Manchua*, and *Warrior*. A stock dividend of 50 per cent. upon the old shares of 1,000 taels has been declared. New stock is to be issued at 100 taels per share, and the old stock can be converted into new stock at a pro-rata proportion.

The existence of extensive coal-fields in China has been long known. Recent researches, of persons competent to express opinions, have demonstrated that these fields are distributed over wide districts and are well situated for utility. They may be found near Newchwang, Peking, and Chefoo, in the north; at different points along the Yang-tse-Kiang Rivers, and near Hankow in the centre, and back of Swatow and Canton in the south. Mr. Pumpelly believes that, in respect of the extent of her coal-fields, China is not less favored than the United States; but he, as well as others, is unwilling to say that the coal is of equally good quality.

Important gold-fields were discovered in the neighborhood of Chefoo. Large numbers of foreigners were going to them, notwithstanding the fact that the authorities had forbidden it, and the foreign consuls had warned their respective subjects against it. The Chinese authorities were finally induced to protect the foreign miners.

Some of the northern provinces were again considerably troubled during the early part of the year by the movements of the Nienfei and Mohammedan rebels. At one time they were threatening Tientsin, after winning several victories over the Imperialists. Business in Tientsin was completely paralyzed. The Tientsin authorities enrolled a considerable number of militia, and put the ramparts in a state of defence. The foreigners also formed themselves into a defence corps, to aid the British gunboat *Dove* in protecting foreign lives. The rebels, at this time, consisted of three different factions, which had united: Taepings, from Honan; Nienfei, from Shantung; and Mohammedans, from Shansi. The danger was, however, averted, and in the latter months of the year the operations of the rebels were of little importance.

CLARK, REV. LABAN, D. D., an eminent and venerable Methodist clergyman, born in Haverhill, N. H., July 19, 1778; died at Middletown, Conn., November 28, 1868. In his childhood his parents removed to Bradford, Vt., where

he obtained a fair academical education. He was not brought into contact with the Methodists until he was nineteen years of age, and the succeeding year (1798) united with a Methodist church, and soon became active as a class-leader and exhorter. He commenced preaching in 1800, and in 1801 joined the New-York Conference, and entered upon the itinerant work, in which he continued with unflagging zeal and great success for fifty years, in New England, New York, and Canada. He attained a high reputation as a successful and able preacher. In 1819 he offered the first resolution in favor of forming the Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and, in conjunction with Nathan Bangs and Free-born Garretson, prepared its constitution. He was also one of the founders, and most active and zealous patrons, of the Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., and when he had passed his half century in the itinerancy, he withdrew from active labor in preaching (in 1851) and settled himself at Middletown, that he might the better watch over the university. He was a man of clear intellect and decided opinions, a voluminous reader and a sound and able thinker, and withal of genial, cheerful nature, winning in a remarkable degree the love and esteem of all with whom he was brought in contact.

COBB, HOWELL, a Southern statesman, born at Cherry Hill, Jefferson County, Ga., September 7, 1815; died suddenly in New York City, October 9, 1868. He was educated at Franklin College, Athens, where he graduated in 1834. He then turned his attention to the study of the law, and was admitted to the bar in 1836. The first office held by him was that of Solicitor-General of the Western Circuit of Georgia, to which position he was elected by the Legislature in 1837. He held the office for three years, and during that period laid the foundations of an extensive and lucrative practice. In 1843 commenced his long and stormy congressional career. He was elected a member of the House of Representatives four times in succession, serving from 1843 to 1851, and distinguished himself by his familiarity with the rules of the House, his skill as a debater, his vehement professions of love for the Union, and his equally earnest advocacy of State rights. His imperiousness, and his bold championship of slavery, naturally made him the leader of the Southern party in the House in the Thirtieth Congress, and at the commencement of the Thirty-first Congress he was their candidate for the speakership. The contest was a long one, sixty-three ballots being cast, and the effort to elect a Speaker under the majority rule proving unsuccessful, a plurality was declared sufficient to elect, and he was chosen, receiving one hundred and two votes, Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, having ninety-nine, and twenty (Free-Soil) scattering. He demanded the extension of slavery into California and New Mexico by Federal authority,

and advocated the Compromise measures of 1850. An issue being taken on this latter question by the Southern rights extremists of Georgia, he was nominated for Governor by the Union party in 1851, and after a violent contest elected by a large majority. At the expiration of his term of service as Governor, in 1853, he resumed the practice of law, but still took an active part in politics. In 1855 he was again elected to Congress, and in the canvass of 1856 advocated Mr. Buchanan's election throughout the Northern States. Immediately on Mr. Buchanan's accession to the presidency, he nominated Mr. Cobb Secretary of the Treasury. His administration of this important department of the Government was creditable to the administration of which he was a member. He early believed that secession was necessary for the security of the South, and soon began to make preparations for it. He found the Treasury full, and the bonds representing the national debt at a premium of sixteen to eighteen per cent. He used the surplus funds in the Treasury in purchasing this indebtedness at this high premium, but the approach of the struggle so affected the national credit that he was compelled to attempt to borrow at an exorbitant discount the money necessary to defray the ordinary expenses of the Government. On the 10th of December, 1860, he resigned, giving as his reason that the State of Georgia (then about to secede) required his services, and that he regarded it as his duty to give his services first of all to his native State, and, as she was about to separate from the Union, to join his fortunes with hers. Returning to Georgia, he at once entered heart and soul into the contest, addressed the people of the State, and urged forward the secession movement. He was one of the delegates from Georgia to the Congress of the seceded States which met at Montgomery, Alabama, February 4, 1861, and, on its assembling, was chosen President. This Congress (subsequently known as the Provisional Congress) prepared and adopted the constitution of the Confederacy, and continued in power for a year, having four sessions, two at Montgomery and two at Richmond, over all of which Mr. Cobb presided. Of the First Confederate Congress, which assembled February 18, 1862, Mr. Cobb was not a member; but, having done his utmost to organize the opposition, he was withdrawn from civil office, not being a favorite with Mr. Davis. On the demand of the Georgian members, the Confederate Congress appointed him brigadier-general, and subsequently promoted him to a major-generalship, but, though not lacking personal courage, he had but little military experience, and never distinguished himself as an officer, and indeed was not a participator in any very considerable engagement. At the close of the war, he was still strongly opposed and hostile to all the new measures for reconstruction, introduced and adopted by Congress, as calculated to retard the restora-

tion of the South to the Union, keep back its prosperity, and destroy the negro race. He lacked, notwithstanding his intellectual abilities and eloquence, the power of comprehending the true condition of his country, as viewed by the people of the Union States, and the spirit to cooperate with them. His death was the result of disease of the heart.

COLOMBIA, UNITED STATES OF, a republic in South America.* President, for the term of 1868 to 1870, Santos Gutierrez; American minister in Colombia, P. J. Sullivan, appointed in 1867. In the budget for 1866-'67, the revenue and expenditures were each estimated at 2,350,000 piastres. The public debt, in 1861, was reported to amount to 44 million piastres, 34,690,000 of which belonged to English creditors. In the budget for 1866 to 1867, only the sum of 488,204 piastres was set down as interest of the public debt. The federal army, in time of peace, numbers 2,000 men; in the event of war the several States are obliged to offer a contingent of one per cent. of the population. The Colombian Government claims altogether a territory of about 513,000 English square miles, while other statements (not giving to Colombia all the disputed territory) reduce it to 357,000. The population is 2,794,473, not including the uncivilized Indians, whose number is estimated at 126,000. The federal capital at present is Bogota, with a population of 40,000 inhabitants, but many desire to have the seat of the federal Government transferred to Panama. The imports of the ports of Panama and Colon (Aspinwall) were, in 1864, valued at \$35,000,000, and the exports at \$67,000,000. In 1865 there arrived in Panama 353 vessels, of 360,206 tons. The number of arrivals in Colon, in 1864, was 556 vessels, together of 485,044 tons.

The new President, Santos Gutierrez, entered upon his office on the 1st of April. His first acts were received with favor by all political parties. He offered seats in the cabinet to several prominent men of the (Conservative) opposition, who, however, declined. In the later months of the year he became involved in a violent conflict with the Conservative party of several States. The Conservative President of the State of Cundinamarca, Señor Ignacio Gutierrez Vergara, was arrested, and was held a prisoner even after the Supreme Court had declared the arrest and imprisonment unconstitutional. In December, the new (Liberal) Legislative Assembly of Cundinamarca condemned the President of the State to eight years in the chain-gang, and deprived him of all right to ever after hold any office. Afterward the Assembly granted him a pardon, which the Conservatives looked upon as an insult. The Legislatures of the States of Tolima and Antioquia solemnly protested against the removal, by the President of the Republic, of the constitutional government of Cundina-

marca, and demanded a reform in the federal Constitution.

The larger portion of the republic remained free from civil war. Disturbances in Tolima in the early part of the year were soon suppressed. Only the State of Panama suffered severely from internal strife. On the 5th of July, when it had become known that the election for President of the State had gone in favor of the Conservative candidate, Dr. Amador, thus defeating the Government (Liberal) candidate, Arosemena, a revolution broke out in the city of Panama, which resulted in the declaration of General Fernando Ponce as Provisional President. General Ponce at once issued the following proclamation:

PANAMA, July 5, 1868.

Fernando Ponce, General of the Armies of the Union and of the sovereign State of Panama, and Provisional President of this State, to his fellow-citizens:

The people and army of the capital have spontaneously called me to take charge provisionally of the executive government of the State, to save the cause of liberty, which is to-day threatened in this beautiful and important section of Colombia. You know the cause which has given rise to the popular movement that places me at the front of the public administration. Deficient institutions have permitted an unauthorized party to rise up boldly, pretending to subjugate the great liberal majority and check the rapid progress which this State should necessarily pursue. I have accepted the honor with which my fellow-citizens have distinguished me, because a soldier, who from his infancy has stood in the ranks of those who have fought for liberty and right, should not withhold his services when he sees the cause of the true republic threatened. Isthmians, we are possessors of the most important point of the globe, and we ought to see that our territory should not only be the road across which civilized nations should communicate, but also that it should be an asylum for all the oppressed. Let us found institutions capable in their beneficent exercise to open out the prosperity of this country, and give it respectability in the eyes of other governments. Let us confide in the sublime destinies prepared for a free people. Let us be unanimous in assisting that peace may be eternal within the limits which the two oceans have marked out for this country, and plenty will be spread out before us, and will be preserved by such impregnable walls.

Foreigners resident on the isthmus, it gives me pleasure to remember that my modest country has been up to the present time so respected by friendly nations. The conduct of the governors of this republic, always worthy and to be respected in their foreign relations, and the protection of strangers visiting our land, is the true bulwark of the people who enter in the race of civilization. Your houses and property will be respected, and public treaties will be held inviolate during the short period of my administration. Soldiers of the battalion Santander, I entertain the hope that you will always bear with honor the flag of the free, and that you will never be unworthy of the honorable title by which you are distinguished. The name of the hero of Boyaca is the greatest decoration with which you can be adorned, and in the moment of danger you ought to imitate his example.

Fellow-citizens, before a constituted assembly, which should unite soon to regulate the situation of the State, I will lay down my authority and present myself to give an account of my acts.

FERNANDO PONCE.

Another proclamation declared the isthmus in a state of war, suspending constitutional

* For other statistical information, see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

guarantees, preventing more than four persons talking together after ten o'clock, p.m., prohibiting any vessel leaving Panama for other parts of the State without special permit, and stopping the transit of the Rio Grande. The administration of Ponce only lasted eight weeks. On the 28th of August, President Ponce and his principal general, Mesa, took a pleasure-trip to Aspinwall. On the morning of the 29th, General Buenaventura Correo, commander of the battalion Panama, during their absence, had an attack made on the barrack. The guard, and afterward the other soldiers, were disarmed, and the militia installed in their stead. There was little show of resistance, except by a Captain Mesa, who was shot dead by a mulatto officer named Aispuru, opposite the barracks. On the return of Ponce and Mesa to Panama, the latter was immediately arrested, and the former, though he issued a proclamation, saying the affair was merely a row among his officers, resigned his position as Provisional President the same evening, and issued another document the next day, saying he was forced to do so, owing to the occurrences of the previous day. His resignation was at once accepted, and General Correo installed as Provisional President. The latter at once formed a new administration. The Conservative party, in the interior, refused to submit to the administration of both Ponce and Correo. After the accession of the latter to power, the people of the Department of Chiriqui established an independent government of their own, with Señor Aristides Obaldia as Commander of the Forces. They had 300 men, well armed, and expected to raise 2,000 in case of need, though they had not arms for so large a force. The soldiers sent there by the State government had an encounter with the men of the department, and were badly beaten, five of their men being killed, as well as the governor's secretary and their commander taken prisoners. They then joined the Obaldia forces. On the receipt of the news of this defeat in Panama, President Correo issued the following proclamation:

ARTICLE 1. The State is declared in a state of war.
ART. 2. The traffic in arms and ammunition is positively prohibited.

ART. 3. Every one, whether a private individual or a merchant, who has fire-arms, side-arms, or other elements of war in his possession, must present or give an account of the same to the respective governor, alcalde, etc.

A second proclamation was as follows:

ARTICLE 1. All Colombians, resident in the State, between the ages of sixteen and sixty, are called to arms.

ART. 2. At the first sound of the trumpet, every person embraced in this decree must present himself to the first police authority, to be placed on the recruiting list.

The members of the battalion Union shall present themselves armed, etc.

President Correo then started for Chiriqui, with three hundred men, some of them conscripts, leaving Juan Mendoza in the presi-

dential chair. A portion of those pressed into the service were Costa Ricans and Nicaraguans who had just arrived in the isthmus on a contract to work on the railroad. The expedition was successful, and the Conservatives had to submit. In December, Correo was formally elected President of the State.

In consequence of the frequent revolutions which have of late taken place, the finances of Panama are in a most deplorable condition. Every cent that could be raised for years past, either by taxes, forced loans, or sales of property, has been spent to aid certain political cliques and keep up a large standing army, the only use of which is to assist in overthrowing the government. President Correo, finding himself without money, levied upon the isthmus a commercial tax of \$133,000, of which the city of Panama was to pay \$100,000, and Aspinwall \$20,000. The tax was, in particular, an unbearable burden to the foreign merchants. It appears from the official records, that, out of the one hundred and seventy-five tax-payers who are taxed one hundred thousand dollars, sixty-four are foreigners, and pay \$86,520; while one hundred and eleven are native, and pay \$13,480, being an average of \$1,350 per head on the foreign, and \$121 on the native merchants and traders. In the town of Aspinwall the tax averages \$20 per head on the entire population, and of the \$20,000 levied on that place fully \$17,000 were to be paid by foreigners. Taking the entire commercial tax levied on the isthmus, with a population somewhere between 150,000 and 250,000, at \$133,000, the foreign portion of that population would pay \$103,520, while the natives would pay \$29,480, or less than one-third that sum. The right of increasing the commercial tax from the amount originally fixed by the Government of the republic, the law governing which is still in force, namely, \$25 per month as the maximum, to the enormous proportions which it has now assumed, has been annually disputed by the Panama merchants, who, however, in consideration of the poverty of the State, submitted to the imposition rather than take the trouble of testing the matter; and so it went on increasing year after year from ten to twenty per cent., until in 1868 it rose nearly seventy per cent. over 1867. The commercial community therefore resolved to test the question legally; and agreed unanimously to refuse to pay a dollar beyond the legitimate \$25 allowed by law. The fact of the Legislature passing a law to enforce this tax they considered no proof of its legality. The same body years ago passed certain laws regarding tonnage dues and capitation tax on passengers. Thousands on thousands of dollars were exacted from the companies under these laws, until at length they became so onerous that the companies determined to test the question at Bogota of the right of the Legislature to levy such taxes. The General Government at once decided the tax to be a direct violation

of the national laws, and it was in consequence finally put a stop to, though not a dollar of all the thousands fraudulently collected under protest was ever refunded. In the same way the agents of the companies were taxed at first very moderately; by degrees the tax got up to \$75 per month; even this was paid by them rather than complain, but, when the attempt was made to raise it from \$75 to \$350 per month, the agents refused to pay, and on the matter being referred to Bogota it was again decided that there was no law by which the agencies could be taxed a single cent. Notwithstanding these oft-repeated attempts to force money illegally from them, the companies, seeing the poverty of the treasury of the State, voluntarily agreed to contribute a monthly donation of \$100 each, to enable the Government to keep up a police force, and have since continued to pay this sum. At the close of the year the difficulty between the merchants and the Government of Panama was not settled.

In November, the Legislature of the State of Santander approved a proposition presented by Deputy Mantella, relative to the contract of the Panama Railroad, as follows:

"The Legislative Assembly of the State, in use of the power ceded to it in Art. 25 of the national Constitution, gives its vote of nullity:

ARTICLE 1. To the contract reformatory of that of 15th April of 1850, relative to the construction of a railroad from one ocean to another, over the Isthmus of Panama, celebrated 5th July, 1867, between the Secretary of State of the United States of Colombia and George M. Totten, Engineer-in-Chief and general agent of the Panama Railroad.

Art. 2. To the approval given to said contract by the national Executive power.

Art. 3. To the decree of Congress issued 15th August, 1867, approving the said Congress.

Art. 4. To the decree of the Executive of 16th August, 1867, promulgating as a law of the republic the legislative decree approving the contract celebrated 5th July, 1867, reformatory of that of 15th April, 1860, relative to the construction of a railroad from one ocean to another over the Isthmus of Panama.

"The Legislature calls upon the Assemblies of the States of Antioquia, Cauca, Cundinamarca, and Magdalena to issue a resolution of the same nature. This vote is to be communicated to the national Congress, to the Supreme Federal Court, to the national Executive power, and to the Legislative Assemblies of the States."

General Acosta, Provisional President, after the expulsion of President Mosquera in 1867, was, in 1868, sent to the United States as agent for the General Government, to enter into negotiations at Washington in regard to the canal scheme across the isthmus, or rather to conclude the arrangements made at Bogota by Minister Sullivan. The Government of Washington, for the same purpose, sent the Hon. Caleb Cushing to Bogota.

On June 27th, in the Corps Legislatif of France, the contract made with the General

Transatlantic Steamship Company, for the transportation of the mails to Panama and Chili, was approved. This convention proposes that the Government should advance the company four millions of francs to facilitate the construction of three new steamers, and pay an annual subsidy of 750,000 francs as a postal contribution, and further, guarantee from the 1st of July, 1868, an interest of five per cent. on the capital of the company already invested in the present service as well as on that to be employed in carrying out the new line. The entire capital will be nearly sixty millions of francs, and the Government appropriates for the fulfilment of the guarantee the sum of two millions.

COLORADO. (*See TERRITORIES.*)

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES. The most remarkable feature of the commerce of the country for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, is the continuance of the decline which commenced at the close of the fiscal year 1865. The net imports and domestic exports, including specie and bullion, for a series of years, have been as follows:

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
1860.....	\$335,233,232	\$373,189,274
1861.....	332,093,960	382,836,474
1862.....	261,300,966	213,253,560
1863.....	229,513,088	240,407,512
1864.....	310,880,817	241,967,048
1865.....	222,444,879	196,235,455
1866.....	431,645,714	417,142,084
1867.....	391,626,489	334,350,653
1868.....	348,727,258	352,339,639

From this statement it appears that the imports, which in 1860 amounted to \$335,233,232, declined to \$222,444,879 in 1865, when the war closed. During the following year they rose to \$431,645,714, the highest amount which they have ever reached. Since 1866 they have gradually fallen. The decrease of imports was chiefly in textile fabrics, hardware, cutlery, and iron goods. This was ascribed to the repeal of the internal revenue taxes on the home manufacture of these articles, which acted as an increased protection to the American manufacturer by enabling him to make and sell his fabrics at a lower price than the similar articles could be imported for under the existing tariff.

The domestic exports declined from \$382,836,474, in 1861, to \$196,235,455, in 1865; then advanced to \$417,142,084 in 1866, declined in 1867, and again advanced in 1868.

The imports at New York represent a large proportion of the total imports of the country. In the twelve months of 1868 they amounted to \$251,193,834. As compared with the year 1866, this shows a falling off of nearly fifty-five millions, but is larger than any other previous year excepting 1867. The decline from the previous year is about one and a half millions. Nearly all the goods imported were dutiable.

The following table shows the imports at New York during each month of the year for a series of years:

MONTHS.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
January.....	\$15,739,576	\$18,977,394	\$10,620,117	\$30,109,830	\$30,979,087	\$15,413,571
February.....	13,027,546	21,643,937	11,473,668	30,692,557	25,630,781	20,818,337
March.....	18,390,895	23,067,119	16,012,373	26,304,940	21,512,974	26,512,934
April.....	17,985,315	26,168,631	14,174,464	24,840,605	25,633,243	22,268,884
May.....	14,324,325	23,970,144	12,876,109	28,818,447	21,852,250	22,150,559
June.....	12,597,516	23,926,314	15,855,321	22,736,652	20,967,908	20,471,598
July.....	16,003,677	18,233,299	19,161,833	26,851,157	23,086,866	22,967,657
August.....	15,038,129	18,233,463	21,475,608	23,884,665	24,273,034	23,960,721
September.....	15,499,940	10,539,459	23,674,496	27,079,080	21,027,200	23,285,396
October.....	16,894,967	10,088,308	23,134,675	24,832,134	18,438,486	19,994,790
November.....	16,045,695	8,597,595	27,235,651	20,710,854	15,871,008	18,301,320
December.....	17,126,098	9,985,088	26,048,099	19,852,174	13,375,580	14,023,087
Total.....	\$187,014,577	\$218,725,160	\$224,742,419	\$306,613,184	\$252,648,475	\$251,193,834

In the above imports there were \$80,905,834 of dry goods, which, during a series of years, have been classified as follows:

IMPORTS OF DRY GOODS AT NEW YORK.

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
Manufactures—Wool.....	\$31,411,965	\$36,053,190	\$50,405,179	\$33,676,601	\$25,753,436
Cotton.....	8,405,245	15,449,054	21,287,490	15,800,894	13,561,001
Silk.....	16,194,080	20,476,210	24,857,734	18,565,817	21,708,801
Flax.....	11,621,831	15,521,190	20,456,870	12,949,561	12,501,157
Miscellaneous Dry Goods.....	3,956,630	4,561,586	9,235,582	7,589,538	7,381,439
Total Imports.....	\$71,589,752	\$92,061,140	\$126,222,855	\$88,582,411	\$80,905,834

It will be seen from the foregoing statement that there was a decrease of nearly eight millions from the amount of the previous year. The decrease was principally in woollen goods, while in silk goods there has been an increased importation. The receipts for duties at New York during a series of years have been as follows:

RECEIPTS FOR DUTIES AT NEW YORK.

MONTHS.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
January.....	\$6,180,586 00	\$4,231,737 47	\$12,437,474 16	\$9,472,248 48	\$7,133,428 42
February.....	7,474,027 03	4,791,247 10	12,008,273 74	11,466,418 42	9,696,752 39
March.....	7,679,770 47	5,392,099 26	11,173,104 92	11,971,418 19	11,195,861 33
April.....	13,982,555 60	6,309,994 34	10,950,896 78	9,372,701 48	10,023,029 37
May.....	3,805,186 46	8,133,433 06	11,418,492 10	9,340,766 73	9,723,476 45
June.....	3,311,148 43	7,887,075 84	9,559,808 38	9,505,432 94	9,237,920 50
July.....	3,586,848 44	9,778,276 65	11,507,136 60	7,735,135 60	7,578,200 69
August.....	6,237,369 17	13,113,689 50	12,349,760 82	12,623,300 45	11,995,596 18
September.....	4,084,492 54	12,929,615 64	12,233,144 66	11,712,104 78	12,916,782 29
October.....	3,670,188 38	10,973,513 01	11,002,048 08	8,682,889 05	10,059,277 34
November.....	3,455,156 53	9,933,483 96	7,716,883 67	6,931,212 90	7,309,086 88
December.....	3,440,852 67	8,340,750 37	5,707,547 99	5,276,301 32	6,327,900 78
Total.....	\$66,037,127 51	\$101,772,905 94	\$128,079,761 60	\$114,085,990 34	\$113,296,712 62

The aggregate of foreign imports at New York during a series of years has been as follows:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AT NEW YORK.

YEARS.	Dutiable.	Free Goods.	Specie.	Total.
1851.....	\$119,592,204	\$9,719,771	\$2,049,543	\$131,361,518
1852.....	115,336,052	12,105,342	2,408,225	129,849,619
1853.....	179,512,182	12,156,387	2,429,083	194,097,652
1854.....	163,494,984	15,768,916	2,107,572	181,371,472
1855.....	142,900,661	14,103,946	855,631	157,860,238
1856.....	193,839,646	17,902,578	1,614,425	213,356,649
1857.....	196,279,362	21,440,734	12,898,033	230,618,129
1858.....	128,578,256	22,024,691	2,264,130	152,867,067
1859.....	213,400,363	28,708,732	2,616,421	244,725,516
1860.....	201,401,683	28,006,447	8,852,330	238,260,460
1861.....	95,326,459	30,353,918	37,088,413	162,768,790
1862.....	149,970,415	23,291,625	1,390,277	174,652,317
1863.....	174,521,790	11,567,000	1,525,811	187,614,577
1864.....	204,128,290	11,791,902	2,265,022	218,185,214
1865.....	212,206,301	10,410,837	2,123,281	224,742,419
1866.....	284,033,597	13,001,588	9,578,029	306,613,184
1867.....	228,297,955	11,044,181	3,306,339	252,648,475
1868.....	232,344,418	11,764,027	7,085,389	251,193,834

In the above table are included, under the head of dutiable, the duty-paying goods entered directly for consumption, as well as those entered for warehousing; these, with the free

goods and specie, make the total entered at the port. The free list was greatly curtailed six years ago, especially by the transfer of tea and coffee to the list of dutiables, and thus the total of free goods imported remains at about eleven million dollars. All the figures referring to the imports represent only their foreign gold cost, freight and duty unpaid. To show the cost in currency to the consumers, the total should be doubled, and the whole then increased about forty per cent.; this would represent about the selling rates in the market.

The exports from New York are a more imperfect representation of the trade of the country than the imports. The exports from the South have been large in each year since the close of the war. California has also in the last two years exported an unusual amount of breadstuffs. The shipments of cotton from the South direct to foreign countries, during 1867 and 1868 each, was about one million bales, while the total amount of naval stores,

tobacco, etc., sent from those States was also large. The close of the fiscal year on June 30, 1869, will probably show a more equal bal-

ance in the exports and imports of the whole country than appears from the trade of New York alone:

TOTAL EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK.

MONTHS.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
January.....	\$19,695,358	\$17,609,749	\$19,746,451	\$22,814,543	\$15,999,998	\$21,798,152
February.....	12,400,148	17,211,176	16,774,008	19,002,587	17,576,967	18,225,414
March.....	23,695,082	16,383,236	14,799,626	24,713,856	22,366,367	17,258,362
April.....	14,004,940	19,754,062	8,582,897	23,899,970	20,124,879	20,834,389
May.....	16,002,780	21,682,300	15,513,346	36,937,067	22,346,699	31,289,790
June.....	16,495,293	25,807,531	13,446,116	26,153,374	21,827,392	23,132,527
July.....	21,092,787	33,585,866	13,536,061	19,307,928	27,588,755	21,606,116
August.....	14,454,809	20,977,982	10,235,474	14,511,361	14,571,947	18,018,177
September.....	15,492,518	21,739,826	45,523,314	12,805,773	14,204,407	14,155,063
October.....	21,219,549	20,431,789	23,788,469	16,275,283	18,663,252	16,314,640
November.....	17,292,436	20,473,699	25,126,753	17,750,755	22,408,776	15,589,881
December.....	18,619,334	27,410,438	25,577,766	20,710,807	20,912,534	16,705,190
Total.....	\$220,465,034	\$272,648,163	\$208,630,282	\$254,883,254	\$238,591,973	\$234,907,701

The following is the range of gold per each quarter in connection with the amount of ex-ports. The latter are reckoned at their market price in currency:

EXPORTS FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS, EXCLUSIVE OF SPECIE.

	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
1st quarter.....	\$50,614,908	\$41,429,756	\$46,710,118	\$60,972,531	\$49,376,379	\$42,033,366
Price of gold.....	152½-172½	151½-169½	196½-234½	124½-145½	139½-140½	133½-144
2d quarter.....	41,046,736	43,446,686	24,216,067	46,766,386	46,270,301	41,381,668
Price of gold.....	140½-157½	166½-250	128½-147½	125-167½	132½-141½	137-141½
3d quarter.....	38,825,587	70,519,134	40,521,493	38,381,302	38,292,063	36,549,086
Price of gold.....	122½-145	191-285	138½-146½	143½-147½	138-146½	140½-150
4th quarter.....	40,223,747	52,426,966	67,178,421	46,800,435	52,214,722	41,101,982
Price of gold.....	140½-156½	189-260	144½-149	131½-154½	132½-145½	132-140½
Total.....	\$170,718,768	\$221,822,542	\$178,126,599	\$192,329,554	\$186,790,025	\$164,066,102

By this table of arrivals from foreign ports during the past year, distinguishing the class and nationality, and comparing it with the ar-

rivals for 1867, it will be seen that the number of American vessels has increased 291, while the increase in the number of arrivals is but 185:

ARRIVALS AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK FROM FOREIGN PORTS DURING 1867 AND 1868.

NATIONALITIES.	Steamers.		Ships.		Barks.		Brigs.		Schooners.		Total.	
	1867.	1868.	1867.	1868.	1867.	1868.	1867.	1868.	1867.	1868.	1867.	1868.
American.....	204	204	264	223	344	359	446	535	547	774	1,084	2,095
British.....	353	355	131	103	375	378	886	771	367	426	2,111	2,032
North-German.....	91	109	60	49	164	152	53	63	2	6	370	379
Italian.....	1	3	25	40	47	32	1	3	74	78
Norwegian.....	8	3	41	71	18	20	67	94
Danish.....	1	..	14	9	26	26	1	3	41	38
French.....	28	26	1	..	3	2	7	..	1	1	40	29
Dutch.....	1	..	7	10	21	15	3	4	32	29
Swedish.....	2	2	11	8	16	11	..	1	29	21
Spanish.....	1	1	7	3	18	4	26	9
Portuguese.....	2	3	2	2	9	3	6	..	19	8
Austrian.....	2	2	9	7	4	6	15	15
Argentine.....	1	..	7	8	2
Brazilian.....	2	..	5	9	2	3	8	9
Haytian.....	1	4	2	5	2
Venezuelan.....	5	2	5	2
Russian.....	1	..	10	11	..
All others.....	1	..	10	2	7	3	5	2	22	8
Total.....	678	694	473	390	1,020	1,055	1,572	1,499	933	1,223	4,676	4,861

LEADING ARTICLES OF EXPORT FROM THE PORT OF NEW YORK DURING THE YEARS 1867 AND 1868.

ARTICLES.	1863.	1867.	ARTICLES.	1868.	1867.
Flour.....bbls.	1,003,968	871,089	Whale oil.....galls.	200,182	377,605
Corn meal.....	191,011	151,669	Sperm oil.....	443,760	675,982
Wheat.....bush.	5,762,037	4,468,774	Lard oil.....	139,000	186,407
Rye.....	152,993	473,260	Pork.....bbls.	83,402	86,254
Barley.....	90	886,893	Beef.....bbls. & tcs.	76,660	56,361
Oats.....	94,207	144,665	Bacon.....cwt.	320,002	93,177
Corn.....	5,989,225	8,147,813	Butter.....	9,951	44,056
Peas.....	189,226	680,763	Cheese.....	412,672	537,543
Cotton.....bales.	328,239	447,647	Lard.....	492,552	523,693
Hops.....	13,338	3,532	Tallow.....	132,485	184,986
Rowin.....bbls.	344,796	289,134	Tobacco, leaf.....hds.	41,640	79,032
Oil cake.....cwt.	818,888	639,045	Tobacco, bales, cases, &c.	41,584	71,531
Petroleum.....galls.	50,549,923	32,896,960	Tobacco, manufac'd.....lbs.	7,372,760	7,393,725

The following is a statement of the imports of a few leading articles of general merchandise at New York, from foreign ports for four years:

ARTICLES.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
Books.....	\$488,977	\$851,583	\$929,167	\$1,111,115
Buttons.....	1,018,311	1,389,383	1,557,005	1,590,313
Cheese.....	113,485	188,841	218,489	233,018
China-ware.....	353,583	965,250	656,717	571,470
Cigars.....	955,091	1,261,918	493,350	669,262
Coal.....	860,542	553,293	567,699	369,195
Coffee.....	12,834,069	12,808,788	14,433,119	15,925,976
Cotton.....	5,825,084	157,113	76,865	113,521
Earthenware.....	1,130,236	2,148,619	2,230,305	1,820,819
Furs.....	2,794,445	2,600,378	2,251,629	2,525,090
Glass-plate.....	531,110	1,090,674	944,289	947,306
India-rubber.....	1,183,421	1,681,844	2,400,249	1,902,691
Indigo.....	947,069	441,071	487,979	834,596
Leather & skins.....	2,738,810	4,735,340	4,493,680	4,034,447
Undr'd skins.....	5,470,001	7,745,216	9,132,298	8,052,681
Brandy.....	166,949	730,123	350,512	452,081
Whiskey.....	66,030	88,572	50,515	98,196
Copper.....	279,627	665,309	54,144	43,882
Iron, bars.....	1,134,393	2,300,499	2,436,417	2,558,712
Iron, pig.....	385,788	879,733	1,024,128	501,704
Iron, railroad.....	1,558,334	1,492,533	2,149,685	4,094,569
Iron, sheet.....	160,078	606,948	634,467	350,443
Lead.....	1,232,939	2,435,840	2,217,311	2,286,218
Spelter.....	226,985	452,792	175,322	338,146
Steel.....	1,624,755	2,949,449	3,248,602	3,382,146
Tin & tin plates.....	4,913,623	6,823,145	5,794,094	6,023,759
Zinc.....	163,614	611,436	206,146	187,511
Molasses.....	3,299,425	3,616,165	3,939,006	5,090,436
Rags.....	846,146	1,398,925	1,354,432	1,403,510
Salt.....	282,761	403,656	429,055	422,942
Saltpetre.....	109,083	165,565	79,451	113,236
Sugar.....	22,036,373	21,581,117	18,848,192	26,969,041
Tea.....	7,089,714	8,085,899	10,507,246	10,683,755
Watches.....	1,996,478	2,387,765	1,990,369	1,904,272
Wines.....	1,151,635	3,350,959	2,468,466	2,303,160
Wool & waste.....	5,347,512	5,780,124	3,421,794	2,005,403

CONGREGATIONALISTS. This religious denomination prevails most extensively in the New-England States. They derive their name chiefly from the form of their church organization, which embraces the whole body, and is strictly congregational.

I. AMERICA.—The following table exhibits the growth of the Congregationalists in churches, members, and Sunday-school scholars in the last ten years:

YEAR.	Churches.	Members.	Sunday-school Scholars.
1859.....	2,676	257,634	206,441
1860.....	2,734	260,389	250,690
1861.....	2,756	259,119	246,547
1862.....	2,774	261,474	255,257
1863.....	2,823	264,313	260,492
1864.....	2,865	268,015	286,798
1865.....	2,840	269,062	279,059
1866.....	2,900	272,975	293,333
1867.....	2,941	283,933	320,961
1868.....	3,069	296,674	346,766

The following table gives some further statistical information:

MINISTERS, ETC.	United States.	All America.
Ministers in pastoral work.....	2,119	3,070
Total Ministers.....	2,182	3,156
Absent Church-members.....	34,915	35,306
Additions.....	28,246	28,246
Deaths.....	4,309	4,391
Dismissals.....	10,479	10,646
Excommunications.....	860	893
Adult Baptisms.....	7,869	7,895
Infant Baptisms.....	4,944	5,291

The following statistics of Congregationalism, in the United States and British colonies, were reported in the *Congregational Quarterly*, for January, 1869:

STATES.	Churches.	Members.	Sunday-school Scholars.
Alabama.....	1	25	120
California.....	44	1,990	4,553
Colorado.....	5	105	155
Connecticut.....	289	48,599	48,461
Dakota.....	1	14
District of Columbia.....	1	247	175
Georgia.....	3	91	400
Illinois.....	246	17,877	23,629
Indiana.....	22	931	1,000
Iowa.....	183	8,828	8,404
Kansas.....	41	1,434	2,687
Louisiana.....	1	28
Maine.....	238	19,871	21,683
Maryland.....	1	73	175
Massachusetts.....	496	79,526	93,440
Michigan.....	164	10,123	12,150
Minnesota.....	67	2,751	3,475
Missouri.....	47	1,505	2,942
Nebraska.....	11	271	530
New Hampshire.....	186	18,201	22,486
New Jersey.....	15	1,642	2,306
New York.....	252	24,711	27,031
North Carolina.....
Ohio.....	183	15,172	17,537
Oregon.....	8	413	732
Pennsylvania.....	57	3,404	4,797
Rhode Island.....	24	3,835	5,089
South Carolina.....	1	214	270
Tennessee.....	3	126	350
Texas.....	1	22	120
Utah Territory.....	1	18
Vermont.....	195	18,328	19,928
Virginia.....	3	44	60
Washington Territory.....	1	24	75
Wisconsin.....	160	10,599	14,445
Ontario and Quebec.....	99	4,253	6,017
New Brunswick.....	5	383	378
Nova Scotia.....	8	545	742
Jamaica (last year).....	6	451	424
Total in America.....	3,069	296,674	346,766

The number of churches not supplied with ministers was six hundred and fifty-three in the United States, and six hundred and ninety in all America.

II. ENGLAND.—The *Congregational Year-book* for 1869 reports the following statistics of Congregationalism in Great Britain and the British dependencies:

COUNTRIES.	County Ass'ns and Unions.	Churches.	Ministers and Missionaries.
England.....	42	2,003	1,915
Wales.....	16	866	393
Scotland.....	8	102	102
Ireland.....	1	27	25
Colonies.....	1	195	227
Continent of Europe.....	7
Channel Islands.....
Foreign lands (incl. of native ordained missionaries in foreign lands).....	..	183	229

* Three churches, but no ministers or members reported.

The following table gives the list of Congregational colleges in the British possessions, with the date of foundation :

	Date.
1. Western College, Plymouth.....	1752
2. Rotherham Independent College.....	1756
3. Cheshunt College.....	1768
4. Airdale College.....	1800
5. Hackney Theological Seminary.....	1803
6. Lancashire Independent College.....	1806
7. Spring Hill College, Moseley, Birmingham.	1838
8. New College, London.....	1850
9. Theological Hall of Congregational Churches of Scotland.....	1811
10. Brecon Independent College.....	1760
11. Independent College, Bala.....	1842
12. Congregational Institute, Bristol.....	1863
13. Congregational Institute, Nottingham.....	1863
14. Congregational College of British North America, Montreal.....	1863
15. Congregational College of Victoria, Mel- bourne.....	1863
16. Camden College, Sydney.....	1863
17. Mission College, High Gate.....	1864
18. Cotton End.....	1840

The total number of colleges and institutes in the British possessions was 30; number of students in colleges, 69; number of native students in heathen lands, about 170; total of students, 553; number of deceased ministers, 60.

The London Missionary Society, which, although originally undenominational, is now chiefly supported by Congregationalists, reported in 1868 an income of £111,306 19s. 4d., and an expenditure of £92,464 18s. It supported 159 English missionaries, 5,963 native ordained pastors, 660 native preachers, 29,847 church-members; native population about 159,650,614; schools, 30,960.

The revenue and expenditures of the principal Congregational societies, in 1868, was as follows:

SOCIETIES, ETC.	Income.	Expenditure.
English Cong'l Chapel Building So- ciety.....(estab'd 1853)	£8,939	£6,803
London do.....	9,764	6,537
Scottish do.....	390
Victoria do.....(estab'd 1866.)
Irish Evangelical Society and Con- gregational Home Mission..(1814)	3,177	2,667
Home Missionary Society.....(1819)	7,027	6,431
Colonial Missionary Society....(1836)	3,091	2,360
Congregational Board of Education..	1,485	1,483

III. CONTINENT OF EUROPE.—Most of the independent churches of France are united in the "*Union of Evangelical Churches of France*" (*L'Union des Eglises Evangéliques de France*), formed in August, 1849. The constitution of the Union provides that "each church which enters the Union preserves the liberty of determining for itself its own constitution, according to its convictions and necessities. It regulates, accordingly, its own discipline and the form of its internal government." "Every church, in order to enter the Union, must be constituted on the principle of individual profession of faith, with a guarantee of discipline being exercised by the church itself—no mere Christian instruction, on arrival at a certain age, of those so instructed, giving any right to

church-membership." A general assembly of the pastors and delegates of the associated churches is held every two years. The last meeting of the synod was held at Bergerac, in September, 1868. The next will take place in Mazamet, October, 1870. At the Synod of Bergerac, 47 churches reported a membership of 2,735, averaging upward of sixty to each church. The largest church is that of Taifbouf, Paris, with 210 members. The churches are distributed into seven associations, which hold frequent meetings for fellowship and for local business, namely: 1. Group of the West. 2. Southwest. 3. Tarn et Ariège. 4. Southeast. 5. East. 6. Centre. 7. Seine. Numerous small congregations are scattered all over France. In Algeria, the Union has six stations. Seven independent churches are not in connection with the Evangelical Union. The "Evangelical Society of France," which was established in 1833, for the diffusion of evangelical truth without regard to the differences of ecclesiastical polity, but has gradually become identified with the independent churches, supports 11 pastors, 8 evangelists, and 27 teachers. The expenditures of the society during the year ending May, 1868, were £5,240. The "Evangelical Church of Lyons," which was founded in 1832, is an entirely independent church, which carries on missionary operations in the surrounding districts, extending to the Departments of Isère, Ain, and Rhone. The united church has more than 700 members, and Sunday-schools containing about 250 children. Altogether the independent (free) churches of France number 132 temples or chapels, occupied by 104 pastors.

The "Free Evangelical Church," in the Canton of Geneva, has seven pastors and ministers, and a theological school, with M. Merle d'Aubigné as president. The "free churches" in Vaud, 45 in number, are united together on a basis which, though Presbyterian in form, secures the independence of each. They have a theological faculty at Lausanne. There are eight independent churches in the Canton of Neuchâtel, and five in the Canton of Berne.

An "Alliance of Free or Independent Evangelical Churches" was founded in 1860. All churches free of state control are admissible which adopt the simple evangelical confession of faith adopted by the Alliance, practise a Scripture discipline, recognize the ministry as a divine institution, and engage in the propagation of the gospel. The question of baptism is left unopened. The object of the Alliance is sought to be obtained by the holding of conferences for mutual edification and encouragement, and by the establishment of institutions likely to favor the true idea of a church. The Alliance has been joined by the Free Evangelical Churches of France, Geneva, Vaud, Neuchâtel, Berne, Belgium, Eberfeld (Prussia), Ermelo and Middleburg (Holland), and the Baptist Church of the north of France.

CONGRESS, UNITED STATES. The second session of the Fortieth Congress* convened at Washington on December 2, 1867. For the President's Message, see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS, ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1867.

* The following is a list of the members of Congress:

SENATE.

Alabama—Willard Warner, George E. Spencer.
Arkansas—Alexander McDonald, Benjamin F. Rice.*
California—Cornelius Cole, John Conness.
Connecticut—James Dixon, Orrin S. Terry.
Delaware—James A. Bayard, Willard Saulsbury.
Florida—Adonijah S. Welch, July 2d, Thomas W. Osborn, June 30, 1868.
Georgia—
Illinois—Lyman Trumbull, Richard Yates.
Indiana—Oliver P. Morton, Thomas A. Hendricks.
Iowa—James W. Grimes, James Harlan.
Kansas—Samuel C. Pomeroy, Edmund C. Ross.
Kentucky—Garret Davis, Thomas C. McCreery.†
Louisiana—John S. Harris, William P. Kellogg.
Maine—Lot M. Morrill, William Pitt Fessenden.
Maryland—Reverdy Johnson, George Vickers.‡
Massachusetts—Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson.
Michigan—Zachariah Chandler, Jacob M. Howard.
Minnesota—Alexander Ramsey, Daniel S. Norton.
Missouri—Charles D. Drake, John B. Henderson.
Nebraska—John M. Thayer, Thomas W. Tipton.
Nevada—William M. Stewart, James W. Nye.
New Hampshire—James W. Patterson, Aaron H. Cragin.
New Jersey—Alexander G. Cattell, Frederick T. Frelinghuysen.
New York—Roscoe Conkling, Edwin D. Morgan.
North Carolina—Joseph C. Abbott, John Poor.
Ohio—John Sherman, Benjamin F. Wade.
Oregon—Henry W. Corbett, George H. Williams.
Pennsylvania—Simeon Cameron, Charles R. Buckalew.
Rhode Island—William Sprague, Henry B. Anthony.
South Carolina—Thomas J. Robertson, Frederick A. Sawyer.
Tennessee—David D. Patterson, J. S. Fowler.
Vermont—Justin S. Morrill, George F. Edmunds.
West Virginia—Peter G. Van Winkle, Waitman T. Wiley.
Wisconsin—Timothy O. Howe, James R. Doolittle.
Not admitted at this session.
Mississippi—William L. Sharkey, J. L. Alcorn.
Virginia—John C. Underwood, Joseph Segar.
Texas—David G. Burnett, O. M. Roberts.

HOUSE.

Alabama—Francis W. Kellogg, Charles W. Buckley, Benjamin W. Norris, Charles W. Pierce, John B. Callis, Thomas Haughey.
Arkansas—Eagan W. Roots, J. F. Elliott, Thomas Boles.
California—Samuel B. Axtell, William Higby, James A. Johnson.
Connecticut—Richard D. Hubbard, Julius Hotchkiss, Henry H. Starkweather, William H. Barnum.
Delaware—John A. Nicholson.
Florida—Charles M. Hamilton.
Georgia—J. W. Clift, Nelson Tift, William P. Edwards, Samuel F. Gove, Charles H. Prince, John H. Christy, P. M. B. Young.
Illinois—Norman B. Judd, John F. Farnsworth, Elihu B. Washburne, Abner C. Harding, Ebon C. Ingersoll, Barton C. Cook, Henry P. H. Bromwell, Shelby M. Culmon, Lewis W. Ross, Albert G. Burr, Samuel S. Marshall, Jehu Baker, Green B. Raum; at large, John A. Logan.
Indiana—William E. Holman, Michael C. Kerr, Morton C. Hunter, William S. Hoblack, George W. Julian, John Coburn, Henry D. Washburn, Godlove S. Orth, Schuyler Colfax, William Williams, John P. C. Shanks.
Iowa—James F. Wilson, Hiram Price, William B. Allison, William Loughridge, Granville M. Dodge, Asahel W. Hubbard.
Kansas—Sidney Clarke.
Kentucky—Lawrence S. Trimble (vacancy), Jacob S. Golladay, J. Proctor Knott, Asa P. Grover, Thomas L. Jones, James B. Beck, George M. Adams, Samuel McKee.

Benjamin Wade, of Ohio, was President *pro tem.* of the Senate, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, Speaker of the House.

In the Senate, on December 4th, the following resolution was considered:

Louisiana—J. Hale Sypher, (vacancy) Joseph P. Newsham, Michael Vidal, W. Jasper Blackburn.
Maine—John Lynch, Sidney Perham, James G. Blaine, John A. Peters, Frederick A. Pike.
Maryland—Hiram McCullough, Stevenson Archer, Charles E. Phelps, Francis Thomas, Frederick Stone.
Massachusetts—Thomas D. Eliot, Oakes Ames, Ginery Twichell, Samuel Hooper, Benjamin F. Butler, Nathaniel P. Banks, George S. Boutwell, John D. Baldwin, William B. Washburn, Henry L. Dawes.
Michigan—Fernando C. Beaman, Charles Upson, Austin Blair, Thomas W. Ferry, Rowland E. Trowbridge, John F. Driggs.
Minnesota—William Windom, Ignatius Donnelly.
Missouri—William A. Pile, Carman A. Newcomb, James R. McCormick, Joseph J. Gravelly, Joseph W. McClurg, Robert T. Van Horn, Benjamin F. Loan, John F. Benjamin, George W. Anderson.
Nebraska—John Taffe.
Nevada—Delos R. Ashley.
New Hampshire—Jacob H. Ela, Aaron F. Stevens, Jacob Benton.
New Jersey—William Moore, Charles Haight, Charles Sitzgreaves, John Hill, George A. Halsey.
New York—Stephen Taber, Demas Barnes, William E. Robinson, John Fox, John Morrissey, Thomas E. Stewart, John W. Chanler, James Brooks, Fernando Wood, William H. Robertson, Charles H. Van Wyck, John H. Ketcham, Thomas Cornell, John V. L. Pruyn, John A. Griswold, Orange Ferris, Calvin T. Hulburd, James M. Marvin, William C. Fields, Addison H. Laffin, Alexander H. Bailey, John C. Churchill, Dennis McCarthy, Theodore M. Pomeroy, William H. Kelsey, William S. Lincoln, Hamilton Ward, Lewis Selye, Burt Van Horn, James M. Humphrey, Henry Van Aernam.
North Carolina—J. R. French, David Heaton, O. H. Dockery, J. T. Dewees, Israel G. Leash, Nathaniel Boyden, A. H. Jones.
Ohio—Benjamin Eggleston, Samuel F. Carey, Robert C. Schenck, William Lawrence, William Mungen, Reader W. Clarke, Samuel Shellabarger, John Beatty, Ralph P. Buckland, James M. Ashley, John T. Wilson, Philadelphia Van Trump, Columbus Delano, Martin Welker, Tobias A. Plants, John A. Bingham, Ephraim R. Eckley, Rufus P. Spalding, James A. Garfield.
Oregon—Rufus Mallory.
Pennsylvania—Samuel J. Randall, Charles O'Neill, Leonard Myers, William D. Kelley, Caleb N. Taylor, Benjamin M. Boyer, John M. Broomall, J. Lawrence Getz, Thaddeus Stevens, Henry L. Cake, Daniel M. Van Auken, George W. Woodward, Ulysses Mercur, George F. Miller, Adam J. Glossbrenner, William H. Koontz, Daniel J. Morrell, Stephen F. Wilson, Glenn W. Scofield, Darwin A. Finney, John Corvode, James K. Moorhead, Thomas Williams, George V. Lawrence.
Rhode Island—Thomas A. Jenckes, Nathan F. Dixon.
South Carolina—B. F. Whittemore, C. C. Bowen, Simon Corley, James H. Goss, J. P. M. Epping, E. H. Dickson.
Tennessee—Robert R. Butler, Horace Maynard, William B. Stokes, James Mullins, John Trimble, Samuel M. Arnell, Isaac R. Hawkins, David A. Nunn.
Vermont—Frederick E. Woodbridge, Luke P. Poland, Worthington C. Smith.
West Virginia—Chester D. Hubbard, Bethuel M. Kitchen, Daniel Polsley.
Washington—Halbert E. Paine, Benjamin F. Hopkins, Amasa Cobb, Charles A. Eldridge, Philetus Sawyer, Cadwalader C. Washburn.
Not admitted at this session.
Mississippi—
Texas—
Virginia—
Delegates from the Territories.
Arizona—Coles Bashford.
Colorado—George M. Chilcott.
Dakota—Walter A. Burleigh.
Idaho—E. D. Holbrook.
Montana—James M. Cavanaugh.
New Mexico—Charles P. Clever.
Utah—William H. Hooper.
Washington—Alvan Flanders.

* June 23, 1868.

† In place of James Guthrie, resigned.

‡ In place of Philip Francis Thomas, not allowed to take a seat, February 19, 1868—June 21, says 28.

Resolved, That the message of the President of the United States, with the reports of the heads of departments, without the accompanying documents, be printed, and that three thousand additional copies be printed for the use of the Senate.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "I move to strike out the words relating to the President's message, so that if there are extra copies printed they may be the reports of the departments, to which, so far as I know, there is no objection. There is really a reason, independent of economy, why we should not circulate extra copies of the President's message. It has already been characterized as a libel; unquestionably it is a libel; it is an incendiary document, calculated to stimulate the rebellion once more and to provoke civil war. It is a direct appeal to the worst passions and the worst prejudices of those rebels who, being subdued on the battle-field, still resist through the aid of the President of the United States. It is the evidence of a direct coalition between the President and the former rebels. If Jefferson Davis were President of the United States, he could not send to this chamber a message different in character. I have often said that Andrew Johnson was the successor of Jefferson Davis, and this message is a complete confirmation of all that I have heretofore said. I hope the Senate will not put its hands in the public Treasury in order to circulate over the country a document which is so offensive to Congress, and which, just in proportion to its influence, is calculated to arouse the worst sentiments throughout the rebel States."

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "I go quite as far as any one in condemnation of the tone, temper, and doctrines of the message, but I think we are not justified in departing from the ordinary practice of this body. The message is an assault of the President of the United States upon the Congress of the United States for attempting by legislation to take the governments of the rebel States out of the control of traitors into whose keeping he had placed these governments. The writer of this message seems to have forgotten altogether the action of the President in 1865, and as the Senator from Vermont (Mr. Edmunds) suggests to me, he seems almost to have forgotten that we ever had any rebellion at all. The message remembers to forget that President Johnson in the summer and autumn of 1865 assumed and exercised constitutional powers for the exercise of which he now condemns the legislative branch of the Government. If the President's reconstruction policy was within the provisions of the Constitution, surely the reconstruction policy of Congress is within the provisions of the Constitution. If the President without the authority of law could fix the terms and conditions for the reconstruction of the rebel States, surely Congress, the law-making power of the Government, could determine the terms and conditions of reconstruction."

Mr. Dixon, of Connecticut, followed, saying: "Mr. President, if it were possible to suppress the message entirely, to keep it out of sight, to prevent its being read by the American people, I should not be surprised at the motion which has been made. Standing here now as the advocate of a system of measures condemned by the people, confessedly in a minority, as those Senators now are—in a minority of the people of the United States, as shown by their latest verdict, rebuked, repudiated by the people—my friend (Mr. Conness) smiles; I shall soon come to his case—I am not surprised in the least that there should be a desire to suppress arguments and information of the character contained in this message. If the question were only whether it should be printed, I should be willing to leave it where the Senator from Massachusetts who last spoke has left it, for the Senate to decide. I think that entirely immaterial. The public have read it; it has been spread before the people of the United States, and I should be satisfied to leave it there if the other Senator from Massachusetts and the Senator from Michigan had not denounced the document in language which, to my mind, I will not say is improper in this body—that is not for me to say—but denounced it in a manner which I think it does not deserve."

"Now, what have they said? The Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard) begins by saying it is a libel, and I think he said an insult to the Congress of the United States. The Senator from Massachusetts said he had often said, had been in the habit of saying, that the President of the United States was a traitor equally guilty with Jefferson Davis."

Mr. Sumner: "That is not what I said. I said the successor of Jefferson Davis."

Mr. Dixon: "The successor of Jefferson Davis—how? In his principles, of course. The Senator does not claim that he is the successor in office. He says the President is the successor of Jefferson Davis and equally guilty, and still he complains that the President has been guilty of a libel. It struck me at the time, that, if there was any competition of vehement language between the President and that Senator it would be very easy to decide who in vituperation had the advantage. He who denounces the President as a traitor and the successor of Jefferson Davis is not the man to complain of any severity of language on the part of the President of the United States."

"Now, sir, what is this message? Is it deserving of the severe attacks which have been made upon it by these two distinguished Senators? Is it a libel? Is it violent in language? Does it show, as the Senator from Massachusetts says, bad temper? In the first place, what is the duty of the President? The Constitution says that he shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge

necessary and expedient. It has always been customary for the President of the United States at the opening of a session of Congress to send in a formal message, to give that information annually, or at each session, with that formality and solemnity which attaches to this document. He has now done it. I confess that I can see nothing of violence or ill temper, much less of a libellous character, in this message. He expresses strong opinions—with regard to what? With regard to the constitutionality of certain laws now on the statute-book."

After further debate, the motion of Mr. Sumner to amend was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Howard, Howe, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sumner, Thayer, and Wade—9.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Henderson, Hendricks, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—36.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cattell, Fowler, Guthrie, Nye, Saulsbury, Sprague, and Yates—8.

On December 18th the President sent to both Houses of Congress the following message:

*Gentlemen of the Senate and of the
House of Representatives:*

An official copy of the order issued by Major-General Winfield S. Hancock, commander of the fifth military district, dated headquarters in New Orleans, Louisiana, on the 29th day of November, has reached me through the regular channels of the War Department, and I herewith communicate it to Congress for such action as may seem to be proper in view of all the circumstances.

It will be perceived that General Hancock announces that he will make the law the rule of his conduct; that he will uphold the courts and other civil authorities in the performance of their proper duties; and that he will use his military power only to preserve the peace and enforce the law. He declares very explicitly that the sacred right of the trial by jury and the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be crushed out or trodden under foot. He goes further, and, in one comprehensive sentence, asserts that the principles of American liberty are still the inheritance of this people, and ever should be.

When a great soldier with unrestricted power in his hands to oppress his fellow-men voluntarily foregoes the chance of gratifying his selfish ambition and devotes himself to the duty of building up the liberties and strengthening the laws of his country, he presents an example of the highest public virtue that human nature is capable of practising. The strongest claim of Washington to be "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen," is founded on the great fact that in all his illustrious career he scrupulously abstained from violating the legal and constitutional rights of his fellow-citizens. When he surrendered his commission to Congress the President of that body spoke his highest praise in saying that he had "always regarded the rights of the civil authorities through all dangers and disasters." Whenever power above the law courted his acceptance, he calmly put the temptation aside. By such magnanimous acts of forbearance he won the universal admiration of mankind, and left a name which has no rival in the history of the world.

I am far from saying that General Hancock is the only officer of the American Army who is influenced by the example of Washington. Doubtless thousands of them are faithfully devoted to the principles for which the men of the Revolution laid down their lives. But the distinguished honor belongs to him of being the first officer in high command south of the Potomac, since the close of the civil war, who has given utterance to these noble sentiments in the form of a military order.

I respectfully suggest to Congress that some public recognition of General Hancock's patriotic conduct is due, if not to him, to the friends of law and justice throughout the country. Of such an act as his, at such a time, it is but fit that the dignity should be vindicated and the virtue proclaimed, so that its value as an example may not be lost to the nation.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., December 18, 1867.

In the Senate, on December 5th, Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, moved to take up the bill for the further security of equal rights in the District of Columbia. It provided that the word "white," wherever it occurred in the laws relating to the District of Columbia, or in the charter or ordinances of the cities of Washington or Georgetown, and operated as a limitation on the right of any elector of the District, or of either of those cities, to hold any office, or to be selected and to serve as a juror, should be repealed, and that it should be unlawful for any person or officer to enforce, or attempt to enforce, that limitation after the passage of the act.

Mr. Sumner said: "This bill is in the precise terms of a bill that passed both Houses of Congress on the last day of the last meeting in July, and which, after being duly engrossed, was sent to the President. It was not returned by him before the rising of Congress, and I introduced this precise copy on the first day of our late meeting. At the suggestion of the Senator from Illinois, I forebore calling it up for consideration in order to await the expiration of eleven consecutive days of meeting of the Senate, to see if within that time the bill would be returned to Congress with or without his objections. It was not returned. As that act failed for the want of the President's signature, I propose now simply to review what was done at the last session, and to present the act again for the signature of the President."

The bill was reported without amendment, ordered to be engrossed for a reading, and read.

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, in voting upon laws for the District of Columbia, I have always felt it obligatory upon me to vote for such laws as I would be willing to vote for my own people at home for their government. The Congress of the United States, under the Constitution, enacts the laws for this District; but inasmuch as the people of the District have no voice in our selection, I think we ought only to vote for such laws as we know to be agreeable to our own folks, to say the least of it. If the people of a State have rejected a proposition by a decided majority, and we know that the white population

of the District agree with the people of that State, I do not well see how a Senator can impose such a law upon the people of the District.

"It is not my purpose to discuss the question, but simply to call attention to the fact that the expression of opinion in the Northern States in the recent elections has been very emphatic against this policy. Notwithstanding the bill passed at the last session, it is not necessary that we should now pass it, for the pleasure of the people had not then been so emphatically made known as it now has been."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed, saying: "But the objections to the measure upon your table, sir, in my view, are much stronger than those which were applicable to the other question of granting them the right of suffrage. From the consequences of the exercise of that right there is comparatively, as far as the general public is concerned, little to be apprehended. The large numerical majority of white people in the United States is perhaps a security against any serious disadvantage which might happen to the country at large. But that is not the case as far as concerns the measure upon your table. In that we and all our constituents of the white race have a very direct interest. We are to be tried civilly and criminally, we and our constituents, if we are charged with having violated any right, private or public; and the question for the Senate to decide is whether we are willing to have ourselves tried by a jury of black men for the most part just emerged from slavery, without the capacity absolutely necessary to a faithful and intelligent discharge of that duty. And it is more especially important in relation to criminal cases, because in cases of that description the jury may, in the exercise of its power, decide conclusively for itself, disregarding the opinion of the court; and thus our citizens and ourselves may be subjected to a judgment over which there is no revising power, practically pronounced by twelve ignorant black men.

"But that is not all. The number of the black race in this District is very large and promises to become larger. It may be able to elect out of its own numbers to every office, judicial or otherwise, that is not now to be filled by the Executive with the consent of the Senate. We may give them the authority to elect their magistrates; we may give them the authority to elect their judges; there is nothing to prevent it; and then we should be placed in the condition of having a tribunal to decide upon our rights, civil and criminal, constituted of persons of that race alone. Now, for one, although, as I said in the beginning, I would secure them in the possession of every right which a man has the authority to claim as a right, I am against giving to them a privilege which may be exercised to the detriment of the rest of the public, and which is not at all necessary to the vindication of all of their own rights."

Mr. Pomeroy, of Kansas, in reply, said. "Mr. President, I only wish to remark that if what has been said be true, as I think it is, that the colored people are very numerous in this District, it is worthy of consideration that they, too, have rights. They are to be tried by somebody, and it may be quite as objectionable to them to have their rights adjudicated by twelve ignorant white men as it is for white men to have their rights adjudicated by twelve ignorant black men. If this argument is good for any thing as against the negro, it is equally so as against the white man, because intelligence, loyalty, or patriotism, is not confined in this District, nor anywhere, to any class or any color. If a Senator is in favor of giving to this class of persons all the rights that are given to white men, then this is one of the rights certainly to be given. There is no State in the Union where a man has the right to be an elector, where he has a right to vote, that he cannot be voted for. In the nature of the case the man who carries the ballot, in all the States of this Union outside of this District, has the right himself to be elected. This is one of the facts that stare us in the face, that under our own legislation we have made electors of a class, and yet they are not allowed to hold office themselves. This bill remedies that defect."

The bill was subsequently passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, Harlan, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Wade, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—32.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Hendricks, Johnson, Norton, and Patterson of Tennessee—8.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cole, Conness, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Guthrie, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, Sprague, Van Winkle, and Yates—13.

On December 9th, the bill was passed in the House, without debate, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnell, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Boutwell, Broomall, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Halsey, Hamilton, Harding, Hawkins, Holman, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Koontz, Laffin, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Logan, Loughbridge, Lynch, Maynard, McClurg, Mercier, Moorhead, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Price, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Shanks, Smith, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Thomas, Trimble, Trowbridge, Upson, Van Aernam, Robert T. Van Horn, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, and Windom—105.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Chanler, Eldridge, Getz,

Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Mallory, Marshall, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Taber, Van Auker, Van Trump, Wood, and Woodward—38.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Anderson, Delos R. Ashley, Barnum, Blair, Cate, Cary, Sidney Clarke, Cornell, Covode, Finney, Fox, Gravelly, Griswold, Hill, Higby, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, Kitchen, George V. Lawrence, Loan, Marvin, McCarthy, McCullough, Miller, Moore, Morrell, Morrissey, Pile, Pomeroy, Raum, Scofield, Selye, Shellabarger, Spalding, Stone, Taffe, Taylor, Twichell, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Stephen F. Wilson, and Woodbridge—44.

In the Senate, on January 8th, Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, offered the following resolution:

Whereas Senate bill No. 141, entitled "An act for the further security of equal rights in the District of Columbia," having at this present session passed both Houses of Congress, was afterward, on the 11th day of December, 1867, duly presented to the President of the United States for his approval and signature; and whereas more than ten days, exclusive of Sundays, have since elapsed in this session without said bill having been returned either approved or disapproved: Therefore,

Resolved, That the President of the United States be requested to inform the Senate whether said bill has been delivered to and received by the Secretary of State as provided by the second section of the act of the 27th day of July, 1789.

The resolution was considered by unanimous consent, and agreed to.

On January 23d, the President sent the following message to the Senate:

To the Senate of the United States:

I have received the following preamble and resolution, adopted by the Senate on the 8th instant:

As the act which the resolution mentions has no relevancy to the subject under inquiry, it is presumed that it was the intention of the Senate to refer to the law of the 15th September, 1789, the second section of which prescribes—

That whenever a bill, order, resolution, or vote of the Senate and House of Representatives, having been approved and signed by the President of the United States, or not having been returned by him with his objections, shall become a law or take effect, it shall forthwith thereafter be received by the said Secretary from the President; and whenever a bill, order, resolution, or vote shall be returned by the President, with his objections, and shall, on being reconsidered, be agreed to, be passed, and be approved by two-thirds of both Houses of Congress, and thereby become a law or take effect, it shall, in such case, be received by the said Secretary from the President of the Senate or the Speaker of the House of Representatives, in whichever House it shall last have been so approved.

Inasmuch as the bill "for the further security of equal rights in the District of Columbia" has not become a law in either of the modes designated in the section above quoted, it has not been delivered to the Secretary of State for record and promulgation. The Constitution expressly declares that "if any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he has signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law." As stated in the preamble to the resolution, the bill to which it refers was presented for my approval on the 11th day of December, 1867. On the 20th of the same month, and before the expiration of the ten days after the presentation of the bill to the President, the two Houses, in accordance with a concurrent resolution adopted on the 3d of December, adjourned until the 6th of January, 1868. Congress by their adjournment thus prevented the

return of the bill within the time prescribed by the Constitution, and it was therefore left in the precise condition in which that instrument positively declares a bill "shall not be a law."

If the adjournment in December did not cause the failure of this bill because not such an adjournment as is contemplated by the Constitution in the clause which I have cited, it must follow that such was the nature of the adjournments during the past year, on the 30th day of March until the first Wednesday in July, and from the 20th of July until the 21st of November. Other bills will, therefore, be affected by the decision which may be rendered in this case, among them one having the same title as that named in the resolution, and containing similar provisions, which, passed by both Houses in the month of July last, failed to become a law by reason of the adjournment of Congress before ten days for its consideration had been allowed the Executive.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, January 23, 1868.

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I move that that communication be referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, and on its reference I have simply a word to say. It is perfectly manifest to me, from an examination that I have made of the subject since the resolution calling for that information was introduced, that the construction which the President puts upon the Constitution is altogether wrong, and that the transaction of public business would be vastly impeded if Congress were to acquiesce in such a construction; and I hope that we shall be able to adopt some measures which will put all the departments of the Government upon a common understanding upon that subject. Of course, this is in no sense a party question. Although it happens to arise now upon a bill which passed upon a division of parties, after all, the question has no political idea involved in it whatever; and I shall hope, therefore, when the matter comes to be considered in committee and reported upon, that we may consider it in a spirit which has no connection with and no incitement from the fact that this particular bill happens to be the subject of a difference of opinion. The same question exactly arose in the State of New Hampshire in 1863, under a constitution which, like most of our constitutions, contains the same provision, as was stated the other day by the honorable Senator from Maryland. I have examined the opinion in that case. It was an opinion pronounced by the court at the request of the Legislature of that State, under a provision of their constitution and laws for obtaining such opinions. The subject is carefully and elaborately discussed, evidently without any feeling about it, and I think any gentleman who will read that opinion, to be found in the forty-fifth volume, I think, of New-Hampshire Reports, cannot fail to be satisfied that this construction of the Constitution now held by the Executive is altogether erroneous, and would in practice lead to very serious inconveniences."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, said: "I am inclined to concur with the honorable member from Vermont. It is a question that I have

more than once considered, and I arrived at the same conclusion to which the court of New Hampshire arrived. The language of their constitution is precisely the same with that of the Constitution of the United States, except that the time is less than ten days. I think the time is three days."

Mr. Edmunds: "Five."

Mr. Johnson: "But the other words are identical. I also concur with the honorable member in thinking—and I suppose as to that all departments of the Government will concur—that it is very desirable that the question should be settled. I suppose there will be no difficulty in the Judiciary Committee coming to a conclusion, and I have every reason to suppose, without any actual knowledge, that whatever that conclusion may be it will be one in which the Executive will acquiesce."

Mr. Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, said: "It may be observed that Congress have already given the same construction to the Constitution which is stated by the President in his message. They have given it by their action upon a bill exactly similar to the present one. If there were any force in the reasoning now stated by the Senator from Vermont, it would have been appropriate for him to raise the point at the session in November. Instead of that being done, that session passed by, and a new bill was introduced and passed in the month of November.

"The language of the Constitution is very peculiar, different from that of most of the States. It says that if Congress by their adjournment prevent the return of a bill within ten days the bill shall not become a law. The language is positive. The phraseology is very different ordinarily in the State constitutions. Of course where either House of Congress adjourns during a period not exceeding three days no question would arise. Either House can adjourn for three days without the consent of the other. Such a partial or casual adjournment, which constantly takes place in practice, would not be such an adjournment as is intended by the clause in the Constitution; but where an adjournment for more than three days takes place by the joint action of both Houses, it seems to me it falls within the express letter of the Constitution, and that it is impossible to give any other construction to it. Now, sir, it seems to me, in view of the clearness of that provision, and the fact that Congress has already twice acted upon that construction, it would be best for the Committee on the Judiciary and for the Senate to acquiesce in what has already been established so far as congressional and executive action is concerned, and not raise this point."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I think my friend from Pennsylvania is mistaken in supposing that Congress has given the same construction to the Constitution that the President does. It is true that in one instance it appears we have passed a bill a second time

which contained the same phraseology that the first did; but I am sure he will not claim that that should have the controlling weight of a precedent when we all know that it passed without this question being considered or adverted to at all, as a mere way of hastening the accomplishment of the thing that Congress had in view in that particular bill without waiting to leave it to be settled by the Departments or the courts, whether the previous bill was a law or not, because it would only be a piece of unnecessary legislation to pass the second bill if the first one had become law. So we have done nothing to commit ourselves to the view of the President.

"Now, one word (and I do not want to occupy the morning hour with extended debate) as to the other branch of my friend's proposition. He says that Congress is adjourned, in the language of the Constitution, when each body with the consent of the other adjourns for more than three days, and the bill is therefore prevented, in the language of the Constitution, from being returned. I wish to submit it to him whether the true construction of that phrase is not an adjournment of Congress as the legislative body, the practical termination of its legislative functions as such? whereas the language of the Constitution, touching the adjournment of each House, is simply a limitation upon the power of each House to adjourn itself for more than three days without the consent of the other; and, therefore, under the Constitution it would be perfectly lawful, I think, for the Senate, with the consent of the House of Representatives, to adjourn for a week, or two weeks, or two months, although the House might continue in session all the time. That would not be an adjournment of Congress. Now, suppose that the same resolution contains a mutual consent, which is the effect of these concurrent resolutions, how does that alter the case? It, therefore, appears to me to be far from an adjournment of Congress, because it happens that each House, consenting to the adjournment of the other, adjourns at the same time for the same length of time. That is the view on the other side. I merely state it now, that both views may be considered together."

Mr. Buckalew: "Mr. President, I suppose that in case one House only adjourns, after having asked the consent of the other, if the House in which the bill originated still continues in session the bill would have to be returned within ten days."

The motion to refer was agreed to.

In the House, on December 5th, the following resolution, reported from the Committee on the Judiciary, was taken up:

Resolved, That Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors."

The Speaker said: "On this question the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Boutwell) has

the floor. Before the gentleman proceeds with his remarks, the Chair desires to make an announcement to the House and the spectators in the gallery.

"In view of the disorderly manifestations made last week when the report of the committee on this subject was presented, the Chair desires now to say that if such demonstrations be repeated in the galleries he shall order them to be cleared, although he knows that thereby the innocent will suffer with the guilty. He is determined that the order of this House shall be maintained, and a proper respect be paid to this body by those who are allowed to witness its deliberations. If, therefore, any manifestation of approbation or disapprobation be made in the galleries, the Chair will order to be cleared that part where it occurs, or the whole of the galleries. And the Chair will state further, that if, as was the case last week, members upon the floor indulge in manifestations of approval or disapproval, either during the debate or its termination, however the question may be decided, the Chair, if he can ascertain what gentlemen are guilty of such violation of the rules, will state their names to the House, the effect of which will be to bring the matter before the House for such action as it may see fit to adopt in view of the contempt of its rules."

Mr. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, from the majority of the committee, urged the adoption of the resolution, saying: "If the position I have taken is sound, that the meaning of the phrase 'high crimes and misdemeanors' is to be ascertained by reference to the principles of the English common law of crimes, Blackstone's definition, 'that a crime or misdemeanor is an act committed or omitted in violation of a public law either forbidding or commanding it,' becomes important. I stand upon this definition of the great writer upon English law as the connecting link between the theory of the law that I maintain and the facts which in this case are proved.

"It is to be observed in connection with Blackstone's definition that in our system the Constitution and the statutes are the 'public law' of which he speaks, and any act done by the President which is forbidden by the law or by the Constitution, or the omission by him to do what is by the law or the Constitution commanded, is a 'high crime and misdemeanor,' and renders him liable to impeachment and removal from office.

"He is amenable to the House and the Senate in accordance with the great principles of public law of which the Constitution of the United States is the foundation. And it is true, in a higher and better sense than it is true of the statutes, that the President of the United States is bound to support the Constitution, the vital part of which, in reference to the public affairs of the country, is that he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and he violates that great provision of the Consti-

tution, especially when he himself disregards the law either by doing that which is forbidden or neglecting that which he is commanded to do.

"Sir, in approaching the discussion of the transactions of which we complain, I labor under great difficulties, such as are incident to the case. The President has in his hands the immense patronage of the Government. Its influence is all-pervading. The country was disappointed, no doubt, in the report of the committee, and very likely this House participated in the disappointment, that there was no specific, heinous, novel offence charged upon and proved against the President of the United States. It is in the very nature of the case that no such heinous offence could be proved. If we understand the teachings of the successive acts which are developed in the voluminous report of the testimony, and if we understand the facts which are there developed, they all point to one conclusion, and that is that the offence with which the President is charged, and of which I believe by history he will ultimately be convicted, is that he used as he had the opportunity, and misused as necessity and circumstances dictated, the great powers of the nation with which he was intrusted, for the purpose of reconstructing this Government in the interest of the rebellion, so that henceforth this Union, in its legitimate connection, in its relations, in its powers, in its historical character, should be merely the continuation of the Government which was organized at Montgomery and transferred to Richmond.

"If, sir, this statement unfolds the nature of the case, there would not be found any particular specific act which would disclose the whole of the transaction. It was only by a series of acts, by a succession of events, by participation direct or indirect in numerous transactions, some of them open and some of them secret, that this great scheme was carried on and far on toward its final consummation. Hence it happens that when we present a particular charge, it is one which for a long time has been before the public. The country has heard of it again and again. Men do not see in that particular offence any great enormity. Then we are told that this particular act was advised by this Cabinet officer, and that act assented to another Cabinet officer. This matter was discussed in Cabinet meeting, the other was considered in a side-chamber, and therefore the President is not alone responsible for any thing that has been done. But, sir, I assert that whoever else may be responsible with him, he is responsible for himself. Any other theory is destructive to public liberty. We understand the relations which subsisted between the President and his Cabinet officers. The tenure-of-office act gave the latter a degree of independence. But, whatever were the subsisting relations, the President cannot shield himself by their counsel, and claim immunity for open, known, and wilful violations of the

laws of the land. I do not speak now of errors of judgment, but of open and avowed illegal acts personally done or authorized by himself. But he has not always had even the countenance of his Cabinet officers. The test-oath was suspended by the President against the opinion of Attorney-General Speed. If Cabinet officers have been concerned in these illegal transactions, I have for them, to a large extent, the same excuse that I have for myself, the same that I have for the members of this House and for the people of this country. In the beginning they did not understand the President's character, capacity, and purposes.

"His capacity has not been comprehended by the country. Violent sometimes in language, indiscreet in manner, impulsive in action, unwise often in declamation, he is still animated by a persistency of purpose which never yields under any circumstances, but seeks by means covert and tortuous as well as open and direct the accomplishment of the purpose of his life.

"I care not to go into an examination—indeed, I have neither the time nor the taste for it now—of the tortuous ways by which he has controlled men who in the public estimation are superior to himself. But my excuse for Cabinet officers, for members of Congress, for the country, is that in 1865, when he issued his proclamation for the reorganization of North Carolina, no one understood him. General Grant in his testimony says that he considered the plan temporary; to be approved or annulled when Congress should meet in December. But when Congress assembled the President told us that the work was ended; that the rebellious States were restored to the Union. He then planted himself firmly upon the proposition laid down in his North Carolina proclamation in defiance of the Constitution; in defiance of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States that the power was in Congress to decide whether the government of a State was republican or not; in defiance of the cardinal principle of the sovereignty of the people through Congress. He ratified substantially in his message that which he had assumed merely in the proclamation of the 29th of May, that he was the United States for the purpose of deciding whether the government of a State was republican or not.

"Sir, if this whole case rested merely upon that assumption, that exercise of power, I maintain that it would bring him specifically and exactly within the control of this House, for the purpose of arraigning him before the Senate upon the charge of seizing and usurping the greatest power of the legislative department of the Government, unless it be that of taxation, which he has also usurped and exercised in defiance of the Constitution. But even then the nature of the proceeding was not fully understood, and his motives were only partially disclosed. The public mind did not comprehend the character and extent of the usurpation.

"Thus it was that his motive was concealed. He was not understood, and the charity of the country silenced suspicions of evil. But he moved on step by step. The country in the mean while was under the influence of his bold declarations, made frequently from the 14th of April to about the 1st of July, 1865; declarations which, even in the coldest of us, made the blood kindle in our veins, as he set forth the punishment to which the rebels were entitled. Even the most violent of the Northern people, they who had suffered from the war, those who had offered their sons, their brothers, and their husbands in sacrifice for the Republic, shuddered when they listened to his declamation as to the power and duty of this Government to punish those who had been engaged in the rebellion. But from July, 1865, his conduct and his policy have been entirely opposed to the declarations made in the spring and early summer of that year. I see in those declarations only this: that they were designed and intended, when they were uttered, to conceal from the public the great purpose he had in view, which was, to wrest this Government from the power of the loyal people of the North and turn it over to the tender mercies of those who had brought upon the country all the horrors of civil war.

"I pass, sir, to the testimony of Judge Mathews, of Ohio, a person whom I never saw but once, and of whom I know nothing except what the record discloses. He was an officer of the Northern Army, and he has been a judge of some of the courts in Cincinnati or vicinity. He says that in the month of February, 1865, when Mr. Johnson was passing from Tennessee to Washington to take the oath of office as Vice-President, he called upon him at the Burnett House. The conversation was apparently unimportant, but it discloses a purpose on the part of Mr. Johnson. He said to Judge Mathews, 'You and I were old Democrats.' 'Yes,' replied Judge Mathews. Says Mr. Johnson, 'I will tell you what it is: if the country is ever to be saved it is to be done through the old Democratic party.' That was in February, 1865. He had then received the suffrages of a free and generous people. They had taken him from Tennessee, where he would have had no abiding-place but for the armies of the Republic that protected him in his person and property. He was then entering upon the second office in the gift of the people, chosen by the great party of power and of progress in the country, which had saved the Union in its days of peril. No act had been by them done which could possibly have alienated him from them. Jefferson Davis was still at Richmond. The armies of Lee menaced the capital of his country. Andrew Johnson was approaching that capital for the purpose of taking the oath of office. That capital was merely a fortified garrison. He then declares that the country cannot be saved except by the old Democratic party.

"What was the old Democratic party? It was the party of the South; it was made up of those men in the Southern country who entered into the rebellion. That casual expression, dropped at the Burnett House in Cincinnati in February, 1865, discloses his mysterious course from that day to this. I do not speak now of those Democrats of the North who stood by the flag of the country, who maintained the cause of the Union, but I speak of that old Democratic party of which he spoke, whose inspiring principle was devotion to slavery, hatred to republican institutions and the cause of the Union and of liberty. It was to them that Mr. Johnson, in February, 1865, turned his eyes for the salvation of the country. He was then Vice-President only, but his career as President illustrates his devotion to the purpose he then entertained.

"I come now to a brief statement of those acts of the President which disclose his motives and establish his guilt. First, he and his friends sedulously promulgated the idea that what he did in the year 1865 was temporary.

"Then came his message of December, 1865, which disclosed more fully his ulterior purpose.

"Then came the speech of February 22, 1866, in which he arraigned the Congress of the United States collectively and individually, and, as I believe, made use of expressions which, uttered by a sovereign of Great Britain in reference to Parliament, and to individual members of Parliament, would have led to most serious consequences, if not to the overthrow of the Government.

"Then came his vetoes of the various reconstruction measures. I know very well that it will be said that the President has the veto power in his hands. To be sure he has; but it is a power to be exercised, like the discretion of a court, in good faith, for proper purposes, in honest judgment and good conscience, and not persistently in the execution of a scheme which is in contravention of the just authority of the legislative branch of the Government. It was exercised, however, by the President for the purpose of preventing reconstruction by congressional agency and by authority of law.

"Then came his interference by his message of the 22d of June, 1866, and by other acts, all disclosing and furthering a purpose to prevent the ratification of the pending constitutional amendment, a matter with which, as the Executive of the country, he had no concern whatever. The Constitution provides that the House and the Senate, by specified means, may propose amendments to the Constitution; and if any subject is wholly separated from executive authority or control, it is this power to amend the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution reserves this power to Congress, and to the people, excluding the President. In the same year he suspended the test-oath, against the advice of the Attorney-

General, and appointed men to office who, as he well knew, could not take that oath. The oath was prescribed for the purpose of protecting the country against the presence of disloyal persons in office—a measure necessary to the public safety. Can any act be more reprehensible? Can any act be more criminal? Can any act be more clearly within Blackstone's definition of 'crimes and misdemeanors.'

"Then follows his surrender of abandoned lands. In 1865 we passed the first Freedmen's Bureau bill, in which we set apart the abandoned lands for the negroes and refugees of the South. In violation of law and without authority of law he has restored them to their former rebel owners. This class of property was of the value of many millions of money.

"We had captured in the South vast amounts of railway property. All these millions of property he has turned over to their former rebel proprietors. In many instances, as in the case of one railway, the Government itself, under his special direction and control, in the State of Tennessee, constructed fifty-four miles of railway at an expense of more than two million dollars. This railway, with others, was turned over without consideration, without power to make reclamation, or to obtain compensation, and all without authority of law.

"We possessed a vast amount of rolling-stock used on Southern roads during the war, some of it captured from the enemy. The rolling-stock captured he restored without money and without price. Other portions of it, constructed by the Government of the United States, or purchased of manufacturers or of railroad companies, he sold without authority of law to corporations that, according to the principles of law, were insolvent. When the time arrived for payment to the Government, many of them neglected to comply with the conditions of sale. One of those corporations, the Nashville and Chattanooga Railroad, Tennessee, made an exhibit by which it appeared they had money on hand to pay the Government what they owed it. The officers of the Government demanded payment, and threatened to take possession of the road in case of further neglect. President Johnson, by his simple order, and that, as far as is known, without consultation with any member of the Cabinet, authorized, or rather directed, a delay or postponement in the collection of this debt. Agreeably to a previous order which he had issued, the interest on the bonds guaranteed by the State of Tennessee to this road, which had been due three or four years, were then paid out of money which, upon every principle of reason, equity, and law, belonged to the Government. The money had been earned by the use of the rolling-stock which the Government had furnished.

"Mr. Johnson's order was in utter disregard of the great principle that of all creditors the Government is to be first paid. Under no circumstances does the law concede to the citizen

the right of payment until the claim of the sovereign is satisfied.

"One important fact in connection with this transaction is, that the President himself was the holder of these Tennessee State bonds, issued for the benefit of this road, to the amount of either nineteen thousand or thirty thousand dollars; and that of that money, which upon the contract and by every principle of law was due to the United States, he received past interest for about four years. A small matter, you may say; a small matter, the country may say; but in a public trust he had no right, in the first place, to make sale of this property; secondly, he had no right to postpone payment; and, above all, he had no right to delay payment for the purpose of receiving to himself that which belonged to the Government. Nor is it any excuse for him that there were other holders, whether loyal or rebel, who shared the benefits of this transaction.

"Then there are connected with these proceedings other public acts, such as the appointment of provisional governors for North Carolina and the other nine States without any authority of law. Not only that, but he authorized the payment of salaries without authority of law. Not only that, he ordered payment from the War Department of those salaries, notwithstanding there had been no appropriation by law, and notwithstanding the Constitution of the United States says that no money shall be drawn from the Treasury but in consequence of an appropriation by law.

"When you bring all these acts together; when you consider what he has said; when you consider what he has done; when you consider that he has appropriated the public property for the benefit of the rebels; when you consider that in every public act, as far as we can learn, from May, 1865, to the present time, all has tended to this great result, the restoration of the rebels to power under and in the Government of the country; when you consider all these things, can there be any doubt as to his purpose, or doubt as to the criminality of his purpose, and his responsibility under the Constitution?

"It may not be possible, by specific charge, to arraign him for this great crime, but is he therefore to escape? These offences which I have enumerated, which are impeachable—and I have enumerated but a part of them—are the acts, the individual acts, the subordinate crimes, the tributary offences to the accomplishment of the great object which he had in view. But if, upon the body of the testimony, you are satisfied of his purpose, and if you are satisfied that these tributary offences were committed as the means of enabling him to accomplish this great crime, will you hesitate to try him and convict him upon those charges of which he is manifestly guilty, even if they appear to be of inferior importance, knowing that they were in themselves misdemeanors, that they

were tributary offences, and that in this way, and in this way only, can you protect the State against the final consummation of his crime? We have not yet seen the end of this contest.

"I am not disposed to enter into the region of prophecy, but we can understand the logic of propositions. The propositions which the President has laid down in his last message, and elsewhere, will lead to certain difficulty if they are acted upon. Whether they will be acted upon I cannot say. The first proposition is, that under some circumstances an act of Congress may be in his judgment so unconstitutional that he will violate the law and utterly disregard legislative authority. This is an assumption of power which strikes at the foundation of the Government. The Constitution authorizes Congress to pass bills. When they have been passed, they are presented to the President for his approval or objection. If he objects to a bill for constitutional or other reason, he returns it to the House in which it originated; and then there his power over the subject is exhausted. If the House and Senate by a two-thirds vote pass a bill, it becomes a law, and, until it is repealed by the same authority or annulled by the Supreme Court, the President has but one duty, and that is to obey it; and no consideration or opinion of his as to its constitutionality will defend or protect him in any degree. The opposite doctrine is fraught with evils of the most alarming character to the country. If the President may refuse to execute or may violate a law because he thinks it unconstitutional in a certain particular, another President may disregard it for another reason; and thus the Government becomes not a Government of laws, but a Government of men. Every civil officer has the same right in this respect as the President. If the latter has the right to disregard a law because he thinks it unconstitutional, the Secretary of the Treasury and every subordinate have the same right. Is that doctrine to prevail in this country?

"But coupled with that declaration is another declaration, that the negroes of the South have no right whatever to vote. Our whole plan of reconstruction is based upon the doctrine that the loyal people of the South, black and white, are to vote. Now, while there is no evidence conclusively establishing the fact, it is still undoubtedly true that thousands and tens of thousands of white men in the States recently in rebellion have abstained from participation in the work of calling the conventions, because they have been stimulated by the conduct of the President to believe that they will ultimately be able to secure governments from which the negro population will be excluded. What is our condition to-day? Governments are being set up in the ten States largely by the black people, and without the concurrence of the whites, that concurrence being refused, to a large extent, through the

influence of the President. Are we to leave this officer, if we judge him to be guilty of high crimes and misdemeanors, in control of the Army and the Navy, with his declaration upon the record that under certain circumstances he will not execute the laws? He has the control of the Army. Do you not suppose that next November a single soldier at each polling-place in the Southern country, aided by the whites, could prevent the entire negro population from voting? And, if it is for the interest of the President to do so, have we any reason to anticipate a different course of conduct? At any rate, such is the logic of the propositions which he has presented to us. If that logic be followed, the next presidential election will be heralded by civil war, or the next inauguration of a President of the United States will be the occasion for the renewal of fratricidal strife.

"Mr. Speaker, we are at present involved in financial difficulties. I see no way of escape while Mr. Johnson is President of the United States. I assent to much of what he has said in his message concerning the effects of the Tenure-of-Office Act. From my experience in the internal revenue office, I reach the conclusion that it is substantially impossible to collect the taxes while the Tenure-of-Office Act is in force; and I have no doubt that whenever a new Administration is organized, of whatever party it may be, some of the essential provisions of that act will be changed. The reason, Mr. Speaker, of the present difficulty is due to the fact that the persons engaged in plundering the revenues of the country are more or less associated criminally with public officers. The character of those public officers can be substantially known in the internal revenue office and in the Treasury Department; but if the Secretary of the Treasury and the President, before they can remove officers against whom probable cause exists, are obliged to wait until they have evidence which will satisfy the Senate of their guilt, the very process of waiting for that evidence to be procured exhausts the public revenues. There is but one way of overcoming this difficulty. When the President, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, are in harmony, and the Commissioner is satisfied from the circumstances existing that an officer is in collusion with thieves, he can ask the President for the removal of that man; and then there should exist the power of removal by a stroke of the pen. Neither the official nor his friends should know the reason therefor. Nothing so inspires officials with zeal in the discharge of their duties as to feel that if they are derelict their commissions may at any moment be taken from them.

"But what is our position to-day? Can this House and the Senate, with the knowledge that they have of the President's purposes and of the character of the men who surround

him, give him the necessary power? Do they not feel that, if he be allowed such power, these places will be given to worse men? Hence I say that with Mr. Johnson in office from this time until the 4th of March, 1869, there is no remedy for these grievances. These are considerations only why we should not hesitate to do that which justice authorizes us to do if we believe that the President has been guilty of impeachable offences.

"Mr. Speaker, all rests here. To this House is given under the Constitution the sole power of impeachment; and this power of impeachment furnishes the only means by which we can secure the execution of the laws. And those of our fellow-citizens who desire the administration of the law ought to sustain this House while it executes that great law which is in its hands and which is nowhere else, while it performs a high and solemn duty resting upon it by which that man who has been the chief violator of law shall be removed, and without which there can be no execution of the law anywhere. Therefore the whole responsibility, whatever it may be, for the non-execution of the laws of the country is, in the presence of these great facts, upon this House. If this House believes that the President has executed the laws of the country, that he has obeyed the provision of the Constitution to take care that the laws be faithfully executed, then it is our duty to sustain him, to lift up his hands, to strengthen his arms; but if we believe, as upon this record I think we cannot do otherwise than believe, that he has disregarded that great injunction of the Constitution to take care that the laws be faithfully executed, there is but one remedy. The remedy is with this House, and it is nowhere else. If we neglect or refuse to use our powers when the case arises demanding decisive action, the Government ceases to be a Government of laws and becomes a Government of men."

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, from the minority of the committee, said: "The position which the minority of the committee occupy in this case may be summed up in these words: that no civil officer of the United States can be lawfully impeached except for a crime or misdemeanor known to the law; that this body must be guided by the law, and not by that indefinite something called its conscience, which may be one thing to-day and quite a different one to-morrow. If the case now before us, tested by the principles of criminal law, discloses high crimes or misdemeanors coming within the rule I have stated, then the gentleman is right in demanding that the President of the United States be impeached; and I here throw open to the gentleman the range of both statutory and common law impeachable crimes. If these cannot be found in the record of this case, then no amount of conscience in House and Senate can justify us in proceeding further with it.

"Briefly I will refer to some of the facts to which the gentleman from Massachusetts has

directed our attention, for, after all, upon these must depend mainly the termination of this case. The first things to which the gentleman refers us are the acts of the President having reference to the reconstruction of the rebel States.

"He excuses to some extent some of the advisers of the President on the ground that they, at the inauguration of the executive plan of reconstruction, did not understand his motives nor comprehend his wicked designs. How did the plan originate and by whom was it prepared? The North Carolina proclamation, which was followed in every other case, seems mainly to have been the work of Mr. Stanton, and I am sure we will not question his patriotism. The President certainly did not use him as an instrument to carry out his wicked designs. He could not use him for any such purpose. But it is said that the President's real motive was to turn over the power of the Government to the possession of the rebels who had made war upon it, and that this was not discovered until his first annual message was communicated to Congress in December, 1865, when the motive was disclosed and the plot became apparent. Soon after this message had been delivered to Congress, the contest between the executive and legislative departments of the Government commenced. Presidential vetoes came in upon us. The Freedmen's Bureau Bill and the Civil Rights Bill fell under his hand. The notorious presidential speech of the 22d of February, 1866, proclaimed the breach between us and the President irreparable. The official heads of our friends fell into the Executive basket with astonishing rapidity. We were outraged by this conduct of the man who had been elevated to power by our votes. We appealed to a deceived people, and they sustained us, as, I doubt not, they will continue to do.

"More than six months after the date when the gentleman from Massachusetts says he discovered the real motive and criminal design of the President in this matter of reconstruction, the report of the joint committee which had been charged with that subject was made to the two Houses of Congress. This report was made on the 18th day of June, 1866, and in it our agents told us of the wretched results of the President's policy. They had carefully surveyed the entire field, but gave us no notice of the motive and design of the President, which my friend from Massachusetts has just told us he had discovered in December, 1865. On the contrary, they said in that report:

While your committee do not for a moment impute to the President any such design [to destroy the constitutional form of Government, and absorb its powers in the Executive], but cheerfully concede to him the most patriotic motives, they cannot but look with alarm upon a precedent so fraught with danger to the Republic.

"And to that report the name of my friend from Massachusetts is signed. This was months

after the December discovery, and in the midst of the bitter political contest which resulted from the President's unjustifiable desertion of the party which had trusted him and elevated him to the second office in the Government.

"Sir, I am not here to defend the President. He must be a bold man who will undertake that task. I have not boldness sufficient for it, even if I had the inclination, which in the remotest degree does not exist in my mind; for I believe him to be the worst of the Presidents. But it does seem strange to me that any member of that able, thorough, pertinacious Committee on Reconstruction should now demand an impeachment of the President for doing the acts which they reported to us he had done from patriotic motives. Such motives, if they did exist, will not support an allegation of criminal intent.

"It is affirmed that the testimony of Stanley Mathews discloses that the President, from the very date of his first association with the Republican party, designed treachery. The testimony of this witness and that of Hon. Jeremiah S. Black show that the President never was in earnest accord with the Republican party. This will account for much of his strange and reprehensible conduct. But it does not establish a crime. It discloses a trait of character bad almost beyond precedent, and shows how cautious political parties should be in selecting candidates for official positions. We committed a terrible blunder, not to say a political crime, when we selected Andrew Johnson as our candidate for the vice-presidential office. We trusted too much to his oft-repeated utterances of devotion to the progressive principles of the Republican organization, and unfortunately forgot, for the time being, his antecedents as a public man, and the influences and associations which had moulded his character, and would be likely to direct his action as a public officer. His offences in this regard, sad and grave as they are, must be tried by the suffrages of the people, and not on impeachment before the Senate.

"The next grand charge which is advanced in support of the demand for an impeachment of the President, is the surrender of property of which the Government and its agents held possession. In this charge the surrender of railroads in the insurgent States occupies a conspicuous position. But the policy which led to this did not originate with the President. Secretary Stanton's testimony shows that with himself and the Quartermaster-General this policy originated. He regarded his action in the premises as in consonance with the requirements of a great public policy, which demanded the opening of these great channels of commerce to the trade and business of the country, as tending to a renewal of prosperity and as an effective means of reconstruction."

Mr. Dawes: "And stands by it now."

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa: "Yes, sir—so far as I have any information—adheres to it yet.

Whatever may be the rule of public law with reference to property seized in time of war, and which may have been occupied or used by the public enemy, this Government established its own rule, as it had a right to do, by enacting the Confiscation Act of 1862. None of the railroads surrendered had been seized, condemned, and sold under the provisions of that act, nor had the stock which represented the title of the stockholders to the property been confiscated in pursuance of its provisions. The Government had not acquired title to this property by either of these modes. The Government held possession of the roads for military purposes, and when the war closed surrendered that possession to the corporations owning them, which action was in accord with the opinions of Attorneys-General Speed and Stanbery, that the property of corporations did not come within the Confiscation Act of 1862; and that, if it did, said act, being a war measure, could not properly be enforced after the rebellion had been suppressed and the war had ceased. It does not occur to me that this branch of the case affords evidence of criminal conduct.

"The surrender of property to individuals is covered to a great extent by this view of the President's legal advisers, and in a larger degree by the well-established principle that a full pardon restores to the recipient all of his rights which have not become vested in third parties. The construction given to the Confiscation Act of 1862, and the effect of a full pardon, may be said to cover all of these cases of surrender of property. If the pardons, whether by special act of grace or by general amnesty, were in any case corruptly granted, the record submitted to this House by the committee does not disclose the fact.

"The sale of movable property to railway corporations is complained of. In all cases where this character came within the rule already stated respecting the property of corporations, all sums realized by such sale were gains to the Government. In other cases, as when the Government owned the same by virtue of purchase or manufacture, the sales were not authorized by law, but it does not appear that they were made from corrupt or criminal motives, or for the purpose of private gain.

"The first plan adopted for the regulation of these sales seems to have been the work of the Quartermaster-General, approved by the Secretary of War. This was subsequently changed by the President, and the sales proceeded. How has the President been profited by this? The sales inured to the benefit of the Government. The President derived no benefit therefrom.

"But it is alleged that he did derive a benefit by extending the time for the payment of the amount due to the Government from the Nashville and Chattanooga Railway Company; that he held bonds of this company, and, by extending the time in which the company had agreed to pay the same, he secured the payment of the

interest due on his own bonds. The interest on these bonds was guaranteed by the State of Tennessee, and the utmost amount he could save thereby would be the interest on the amount of interest due which might accrue between the date of the extension or final payment. This would be at most an inconsiderable sum. Still this action of the President might afford some color to the argument of the gentleman from Massachusetts, if it stood alone amid the demands of Southern railway companies for extensions of time in which payments were to be made by them to the Government. But it does not stand alone—it is not an exceptional case. The first extensions were granted by order of Major-General Thomas, others by order of the Secretary of War (Mr. Stanton), until nearly, if not quite, all of the Southern companies became the recipients of the benefits of a system which seems to have become general. If these acts of the Secretary of War and of General Thomas were illegal and criminal (which I presume no one will claim they were), the President cannot be charged criminally with them, unless it appear that they were done by his subordinates with his consent, or at least with his knowledge, and it will hardly be claimed that this is established by the testimony in this case.

"Mr. Speaker, I will not detain the House much longer by commenting on this case. If I were to refer to all of the facts of the case, in reply to the gentleman from Massachusetts, I could accomplish no more than has already been achieved by the minority report, and I am content to leave it with the House upon the argument and review presented by that document. It would be an unprofitable consumption of time for me to go beyond it. A few minutes more, and I will have done.

"The gentleman from Massachusetts has expressed his fears that a failure to impeach and remove the President from office will result in a total defeat of the congressional plan of reconstruction. How can this be? The constitutional life of this Congress will measure the full limit of the President's official term. We most assuredly will not surrender our plan. No power can turn us from this determination. Before the expiration of this Congress we hope to have every State restored on the just and equitable principles of our plan. If this result be not realized, to our successors will be left the task of completing our labors, unless the people in the next congressional elections determine to reverse our resolve by returning a majority to this House hostile to the system of reconstruction which we have adopted. I am willing to trust the people in this regard, without fear as to the judgment they will pronounce. A failure of our plan of reconstruction can be secured only by the voice of the people at the ballot-box. I cannot believe that it will thus fail, but if it should it will be the act of the people and not of the President. We may not impeach for this.

"The gentleman from Massachusetts has remarked that the President may interfere with the next presidential election in the Southern States; that he may station soldiers at the voting-places and overawe the loyal vote of those States, especially the colored vote; and we must, I suppose, guard against the possibility of this by his impeachment and removal from office. This position, if I state it correctly, is startling. Are we to impeach the President for what he may do in the future? Do our fears constitute in the President high crimes and misdemeanors? Are we to wander beyond the record of this case and found our judgment of it on the possibilities of the future? This would lead us even beyond the conscience of this House.

"Sir, we must be guided by some rule in this grave proceeding—something more certain than an impossibility to arraign the President for a specific crime. And when the gentleman from Massachusetts, in commenting on one of the alleged offences of the President, stated that we could not "arraign him for the specific crime," he disclosed the weakness of the case we are now considering. If we cannot arraign the President for a specific crime, for what are we to proceed against him? For a bundle of generalities such as we have in the volume of testimony reported by the committee to the House in this case? If we cannot state upon paper a specific crime, how are we to carry this case to the Senate for trial? Mr. Speaker, I have done."

Mr. Wilson concluded his remarks with a motion to lay the subject on the table. This was finally withdrawn, and the question taken on the resolution, which was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anderson, Arnell, James M. Ashley, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Butler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Covode, Cullom, Donnelly, Eckley, Ela, Farnsworth, Gravely, Harding, Higby, Hopkins, Hunter, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, William Lawrence, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Maynard, McClurg, Mercur, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Pile, Price, Schenck, Shanks, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stokes, Thomas, Trimble, Trowbridge, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Thomas Williams, William Williams, and Stephen F. Wilson—57.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Allison, Ames, Archer, Delos R. Ashley, Axtell, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Barnum, Beaman, Beck, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Boyer, Brooks, Buckland, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Cook, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Driggs, Eggleston, Eldridge, Eliot, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Griswold, Grover, Haight, Halsey, Hamilton, Hawkins, Hill, Holman, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hubbard, Humphrey, Ingersoll, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Koontz, Lakin, George V. Lawrence, Lincoln, Marshall, Marvin, McCarthy, McCullough, Miller, Moorhead, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Perham, Peters, Phelps, Pike, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Pruyn, Randall, Robertson, Robinson, Ross, Sawyer, Sitgreaves, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Stewart, Stone, Taber, Taylor, Upson, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Van Trump, Van Wyck, Cadwalader C.

Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Woodbridge, and Woodward—108.
 Not Voting—Messrs. Barnes, Blair, Cake, Cornell, Finney, Fox, Jencks, Kitchen, Mallory, Moore, Morrell, Morrissey, Pomeroy, Raum, Scofield, Selye, Shellabarger, Taffie, Twichell, Burt Van Horn, Windom, and Wood—22.

In the House, on February 22d, Mr. Covode, of Pennsylvania, moved the following resolution:

Resolved, That Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors.

It was referred, without debate, to the Committee on Reconstruction.

On the same day, the committee made a report, through Mr. Stevens, as follows:

The Committee on Reconstruction, to whom was referred, on the 27th day of January last, the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Committee on Reconstruction be authorized to inquire what combinations have been made or attempted to be made to obstruct the due execution of the laws; and to that end the committee have power to send for persons and papers, and to examine witnesses on oath, and report to this House what action, if any, they may deem necessary; and that said committee have leave to report at any time.

And to whom was also referred, on the 21st day of February, instant, a communication from Hon. Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, dated on said 21st day of February, together with the copy of a letter from Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, to the said Edwin M. Stanton, as follows:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 21, 1868. }

SIR: By virtue of the power and authority vested in me, as President, by the Constitution and laws of the United States, you are hereby removed from office as Secretary for the Department of War, and your functions as such will terminate upon the receipt of this communication.

You will transfer to Brevet Major-General Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General of the Army, who has this day been authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, all records, books, papers, and other public property now in your custody and charge.

Respectfully yours,

ANDREW JOHNSON.

HON. EDWIN M. STANTON, Washington, D. C.

And to whom was also referred by the House of Representatives the following resolution, namely:

Resolved, That Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors.

Have considered the several subjects referred to them, and submit the following report:

That in addition to the papers referred to the committee, the committee find that the President, on the 21st day of February, 1868, signed and issued a commission or letter of authority to one Lorenzo Thomas, directing and authorizing said Thomas to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, and to take possession of the books, records, and papers, and other public property in the War Department, of which the following is a copy:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,

WASHINGTON, February 21, 1868. }

SIR: Hon. Edwin M. Stanton having been this day removed from office as Secretary for the Department of War, you are hereby authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, and will immediately enter upon the discharge of the duties pertaining to that office. Mr. Stanton has been instructed to transfer to you all the records, books, papers, and other public property now in his custody and charge.

Respectfully yours,

ANDREW JOHNSON.

To Brevet Major-General LORENZO THOMAS, Adjt.-Gen. U. S. A., Washington, D. C.

Official copy respectfully furnished to Hon. Edwin M. Stanton.
L. THOMAS,
Secretary of War *ad interim*.

Upon the evidence collected by the committee, which is herewith presented, and in virtue of the powers with which they have been invested by the House, they are of the opinion that Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors. They therefore recommend to the House the adoption of the accompanying resolution.

THADDEUS STEVENS,
GEORGE S. BOUTWELL,
JOHN A. BINGHAM,
C. T. HULBURD,
JOHN F. FARNSWORTH,
F. C. BEAMAN,
H. E. PAINE.

Resolution providing for the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States.

Resolved, That Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors in office.

Mr. Stevens said: "Mr. Speaker, it is not my intention in the first instance to discuss this question; and if there be no desire on the other side to discuss it we are willing that the question should be taken upon the knowledge which the House already has. Indeed, the fact of removing a man from office while the Senate was in session, without the consent of the Senate, if there were nothing else, is of itself, and always has been considered, a high crime and misdemeanor, and was never before practised."

Mr. Brooks, of New York, said: "Why is this attempted? Because it is believed that the Northern people of this country are now with the Democratic party; because it is believed now, previous to a presidential election, it is necessary so to manipulate and control the executive and judicial departments of the Government, by the annexation of some African States of the South, that the so-called Republicans of the North, in spite of the majority of the Northern people, shall obtain control and possession of this Government. The sacrifice of two of the three branches of Government is deemed indispensably necessary to keep the Republican party in power."

Mr. Spalding, of Ohio, said: "It has seemed to me, sir, for weeks, that this high officer of our Government was inviting the very ordeal which, I am sorry to say, is now upon us, and the dread consequences of which will speedily be upon him. He has thrown himself violently in contact with an act of Congress passed on the 2d day of March last by the votes of the constitutional two-thirds of the Senate, and two-thirds of the House of Representatives, over his veto assigning his reasons for withholding his assent. Now, it matters not how many acts can be found upon the statute-books in years gone by that would sanction the removal of a Cabinet officer by the President; the gentleman from New York numbers three. He may reckon up thirty or three hundred, and still, if, within the last six or nine months, Congress has, in a constitutional manner, made an enactment that prohibits such removal, and the Executive wantonly disregards such enact-

ment, and attempts to remove the officer, he incurs the penalty as clearly and as certainly as if there never had been any legislation to the contrary. That subsequent enactment, if it be constitutional, repeals, by its own force, all other prior enactments with which it may conflict; and in nothing is that enactment more significant than in this, that the President shall not remove any civil officer who has been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, without the concurrence of that body when it is itself in session. It is true that the right of suspension was given to the Executive during the recess of the Senate; but that poor right of suspension ceased so soon as the Senate convened.

"But now, not only in face of the decision of the Senate saying that the suspension of the Secretary of War, made during the late recess, was without good cause; and in the face of the penalties of the act of March 2, 1867, entitled 'An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices,' the President, on yesterday, sent into the Senate a message declaring, in terms, that he had removed Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, and that, too, in defiance of the sixth section of the act which declares—

That every removal, appointment, or employment made, had, or exercised contrary to the provisions of this act, shall be deemed, and are hereby declared, to be 'high misdemeanors;' and, upon trial and conviction, every person guilty thereof shall be punished by a fine not exceeding \$10,000, and by imprisonment not exceeding five years, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court."

Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, said: "What is there of this question? A great deal. It is a vast question, and I trust that I come to the discussion of it with a proper spirit, fully realizing the importance of the issues involved. It is not merely whether Andrew Johnson shall be removed from the office of President of the United States. There are other and greater and deeper questions depending upon it—the question whether the Union sentiment in the ten disorganized States of this country shall be crushed out; whether the rebel power shall be restored in these States, and shall be given the supremacy for all time to come; whether the Government shall be maintained, and whether the fruits which we gathered and earned so richly and so well during four years of bloody war shall be wrested from the hands of the liberty-loving people of this country, or whether they shall be kept and enjoyed. I care little for Andrew Johnson. I have never had a doubt, for a month past, that he would yet be impeached; that the evil which was in the man would come out, would develop itself, and from step to step it has been developing itself, until he caps the climax by these most flagrant and palpable violations, not only of the law, but of the supreme law, the Constitution of the United States."

Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, said: "The mere violation of law does not, I repeat, constitute my arraignment against the acting Pres-

ident of the nation. But the suggestion has been made on this floor that his conduct involves a mere question of the construction of a law. Sir, it is the question of the construction of vital provisions of that which is antecedent to and underlies the law—the Constitution of our country and of its express provisions. Nor, even if the arraignment depended upon the provisions of the Tenure-of-Office Act, would the issue be a mere question of the construction of law. That question was referred to the Senate yesterday, and that body advised the President that they regarded his action as unconstitutional. It was again referred to-day to the courts of the country, and is marked for adjudication for Wednesday next, and the offender, who, I fear, will hereafter be known as the St. Arnaud of our army and country, is under \$5,000 bail to respond to the demands of the law and abide its peaceable determination. And yet, sir, after the action of the Senate and the reference of the question to the judicial tribunals of the country—and let me say, in passing, that I speak not from the report of the honorable gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham), who referred to the fact, but from my own observation—escaping from the magistrate's office, and coming, as I am informed, through the office of the President and his Attorney-General, Adjutant-General Lorenzo Thomas appeared in the War Department at noon to-day, and, in my presence, demanded to exercise the functions of Secretary of War; and when ordered courteously, but positively, to take his place in the office of the Adjutant-General, and attend to his duties, he protested that he was Secretary of War *ad interim*, and was there in obedience to the orders of the President of the United States, and, in his name, demanded possession of the mails of the department, with all its books and papers.

"Sir, this extraordinary procedure on the part of the President is not necessary for the adjudication of a legal question. The question gentlemen attempt to raise can be decided very speedily. These proceedings are necessary only for a usurper whom the people have repulsed and thwarted time and again, but who hopes, by the absolute possession of the War Department, to use the army, and thus overcome the contumacy of the people, and who attempts, on the 22d of February, 1868, to execute by cunning that which he hoped mob violence would execute for him on the 22d of February, 1866.

"It is not well, Mr. Speaker, that the institutions of this broad but infant nation should depend upon the virtue or life of one or two of its citizens. Lincoln was murdered, and other distinguished patriots may be. It is known that men ascend to power over bloody steps, and that they may do it in this country and yet be tolerated. Therefore, the hour has come when Congress owes it not only to itself, but to the safety of the country, to warn Mr. Johnson that he cannot perpetuate his power, and

bring him, as hastily as the forms and spirit of law will permit, to trial and degradation. The army of France obeyed the orders of St. Arnaud as Minister of War, and the army of the United States owe obedience to the orders of the President, issued by the Secretary of War. On the integrity of that officer in this crisis depend the peace and life of the nation!"

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, followed, saying: "Mr. Speaker, disguise it as we may, and call this proceeding by what name we will, it is at last apparent that the leaders of this Congress are prepared to take the fatal plunge into the sea of revolution, and, fearing that the more timid or conservative of the members of the majority may halt before they leap, the leaders are determined to dash them on while they are yet blind with rage, lest the sight of the frightful precipice should make them shudder and retrace their steps. Defeated twice in their impeachment schemes since this session began, once in the House, after all the acts, public and private, of the President had been ferreted out for six months, through perjured spies and informers, and again before the Reconstruction Committee, with all the acts and correspondence between General Grant and the President (*see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS*) before it, the foiled and baffled leaders, desperate and reckless, have now taken advantage of the insane *furore* created by a legitimate effort of the President to test, before the courts of the country, his constitutional and legal right to remove an obnoxious, and, as he asserts, faithless subordinate, who is a spy upon his actions, and an obstacle in the way of the faithful performance of his constitutional obligation to 'see that the laws are faithfully executed'—to remove him from his high position and place there a pliant tool of the dominant faction; and this, too, is to be done with an indecent haste that would be disgraceful to the proceedings in the lowest and most insignificant magistrate's court in the country. The matter was referred to the Reconstruction Committee late yesterday evening. A sub-committee of three, all of whom were known to favor the scheme, were to-day charged by that committee to take proof and prepare the report, carefully excluding therefrom either of the members who were known to oppose it. Sitting after this House met, in violation of the rules of the House, and against the protest of the minority of the committee, the articles of impeachment are now hurried before this body."

Mr. Logan, of Illinois, followed, saying: "Now, Mr. Speaker, let us examine this question for a moment. It seems to me very plain and easy of solution. It is not necessary, in order to decide whether this action of the President of the United States comes within the purview and meaning of this statute, for us to talk about revolutions, or what this man or that man has said or decided. What has been the act of the President is the question? The law is plain. If the President shall appoint,

or shall give a letter of authority, or issue a commission, to any person without the consent of the Senate, he is guilty of—what? The law says of a high misdemeanor. And, under and by virtue of the Constitution, the President can be impeached for—what? For high crimes or misdemeanors. This law declares the issuing a commission to, or giving a letter of authority to, or appointing to or removing from office, any person without the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, shall be a high misdemeanor, which is within the meaning and within the pale of the Constitution of the United States.

“Now, what is the evidence presented to this body by one of its committees? It is of this character: The Secretary of War, Edwin M. Stanton, has been declared by a solemn vote of the Senate to be the Secretary of War, by virtue of—what? By virtue of an appointment to that office; by reason of the fact that Andrew Johnson did not relieve him from office when he had the right to present the name of somebody else—soon after his taking the presidential chair—not the right to turn him out, but the right to nominate some one else to the Senate and ask them to confirm him to that office. That the President failed to do. Then, acting under the provisions of this statute, the President suspended Mr. Stanton as Secretary of War, but the Senate passed upon that act, and decided that the reasons given by the President for suspending Mr. Stanton were not satisfactory; and, accordingly, by virtue of this law, Mr. Stanton was confirmed and reinstated in his position as Secretary of War.

“Now, all this having been done, it cannot certainly be claimed that the President, in his recent course in regard to Mr. Stanton, has acted without any intention of violating the law. Nor can it be claimed that the President is ignorant of the law. The gentleman from Kentucky (Mr. Beck) is too good a lawyer not to be aware of the fact that the law presumes every man to be acquainted with the laws. That may be a violent presumption in the case of Andrew Johnson, yet that is an axiom of the law.

“That being, then, the presumption, that the President knows the law, having been notified by the Senate of its action, and of the consequent operation of the law, then if, in violation of that same law, Andrew Johnson did issue an order removing Secretary Stanton from the War Office, and, in the language of this statute, did ‘issue a letter of authority’ to Lorenzo Thomas to take possession of that office, and act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, I ask the gentleman from Kentucky, or any other lawyer in this House, to tell me, under this statute, what has the President done? Sir, he has violated its provisions, he has committed a high misdemeanor. Look at the evidence and then read the law.”

Mr. Holman, of Indiana, said: “What are the relations of the President of the United

States to the executive powers of the Government, and especially, sir, what are his relations to the members of his Cabinet? The Constitution itself clearly defines these relations and renders him directly responsible for the manner in which the executive power of the Government is exercised. In the language of the Constitution, ‘the executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America.’ ‘Before he enters on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affirmation: I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States;’ and ‘he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed.’ And again, ‘he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint ambassadors and other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for.’ Is it possible, after these eighty years of experience, that any gentleman can believe that the President of the United States can well execute the duties of his high office, and properly, ‘take care that the laws be faithfully executed,’ without any control of the chief agencies—the heads of departments—by which the executive power is to be exercised?

“Can the country justly hold the Chief Executive responsible and yet render him powerless by filling the high offices of his department with persons hostile to the success of his Administration? During these eighty years of our history, through all these Administrations, has it ever been dreamed, sir, that the President of the United States could properly exercise his high functions and successfully administer the Government without a Cabinet in harmony with himself? No matter what party has been in power, Democrat or Federalist, Whig or Republican, and no matter whether the Congress and the Executive were in harmony or not, the common interests of the country have secured to the President a body of friendly counsellors, who as heads of departments have given unity and efficiency to the Administration. The public good demanded it, and hitherto party spirit has never been so intense or vindictive as to seek partisan advantages at the expense of the interests of the country. The framers of the Constitution could not have intended, while imposing such high responsibilities on the President, that the very duties imposed upon him might be defeated by the unfriendly officers executing high official trusts. Mr. Madison, therefore, claimed the power of removal of an executive officer. The appointing power is in the President, with the right of the Senate to reject or confirm, but if the Senate refuses to confirm the nomination the powers of the office have been uniformly performed by some other offi-

cer of the Government. The first section of the Tenure-of-Office Law, which was passed on the 2d day of March, 1867, and manifestly intended to embarrass the administration of Mr. Johnson, is as follows:

SEC. 1. Every person holding any official office to which he has been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and every person who shall hereafter be appointed to such office, and shall become duly qualified to act therein, is and shall be entitled to hold such office until a successor shall have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified, except as herein otherwise provided: *Provided*, That the Secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General, shall hold their offices respectively for and during the term of the President by whom they may have been appointed and for one month thereafter, subject to removal by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

"Edwin M. Stanton was appointed Secretary of War and the appointment confirmed by the Senate during the first term of Mr. Lincoln. He was never reappointed either by Mr. Lincoln or by Mr. Johnson. If the Tenure-of-Office Law had been enforced when Mr. Lincoln's first term expired, it is manifest that the term of Mr. Stanton, as Secretary of War, would have expired one month after Mr. Lincoln's second term commenced, and would have expired one month after Mr. Lincoln ceased to be President.

"This whole question, as I have already remarked, is therefore a question of construction. The proviso of the first section of this Tenure-of-Office Law certainly involves the very point here in dispute; the very question involved in this attempt at impeachment."

Mr. Ingersoll, of Illinois, sent the following telegram to the Clerk to be read:

SPRINGFIELD, ILLINOIS, }
EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, February 22, 1868. }

The usurpations of Andrew Johnson have created a profound sensation in this State. His last act is the act of a traitor. His treason must be checked. The duty of Congress seems plain. The people of Illinois attached to the Union, I firmly believe, demand his impeachment, and will heartily sustain such action by our Congress. The peace of the country is not to be trifled with by this presumptuous demagogue. We know the national Congress will proceed wisely and cautiously, but let it proceed. Millions of loyal hearts are panting to stand by the stars and stripes. Have no fear. All will be well. Liberty and order will again triumph.

R. J. OGLESBY, Governor.

Mr. Washburne, of Illinois, said: "In my judgment the safety of the country, the cause of good government, the preservation of constitutional right and of public liberty depend upon the prompt impeachment of the President of the United States. Let him be impeached for his last great crime that he has committed against the Constitution and laws of his country. Let him be promptly tried, and, if found guilty, let him be removed from the office he has disgraced. His longer retention in office is a perpetual and enduring menace against the peace and happiness and pros-

perity of the nation. His whole official career as President has been marked by a wicked disregard of all the obligations of public duty and by a degree of perfidy and treachery and turpitude unheard of in the history of the rulers of a free people; his personal and official character has made him the opprobrium of both hemispheres, and brought ineffable disgrace on the American name. As mendacious as he is malignant, he has used his high position in attempting to break down and destroy the noblest, the bravest, the best in the land. His administration has been a constant and prolonged warfare against all the material interests of the country; it has prostrated business; it has oppressed labor; it has destroyed values; it has impaired the public credit and sapped the public morals. Surrounded by red-handed rebels, advised and counselled by the worst men that ever crawled, like filthy reptiles, at the footstool of power, the President has used all the vast authority of the Government to prevent a reunion of the States, the restoration of harmony and peace and happiness to the country. He has brought the loyal men in the unreconstructed States to a condition from the contemplation of which all men must recoil with horror. Sustained and supported by the Administration, murder, rapine, incendiarism, robbery, and all the crimes stalk through that whole land with a bloody step; and every day he remains in office adds to the long list of victims of rebel vengeance, cruelty, and hate.

"Under such a President nearly every department of the Government has become demoralized and corrupt to an extent which can find no parallel in the history of any country in any age. The Attorney-General, not satisfied with being the medium through which so many counterfeiters, mail-robbers, and public plunderers have been pardoned and turned loose upon the country, has, with ostentations and boastful audacity, proclaimed in the very presence of the highest judicial tribunal of the land that he will not vindicate the laws of the country passed by a vote of two-thirds of both branches of Congress. Look, sir, at the Navy Department attempting, in the first instance, to impose upon this House fraudulent estimates of nearly twenty-five million dollars in order to render a Republican Congress amenable to the charge of extravagance; look at its imbecile management, its profligacy, its extravagance, its jobberies, and its corruptions and persecutions, under color of law, of some of our bravest and most distinguished naval officers. Look at the administration of the Treasury Department, characterized by the most monstrous and appalling frauds, with countless millions of revenue stolen to go into the pockets of thieves, partisans, and plunderers, or to make up a vast political fund to demoralize and corrupt the people, and to secure the election of a Democratic and semi-rebel President. Look at the Interior Department, with its land

and railroad jobbing, its profligate Indian expenditures, and its fraudulent and corrupt extensions of patents; and the Post-Office Department, arraigned before the House by a committee of the House on charges of corruption; and the State Department, arraigned before the nations of the world for not vindicating the rights of the nation and of the citizens of the nation!

"Confronted as we are this day, Mr. Speaker, by this state of things, so threatening to our national existence and so destructive of all that is held dear by all good citizens, can there be any patriotic man of any political organization who does not call upon Congress to sternly do its whole duty, and purge this capitol of the crimes which defile the nation?"

Mr. Woodward, of Pennsylvania, said: "I take it upon me to deny your right to impeach anybody, and the present Senate's right to try any impeachment. Says the Constitution: 'The House of Representatives shall have the sole power of impeachment,' and the 'House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States.' This House of Representatives is not so composed; but, on the contrary, the Representatives chosen from ten of the 'several States' have been and are excluded from these Halls. I do not say if they were absent voluntarily they could prevent your exercise of the impeaching power; for then they would form, though personally absent, a part of the composition of the House; but, so long as you prevent their entering into its composition, you are not the House of Representatives to whom the Constitution commits the 'sole power of impeachment.' Our functions in this regard have been likened to those of a grand jury which consists of twenty-three men. And suppose, sir, a majority of a grand jury should get possession of the jury-room and bar the door against a minority of their fellows, as well entitled to be there as the majority, would the findings of such a jury be respected? By no court in Christendom. On the contrary, their acts would be set aside, and very likely themselves punished for their contempt of the law.

"Then, as to the Senate, the Constitution says 'the Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments,' and that the 'Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State.' The ten excluded States are entitled to twenty Senators upon that floor, and, until they are admitted and incorporated into the body, I deny that it is the Senate to whom the Constitution commits the power to try impeachments. What criminal was ever before arraigned before a court from which twenty of his legal triers had been excluded? Yet you propose to arraign the man who represents in his person thirty-five millions of freemen before just such a dismembered bench. You have no right to do it. Your might makes it not right. A giant's strength is good, but it is tyrannous to use it as a giant.

"The flippant reply to this grave suggestion is that we pass laws, and therefore we are a House and Senate to impeach. But the answer is, your legislative powers have not been questioned, your impeaching powers are. I am not bound to take even a valid objection to the jurisdiction of a court which sits to adjudicate my civil rights, nor is my objection to its jurisdiction to try me for crimes and misdemeanors impaired by my failure to make timely objection in behalf of my civil rights. The question of jurisdiction is raised now, and now is the time to decide it. It was never raised as to our legislative powers, and the time has gone by for that. But this is the very time to raise it as to our criminal jurisdiction. It could not be decided before it was raised, and hence I conclude all the legislation we have done does not constitute us the court to originate and try impeachments which the Constitution contemplates."

Mr. Judd, of Illinois, presented the following telegram, which was read by the Clerk:

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, *February 24, 1863.*

The Republican press and party of the city of Chicago unanimously demand the impeachment of Andrew Johnson. A mass meeting is called for tomorrow evening, to give expression to this feeling.

L. B. OTIS, Chairman Preliminary Meeting.

HENRY M. SMITH, Secretary.

Mr. Eldridge, of Wisconsin, said: "Who believes that this is the movement of the lovers of the Constitution, and the laws made in pursuance thereof, for their defence and protection? Who believes that it is for the purpose of keeping the President in his legitimate executive sphere?"

"If any one doubts upon this point, let me ask him why it is that Mr. Stanton, who pronounces this Tenure-of-Office Bill unconstitutional, is so anxious to hold on to this office? Why is it, when distinguished Senators declared that no gentleman, no man of honor, could hold on to a Cabinet office after an intimation from the President that he was not wanted, that his resignation was desired? Why is it, when the personal and official relations of the Secretary and the President are admittedly such that they can have no intercourse or communication with each other? Is it, I repeat, to strengthen and aid the Executive in the legitimate and proper exercise of the executive power?"

"It is admitted upon all hands that the party for impeachment desire to keep Mr. Stanton there to oppose and circumvent the President. He is kept there in the interest of the legislative and not the executive power. He is kept in the interest of Congress and not the President. He is expected to execute the will of Congress, to do its bidding, to strengthen its power, to oppose and not to aid the President.

"Now, I put it to the gentlemen upon the other side of this House, if they expect or believe that it is possible for this Government of several and coequal departments to exist

while not only warring with each other, but while the one has not only a spy, a common informer, in the confidential counsels of the other, but a known and determined enemy, holding his position against his own pronounced convictions of constitutional right and duty?"

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "Mr. Speaker, I agree with those gentlemen who have gone before me, that this is a grave subject and should be gravely treated. It is important to the high official who is the subject of these charges, and it is important to a nation of forty million people, now free, and rapidly increasing to hundreds of millions. The official character of the Chief Executive of this great nation being thus involved, the charge, if falsely made, is a cruel wrong; if, on the other hand, the usurpations and misdemeanors charged against him are true, he is guilty of as atrocious attempts to usurp the liberty and destroy the happiness of this nation as were ever perpetrated by the most detestable tyrant who ever oppressed his fellow-men. Let us, therefore, discuss these questions in no partisan spirit, but with legal accuracy and impartial justice. The people desire no victim, and they will endure no usurper.

"The charges, so far as I shall discuss them, are few and distinct. Andrew Johnson is charged with attempting to usurp the powers of other branches of the Government; with attempting to obstruct and resist the execution of the law; with misprision of bribery; and with the open violation of laws which declare his acts misdemeanors and subject him to fine and imprisonment; and with removing from office the Secretary of War during the session of the Senate without the advice or consent of the Senate; and with violating the sixth section of the act entitled 'An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices.' There are other offences charged in the papers referred to the committee, which I may consider more by themselves.

"In order to sustain impeachment under our Constitution I do not hold that it is necessary to prove a crime as an indictable offence, or any act *malum in se*. I agree with the distinguished gentleman from Pennsylvania, on the other side of the House, who holds this to be a purely political proceeding. It is intended as a remedy for malfeasance in office, and to prevent the continuance thereof. Beyond that, it is not intended as a personal punishment for past offences or for future example.

"What, then, are the official misdemeanors of Andrew Johnson disclosed by the evidence? On the 2d day of March, 1867, Congress passed an act entitled 'An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices.' Among other provisions it enacted that no officer who had been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate should be removed from office without the consent of the Senate, and that, if during vacation a suspension should be made

for cause, such cause should be reported to the Senate within twenty days after their next meeting. If the Senate should deem the reason of the suspension sufficient, then the officer should be removed and another appointed in his stead; but if the Senate should refuse to concur with the President, and declare the reasons insufficient, then the officer suspended should forthwith resume the functions of his office and the powers of the person performing its duties should cease. It is especially provided that the Secretary of War shall hold his office during the term of the President by whom he may have been appointed, and for one month thereafter, unless removed by and with the consent of the Senate as aforesaid. On the 12th day of August, 1867, during the recess of the Senate, the President removed the Secretary of War, whose term of office had not expired, requiring him to surrender the office with the public property, and appointed General U. S. Grant Secretary of War *ad interim*.

"When Andrew Johnson assumed the office of President, he took the oath to obey the Constitution of the United States and to take care that the laws be faithfully executed. This was a solemn and enduring obligation, nor can he plead exemption from it on account of his condition at the time it was administered to him. An attempt to obstruct the execution of the law, not a mere omission amounting to negligence which would have been a misdemeanor, but a daring and bold conspiracy was attempted by him to induce the General of the Army to aid him in defeating the operation of this law; and, when he had suspended the Secretary of War, he appointed General Grant Secretary *ad interim*, with the avowed purpose of preventing the operation of that law, if the Senate should decide in favor of the Secretary; and he says that the General did enter into such conspiracy to aid him in obstructing the return of the rejected Secretary, notwithstanding the Senate might decide in his favor. This is denied by the General, and a question of veracity, rather angrily discussed, has arisen between them. Those gentlemen seem to consider that that question is one of importance to the public. In this they are mistaken. Which is the man of truth, and which the man of falsehood, is of no more public importance than if it arose between two obscure individuals. If Andrew Johnson tells the truth, then he is guilty of a high official misdemeanor, for he avows his effort to prevent the execution of the law. If the General commanding tells the truth, then the President is guilty of a high misdemeanor, for he declares the same thing of the President, denying only his own complicity. No argument can make this point plainer than the statement of the culprit. If he and the General told the truth, then he committed wilful perjury by refusing to take care that the laws should be duly executed.

"To show the *animus* and guilty knowledge with which this law was violated, we have only

to turn to the proceedings of the Senate notifying him of his illegal and void conduct, and then to consider that he has since persevered in attempting to enforce it. Indeed, to show his utter disregard of the laws of his country, we have only to turn to his last annual message, in which he proclaims to the public that the laws of Congress are unconstitutional and not binding on the people. Who, after that, can say that such a man is fit to occupy the executive chair, whose duty it is to inculcate obedience to those very laws, and see that they are faithfully obeyed? Then the great beauty of this remedial and preventive process is clearly demonstrated. He is dull and blind who cannot see its necessity, and the beneficial purposes of the trial by impeachment.

"Now, in defiance of this law, Andrew Johnson, on the 21st day of February, 1868, issued his commission or letter of authority to one Lorenzo Thomas, appointing him Secretary of War *ad interim*, and commanded him to take possession of the Department of War, and to eject the incumbent, E. M. Stanton, then in lawful possession of said office. Here, if this act stood alone, would be an undeniable official misdemeanor—not only a misdemeanor *per se*, but declared to be so by the act itself, and the party made indictable and punishable in a criminal proceeding. If Andrew Johnson escapes with bare removal from office, if he be not fined and incarcerated in the penitentiary afterward under criminal proceedings, he may thank the weakness or the clemency of Congress, and not his own innocence.

"We shall propose to prove on the trial that Andrew Johnson was guilty of misprision of bribery by offering to General Grant, if he would unite with him in his lawless violence, to assume in his stead the penalties and to endure the imprisonment denounced by the law. Bribery is one of the offences specifically enumerated for which the President may be impeached and removed from office. By the Constitution, article two, section two, the President has power to nominate and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to appoint all officers of the United States whose appointments are not therein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law, and to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session. Nowhere, either in the Constitution or by statute, has the President power to create a vacancy during the session of the Senate, and fill it without the advice and consent of the Senate; and yet, on the 21st day of February, 1868, while the Senate was in session, he notified the head of the War Department that he was removed from office, and his successor *ad interim* appointed. Here is a plain recorded violation of the Constitution and laws, which, if it stood alone, would make every honest and intelligent man give his vote for impeachment. The President had perse-

vered in his lawless course through a long series of unjustifiable acts. When the so-called Confederate States of America were conquered, and had laid down their arms and surrendered their territory to the victorious Union, the government and final disposition of the conquered country belonged to Congress alone, according to every principle of the law of nations.

"Neither the Executive nor the judiciary had any right to interfere with it except so far as was necessary to control it by military rule until the sovereign power of the nation had provided for its civil administration. No power but Congress had any right to say whether ever or when they should be admitted to the Union as States, and entitled to the privileges of the Constitution of the United States. And yet Andrew Johnson, with unblushing hardihood, undertook to rule them by his own power alone; to lead them into full communion with the Union; direct them what governments to erect and what constitutions to adopt, and to send Representatives and Senators to Congress according to his instructions. When admonished by express act of Congress, more than once repeated, he disregarded the warning and continued his lawless usurpation. He is since known to have obstructed the reestablishment of those governments by the authority of Congress, and has advised the inhabitants to resist the legislation of Congress. In my judgment his conduct with regard to that transaction was a high-handed usurpation of power, which ought long ago to have brought him to impeachment and trial, and to have removed him from his position of great mischief. He has been lucky in thus far escaping through false logic and false law. But his then acts, which will on the trial be shown to be atrocious, are open evidence of his wicked determination to subvert the laws of his country.

"I trust that, when we come to vote upon this question, we shall remember that, although it is the duty of the President to see that the laws be executed, the sovereign power of the nation rests in Congress, who have been placed around the Executive as muniments to defend his rights, and as watchmen to enforce his obedience to the law and the Constitution. His oath to obey the Constitution and our duty to compel him to do it are a tremendous obligation, heavier than was ever assumed by mortal rulers. We are to protect or to destroy the liberty and happiness of a mighty people, and to take care that they progress in civilization, and defend themselves against every kind of tyranny. As we deal with the first great political malefactor, so will be the result of our efforts to perpetuate the happiness and good government of the human race. The God of our fathers, who inspired them with the thought of universal freedom, will hold us responsible for the noble institutions which they projected and expected us to carry out. This is not to be the temporary triumph of a political party,

but is to endure in its consequences until this whole continent shall be filled with a free and untrammelled people, or shall be a nest*of shrinking, cowardly slaves."

The Speaker: "If there be no objection, the Clerk will read the resolution upon which the House is about to vote."

There being no objection, the Clerk read, as follows:

Resolution providing for the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States.

Resolved, That Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors in office.

The question was taken; and it was decided, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cornell, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dodge, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Gravelly, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Lafin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Price, Raum, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Selye, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stokes, Taffe, Taylor, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and the Speaker—126.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, McCormick, McCullough, Morgan, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stewart, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wood, and Woodward—47.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Benjamin, Dixon, Donnelly, Ela, Finney, Garfield, Hawkins, Koontz, Maynard, Pomeroy, Robinson, Shellabarger, Thomas, John Trimble, Robert T. Van Horn, Henry D. Washburn, and William Williams—17.

The Speaker said: "The occupant of the Chair cannot consent that his constituents should be silent on so grave a question, and therefore, as a member of this House, he votes 'ay.' On agreeing to the resolution, there are—yeas 126, nays 47. So the resolution is adopted."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania: "Mr. Speaker, I submit the following resolutions, on which I demand the previous question:"

Resolved, That a committee of two be appointed to go to the Senate, and, at the bar thereof, in the name of the House of Representatives and of all the people of the United States, to impeach Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, of high crimes and

misdemeanors in office, and acquaint the Senate that the House of Representatives will, in due time, exhibit particular articles of impeachment against him and make good the same; and that the committee do demand that the Senate take order for the appearance of said Andrew Johnson to answer to said impeachment.

2. *Resolved*, That a committee of seven be appointed to prepare and report articles of impeachment against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, with power to send for persons, papers, and records, and to take testimony under oath.

The resolutions were adopted, yeas 124, nays 42, not voting 23.

The Speaker announced the following committees under the resolutions just adopted:

Committee to communicate to the Senate the action of the House ordering an impeachment of the President of the United States: Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, and John A. Bingham, of Ohio.

Committee to declare Articles of Impeachment against the President of the United States: George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania; John A. Bingham, of Ohio; James F. Wilson, of Iowa; John A. Logan, of Illinois; George W. Julian, of Indiana; and Hamilton Ward, of New York.

In the Senate, on February 25th, Mr. Representative Stevens and Mr. Representative Bingham appeared below the bar, and were announced as the committee from the House of Representatives.

Mr. Stevens said: "Mr. President—"

The President *pro tempore*: "The committee from the House of Representatives."

Mr. Stevens: "Mr. President, in obedience to the order of the House of Representatives, we appear before you, and in the name of the House of Representatives and of all the people of the United States we do impeach Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, of high crimes and misdemeanors in office; and we further inform the Senate that the House of Representatives will in due time exhibit particular articles of impeachment against him and make good the same; and in their name we demand that the Senate take order for the appearance of the said Andrew Johnson to answer said impeachment."

The President *pro tempore*: "The Senate will take order in the premises."

The committee of the House thereupon withdrew.

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "I move the adoption of the following resolution—"

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "I believe I have the floor."

The President *pro tempore*: "The Senator from Kentucky has the floor."

Mr. Davis: "I simply yielded the floor to allow a message to be received from the House of Representatives."

Mr. Howard: "I ask the Chair whether this be not a question of privilege, to which all other proceedings must give way?"

The President *pro tempore*: "There is a question of order raised which the Chair will

submit to the Senate for decision. The question is, has the Senator from Kentucky the right to the floor? The Chair will put the question to the Senate in that form, and as many as agree that he has the right will say ay, and those opposed will say no."

The question being put, it was determined in the affirmative.

The President *pro tempore*: "The Senator from Kentucky is entitled to the floor, and will proceed."

Mr. Davis: "Mr. President, now, with much cheerfulness, I yield the floor for the purpose indicated by the Senator from Michigan."

Mr. Howard: "Then, Mr. President, with the leave of the Senate, I beg to present the following resolution:"

Resolved, That the message of the House of Representatives relating to the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be referred to a select committee of seven, to consider and report thereon.

Mr. Conkling, of New York, said: "Having before me the proceedings of the Senate in 1862 on the impeachment of Judge Humphreys, of Tennessee, I suggest to the Senator who offers this resolution, for convenience' sake, that he include the words 'to be appointed by the Chair,' so that the resolution will read 'a select committee of seven, to be appointed by the Chair,' etc. It will save time to insert these words, and be within the precedents."

Mr. Howard: "I accept the suggestion."

The President *pro tempore*: "The resolution is so modified."

The resolution was agreed to; and the President *pro tempore* subsequently announced the committee to consist of the following Senators: Mr. Howard, Mr. Trumbull, Mr. Conkling, Mr. Edmunds, Mr. Morton, Mr. Pomeroy, and Mr. Johnson.

In the Senate, on February 29th, Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, offered the following as instructions to the committee on impeachment rules:

That the committee report, as a substitute for the rules just read, the following:

That the Constitution of the United States having appointed the Senate to be the court to try all impeachments; and having provided that the Senate shall be composed of two Senators from each State; and the States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, and Florida having each chosen two Senators; and those Senators not having been admitted to their seats in the Senate, while they continue to be excluded the Senate cannot be formed into a constitutional and valid court of impeachment for the trial of articles of impeachment preferred against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States.

The motion to recommit with instructions, after some debate, was lost by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Davis and McCreery—2.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Dixon, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Hendricks, Howard, Howe, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Norton, Nye,

Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, and Yates—39.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Cragin, Doolittle, Grimes, Harlan, Henderson, Patterson of New Hampshire, Saulsbury, Sprague, Stewart, and Wilson—12.—(See IMPEACHMENT.)

In the Senate, on June 23d, Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, offered the following resolutions, which were read and ordered to be printed:

Resolutions declaring the constitutional responsibility of Senators for their votes on impeachment.

Whereas, a pretension has been put forth to the effect that the vote of a Senator on an impeachment is so far different in character from his vote on any other question that the people have no right to criticize or consider it; and whereas such pretension, if not discountenanced, is calculated to impair that freedom of judgment which belongs to the people on all that is done by their Representatives: Therefore, in order to remove all doubts on this question, and to declare the constitutional right of the people in cases of impeachment—

1. *Resolved*, That, even assuming that the Senate is a court in the exercise of judicial power, Senators cannot claim that their votes are exempt from the judgment of the people; that the Supreme Court, when it has undertaken to act on questions essentially political in character, has not escaped this judgment; that the decisions of this high tribunal in support of slavery have been openly condemned; that the memorable utterance known as the Dred Scott decision was indignantly denounced and repudiated, while the Chief Justice who pronounced it became a mark for censure and rebuke; and that plainly the votes of Senators on an impeachment cannot enjoy an immunity from popular judgment which has been denied to the Supreme Court, with Taney as Chief Justice.

2. *Resolved*, That the Senate is not at any time a court invested with judicial power, but that it is always a Senate with specific functions, declared by the Constitution; that, according to express words, "the judicial power of the United States is vested in one Supreme Court, and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish," while it is further provided that "the Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments," thus positively making a distinction between the judicial power and the power to try impeachments; that the Senate, on an impeachment, does not exercise any portion of the judicial power, but another and different power, exclusively delegated to the Senate, having for its sole object removal from office and disqualification therefor; that, by the terms of the Constitution, there may be, after conviction on impeachment, a further trial and punishment, "according to law," thus making a discrimination between a proceeding by impeachment and a proceeding "according to law;" that the proceeding by impeachment is not "according to law," and is not attended by legal punishment, but is of an opposite character, and from beginning to end political, being instituted by a political body on account of political offences, being conducted before another political body having political power only, and ending in a judgment which is political only; and therefore the vote of a Senator on impeachment, though different in form, is not different in responsibility from his vote on any other political question; nor can any Senator on such an occasion claim immunity from that just accountability which the representative at all times owes to his constituents.

3. *Resolved*, That Senators, in all that they do, are under the constant obligation of an oath, binding them to the strictest rectitude; that on an impeachment they take a further oath, according to the requirement of the Constitution, which says, "Senators, when sitting to try impeachment, shall be on

oath or affirmation;" that this simple requirement was never intended to change the character of the Senate as a political body, and cannot have any such operation; and therefore, Senators, whether before or after the supplementary oath, are equally responsible to the people for their votes, it being the constitutional right of the people at all times to sit in judgment on their representatives.

In the Senate, on December 4th, Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, asked, and by unanimous consent obtained, leave to introduce a bill to amend an act entitled "An act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the several acts amendatory thereto; which was read twice by its title.

He said: "I will simply say that this bill is to change that provision of the law which requires that a majority of all the registered voters should vote at an election in order to effect a result, and to provide that a majority of all the votes actually cast shall determine the result. The effect of the present provision has been precisely what I supposed it would be when we passed the original act, and what I and others then predicted. I propose to change the law so that a majority of the votes cast shall determine the result in adopting the constitutions that have been formed. I move that the bill be printed and referred to the Committee on the Judiciary."

The motion was agreed to.

On December 10th, Mr. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, offered an amendment to the bill. He said: "The bill to which the amendment which I now present is proposed was introduced by the honorable Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Wilson). I wish to have this amendment referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, and printed. It is very short, but it contains a very important proposition."

"In making this motion to refer, I desire simply to state that the bill introduced by the Senator from Massachusetts is probably one of the most important bills which has been presented at the present session, and it is perhaps the most important bill that will come before Congress for consideration at the present session: a bill to amend the acts of reconstruction as they are applicable to the States of the South. The proposition offered by the Senator from Massachusetts is a very important one, providing that the constitutions to be adopted in those States shall be adopted, not by a majority of the registered voters, but by a majority of the actual voters. To that bill I propose an amendment in the shape of a proviso, providing that the persons who do not possess the qualifications required by the laws and constitutions of the several States previous to the rebellion, in order to be permitted to vote at any election for the ratification of a constitution or of officers under it, shall be possessed of one of the following qualifications: first, shall have served in the Army of the United States for the period of one

year or more; or second, shall be possessed of sufficient education to enable him to read the Constitution of the United States, and to subscribe his name to an oath to support the same; or third, shall be possessed of a freehold estate, in his own right or the right of his wife, of the value of \$250.

"Mr. President, if the measure of the Senator from Massachusetts is to be pressed upon the consideration of Congress, as I have no doubt it is, this proviso is a very important one to be adopted, which possibly might bring peace to that distracted country if Congress should be disposed to adopt it. I shall not now go into the consideration of the question, but I simply state that I believe the bill offered by him is very important. It anticipates a fact which is undoubtedly likely to occur, that the constitutions being formed are not to be adopted by a majority of the registered voters. It is opening the question anew, and as a matter of course when that question is reopened it is all-important that Congress should take a position which the people of the country will be able to sustain. I move that my proposed amendment be printed."

The President *pro tempore*: "That order will be made, if there be no objection."

Mr. Wilson: "Before the matter passes from the Senate I wish simply to say that the amendment I moved to the law, by the bill referred to by the Senator from Wisconsin, was merely to strike out that very strange provision we put into the law requiring a majority of all the voters registered to vote at the elections. I thought then it was a provision which must operate against the friends of reconstruction, and it looked at one time as though it would be fatal to immediate reconstruction in some of the States. There are, however, nine States that have voted for conventions and have elected their delegates.

"I am satisfied that every thing pertaining to reconstruction has gone on exceedingly well, far better than any member of either House had a right to expect; that the elections have been fair and orderly, as much so as in the other States; that as a general rule the conventions are conducting themselves quite as well as other conventions do, and I have undoubting faith that they will make good constitutions, and that those constitutions will be adopted, whether we pass the amendatory bill introduced by me or not. It is possible that in one or two of the States the friends of reconstruction may fail, but I doubt whether they will fail in any."

Mr. Davis: "If it was my theory of morals that evil should be done that good might come of it, I would want the bill to which the Senators have referred to pass. The great issue, and the greatest issue that has ever been before the people of the United States, is now looming up in all of its grand proportions, and that is, whether the Government of the United

States shall be a white man's Government or a negro Government, and the thunders of the vast majority of the American people pronounced in the recent elections have already decided that question. Sir, the Government of this country was made by white men, it has always continued to be a white man's Government from the beginning, and will be to the end; and those who seek to establish a contrary power of government in this country will find themselves crushed into dust. If the honorable Senator from Massachusetts and the advocates of negro government want that question to be decided by the people unmistakably let them bring out their Fred. Douglass as their next candidate for the presidency; and where would he and his followers, negroes or whites, be? Driven like chaff before the whirlwind of American indignation.

"Sir, the people of America have already decided that a miserable white minority of less than one-fifth of the people of the United States, with all their negroes in it, shall never appoint a President for the white men of the United States. The white men of the United States will rally in the proportion of three-fourths or four-fifths of the white people of America to decide this important point: that a negro electoral vote, appointed by negro governments, forced by usurped power upon the people of the Southern States, shall never appoint for them a President of the United States. When the time comes and that grand issue is to be met from North to South, from East to West, in every part of the United States will gather the white people, the hosts of the Caucasian race, and they will put this mushroom negro power, that has loomed up in such large and monstrous proportions in the last year or two, under their feet, and its allies will be driven into political and social nonentity. Sir, if my desire for the overthrow of the Republican-Radical party, which is the strongest desire that ever nestled in my bosom, was now to guide my decisions, I would wish that this bill and every other atrocity to foist the negroes into the mastery of our country and of our Government should be brought up and passed by the forms of law through Congress."

Mr. Stewart: "Mr. President, from the remarks that have just fallen from the Senator from Kentucky, one would suppose he did not know any thing about the fact that the Union party had undertaken to govern this country by the negro vote. I have heard this before. I have heard it from the stump. I have heard this effort for the last year to frighten the American people and to make them believe that they would be governed by the negroes; that if the negroes voted at all they would govern this entire country. I suppose that in the United States there is one person in ten that is of African descent, rather a small minority to control this great Government! I do not suppose that anybody in his senses has really any sincere alarm about negro government. I

think stating the issue in that form manifests a very strong desire to avoid the real issue. The real issue before the country, the real issue that will be before the country next fall, is whether this country shall be governed by loyal men, by its friends, by those who stood by it in the hour of its peril, or whether it shall be turned over to traitors and its enemies, that they may go on with the work of destruction; that they may visit punishment upon the friends of the Government. That is the real issue, and yet we hear from every source that the issue is to be whether one-tenth of the American people, being colored, shall tyrannize over nine-tenths!

"It is said that a great sin has been committed by the Union party in conferring the franchise upon the negro. I have nothing to say of the justice or humanity of the law; but how was it brought about? Who brought it about? Who forced the necessity upon Congress and upon the Union party? I believe that every Union man had settled this proposition in his mind, and I believe that every man who loves his country still adheres to the proposition that it is unsafe to place the power of this Government in rebel hands while they are still unrepentant.

"I repudiate altogether the charge that Congress has attempted to set up negro governments. I affirm that they, as they were in duty bound to do, have undertaken to inaugurate loyal governments, governments that will be friendly to our institutions. They have undertaken to preserve our institutions in the hands of their friends. That is all. Who is to be alarmed by the cry that one negro in ten of our population is to govern this country? That is a pretty watchword with which to go before the people. It only needs to be stated to show how absurd it is. It is an appeal to a low prejudice for the purpose of placing the Government in the hands of rebels. And what purpose have they in view? Have we ever thought of that? Is it certain that they will not avenge their supposed wrongs on your loyal soldiers? Is it certain that they will not refuse to pay the pensions due to your widows and orphans? Is it certain that they will not repudiate your national debt? Is it certain that they will not claim pay for the slaves we have emancipated? I have heard the Democratic theory stated by a good many Democrats, many of whom in private conversation say that the mission of the Democratic party is to place every thing back where it was before the war, wipe out the debt, reenslave the negroes, and pay for what damages have occurred. Until they get some of these theories out of their heads, it seems to me it is but right and proper that we should enfranchise the men who are friendly to the Government, who will sustain our institutions, who have been tried and true. I wish it distinctly understood that I have no fear of the American people being frightened out of their wits on

account of a few colored people being allowed to vote. I do not think the people of the South will be much frightened about it."

No further action was taken on the subject of reconstruction by the Senate until January 22d. Meantime the House considered and passed a bill relative thereto.

In the House, on December 9th, Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, moved the following resolution:

Resolved, That so much of the President's message and accompanying documents as relates to the subject of reconstruction be referred to a select committee of nine on reconstruction.

It was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Donnelly, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Finney, Garfield, Gravelly, Halsey, Hamilton, Harding, Hawkins, Hill, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburt, Hunter, Ingersoll, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Koontz, Lafin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercur, Moorhead, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Polsley, Price, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Thaddeus Stevens, Stokes, Thomas, Trimble, Trowbridge, Upson, Van Aernam, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Wyck, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, and Stephen F. Wilson—112.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Bailey, Barnes, Barnum, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Eldridge, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Taber, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wood, and Woodward—43.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Blaine, Blair, Cornell, Covode, Driggs, Fox, Griswold, Asahel W. Hubbard, Jenckes, Kitchen, McCullough, Miller, Moore, Morrell, Morrissey, Poland, Pomeroy, Raum, Scofield, Selye, Shellabarger, Aaron F. Stevens, Stewart, Stone, Taffe, Taylor, Twichell, Burt Van Horn, Ward, Windom, and Woodbridge—32.

The Speaker subsequently announced the following persons as members of the committee: Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania; George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; John A. Bingham, of Ohio; John F. Farnsworth, of Illinois; Calvin T. Hulburt, of New York; Fernando C. Beaman, of Michigan; Halbert E. Paine, of Wisconsin; James Brooks, of New York; and James B. Beck, of Kentucky.

In the House, on December 16th, Mr. Benjamin, of Missouri, submitted the following preamble and resolutions:

Whereas, the President of the United States in his annual message has seen fit, in utter disregard of the popular will, as expressed in the election of members of the Fortieth Congress, to recommend the repeal of the laws heretofore passed for the purpose of facili-

tating reconstruction in the rebellious States, the effect of which would be to remit the governments of said States to rebel hands, and abandon the entire loyal element therein to the will of traitors; and whereas it is eminently proper that this House should respond in emphatic terms to so extraordinary a proposition: Therefore,

Be it resolved, That the House of Representatives will never consent to take one retrograde step from its advanced position in promoting the cause of equal rights, nor deviate from its fixed purpose of protecting all men as equals before the law.

Resolved, That, from the success that has hitherto attended the administration of the reconstruction acts, there is no reason to doubt that under their provisions the restoration of the rebellious States is being successfully accomplished on a firm and enduring basis, and in a manner that will fully meet the expectations of the loyal men of the country, and therefore, in the judgment of this House, no good reason exists why said acts should be repealed.

They were adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Blaine, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Cary, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Fields, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburt, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Ketcham, Koontz, Lafin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercur, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Perham, Peters, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Price, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stokes, Taylor, Thomas, Trimble, Trowbridge, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, and Stephen F. Wilson—112.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Eldridge, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wood, and Woodward—32.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Banks, Bingham, Blair, Boutwell, Cake, Chanler, Cook, Cornell, Eckley, Ferry, Finney, Fox, Garfield, Gravelly, Haight, Hamilton, Hill, Holman, Humphrey, Kelsey, Kitchen, Lincoln, Marshall, McCullough, Miller, Morgan, Morrissey, Paine, Pike, Pomeroy, Randall, Raum, Selye, Shellabarger, Stewart, Stone, Taber, Taffe, Twichell, Upson, Van Wyck, Windom, and Woodbridge—43.

In the House, on December 18th, on motion of Mr. Ashley, of Ohio, the House reconsidered the vote referring the bill to facilitate reconstruction to the Judiciary Committee.

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, then moved to strike out all after the enacting clause, and in lieu thereof to insert the following:

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted*, That so much of the fifth section of an act passed March 23, 1867, entitled "An act supplementary to an act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States, passed March 2, 1867, and to facilitate their restoration," as requires that a majority of all the registered votes of the district shall be cast in favor of the ratification of

the constitution before it becomes valid, be, and the same is hereby, so far modified that a majority of the votes cast at the election for the ratification or rejection of the constitution shall be considered as valid, and as affirming or rejecting the constitution.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the several States which may be reconstructed under the act of March 2, 1867, and its supplements, may, at the time of voting upon the ratification of the constitution, vote also for members of Congress, who shall be entitled to take their seats in the next session of Congress after their several States shall have been admitted into the Union; and, until a new apportionment, the election for said members shall be according to the districts as they existed in 1853 and 1859, except when otherwise provided for; and the same elective officers who make the return of the votes cast on the ratification or rejection of the constitution shall enumerate and certify the votes cast for the members of Congress, and give certificates of election to those having the largest number of votes and whom they may deem entitled thereto.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That, until a new apportionment shall be made of Representatives, South Carolina shall be entitled to six Representatives, two of whom shall be elected by general ticket; North Carolina, eight Representatives, one of whom shall be elected by general ticket; Georgia, eight Representatives, one of whom shall be elected by general ticket; Florida shall have one Representative; Alabama eight, two of whom shall be elected by general ticket; Mississippi six, one of whom shall be elected by general ticket; Louisiana six, one of whom shall be elected by general ticket; Texas five, one of whom shall be elected by general ticket; Arkansas three; and Virginia —.

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "Sir, here is a bill which we have been petitioned to pass before the vacation, and it is the simplest thing in the world. The bill has been printed and is on our files, and every gentleman has had a fair opportunity of reading it and understanding it. It is simple enough, and I can explain it in five minutes so that no man can misunderstand it.

"In the first place, it restores the majority principle in voting on the constitution of the reconstructed States. In the second place, it provides for the election of Representatives in Congress by those States at the same time the constitutions are voted on, and provides further that when the constitutions are ratified and declared valid, and these States are declared entitled to representation, those Representatives so elected shall be admitted into this House upon taking the legal oath, and not before.

"Well, now, sir, that is the whole of my bill, except that which my friend from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) proposes to strike out. And here, by-the-by, let me modify my substitute by putting the number of Representatives from Virginia at eight. The third section leaves the apportionment as it was in 1860, only adding the additional number to which the States are entitled in consequence of the liberation of the negroes and the consequent change in the basis of representation. If any gentleman objects to that, he can vote to strike out that section. For my own part, I think the States are entitled to the proposed representation here.

"Now, sir, that is the whole bill. I do not know if there is any thing in it to which any gentleman can object; I cannot perceive it myself."

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, said: "Mr. Speaker, I find no objection to the first and second sections of the bill reported by the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Stevens), from the Committee on Reconstruction. The first section, as the gentleman has very well said, simply restores the majority principle to the States lately in insurrection. The House will remember that I made an endeavor, when the Reconstruction Bill was being pressed upon this House, to exclude from it the terms which now embarrass the people in their action. This first section, therefore, is to put into the law that which I sought to have placed in it in the first place—the right of the majority voting to determine the result. That I believe to be the general if not the universal rule in the several States of the Union.

"The second section may be deemed by many gentlemen to be altogether unnecessary, for it may be held that the people of the late insurrectionary States, in the event of their ratifying forms of constitutional government, have the right, under the Constitution and existing laws, to proceed to the election of Representatives in Congress in accordance with the provisions of the existing law apportioning Representatives among the several States of the Union. The second section, therefore, is only in aid of the law, and those who desire to see those States speedily represented in Congress cannot well object to it.

"The third section which the gentleman reports is that which I desire to have stricken from this bill, as violative alike of the spirit of the Constitution and of the existing legislation of Congress. The Congress of the United States, in the apportionment of Representatives among the several States of this Union, is limited, in my judgment, to each decennial period after the first census taken under the Constitution. That is my first objection to the third section of this bill. I do not recognize the power implied by the proposed legislation in this third section, in every succeeding Congress, after the apportionment of representation in the mode prescribed by the Constitution of the United States, to change the basis of that apportionment. With me that objection would be all-sufficient to control the vote which I shall give on the pending motion to strike the third section from this bill; and, if that motion fails, to control as well the vote which I shall give against the bill with that section in it. Under no conceivable circumstances will I consent to record my vote in favor of this bill with that section retained, either in the interest of the insurrectionary States or of the States not in insurrection."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania: "If the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) will allow me one moment, I would like to say that I do not

want to insist on any thing which may interfere with the passage of the bill. I withdraw the third section."

Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, said: "The object of this bill is to facilitate reconstruction and restoration. The first section, as the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Stevens) has already told the House, restores the principle of majorities in elections, which should never have been departed from in the original legislation of Congress upon this subject.

"Now, I will say this much to the House, that in all probability, unless the first section of this bill is enacted into law, the constitutions adopted by the several States in the South will not be ratified by the people, if there is required to vote for their ratification a majority of all the voters registered. It is undoubtedly known to the members of this House that a great many of the voters in these unreconstructed States have changed their residences since they were registered. Poor men are constantly being hired to go here or there to work upon plantations or in other places, thus losing their residences.

"Then, too, as will be readily seen, every vote that is not polled upon the ratification of the constitution counts against it. It therefore seems to me to be not at all likely that a majority of all the voters registered will be polled in favor of these constitutions.

"The second section provides that, at the same time the people in the States lately in insurrection vote upon the question of the ratification or rejection of their constitutions, they shall also vote for Representatives in Congress. The object of that section is to facilitate the representation of those States in Congress, so that they may not be kept out after these States shall have been reconstructed, and their constitutions duly ratified and adopted, until another election is held for members of Congress, but that, as soon as any one of these States shall have been declared by Congress to be entitled to representation, their members, who may be standing at the doors of the House of Representatives, may take their seats as such Representatives."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, demanded the previous question, which was seconded, and the substitute agreed to. He then demanded the previous question on the passage of the bill, and it was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Bingham, Broomall, Buckland, Cary, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Fields, Garfield, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Ketcham, Kootz, Laffin, William Lawrence, Loan, Logan, Loughbridge, Lynch, Mallory, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercur, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Poland, Price, Robertson, Saw-

yer, Schenck, Seofield, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Taylor, Thomas, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Welker, William Williams, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, and Windom—104.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Beek, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Eldridge, Fox, Getts, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, McCormick, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Ross, Taber, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wood, and Woodward—37.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Benton, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Butler, Cake, Chanler, Cornell, Dodge, Eggleston, Ela, Ferry, Finney, Gravely, Haight, Hamilton, Hill, Asahel W. Hubbard, Humphrey, Kelsey, Kitchen, George V. Lawrence, Lincoln, Marvin, McCullough, Miller, Morrissey, Newcomb, Plants, Polsley, Pomeroy, Raum, Robinson, Selye, Shellabarger, Sitgreaves, Stone, Taffe, Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Van Wyck, Henry D. Washburn, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, and Woodbridge—47.

In the Senate, on January 22d, the bill of the House was considered:

Mr. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, moved to refer the bill to the Committee on the Judiciary, with the following instructions:

That, the said committee be instructed in said bill, or in any other bill which may be reported by them having reference to the question of reconstruction, so called, in any of the States not represented in the present Congress, to insert the following proviso:

Provided, nevertheless, That upon an election for the ratification of any constitution, or of officers under the same, previous to its adoption in any State, no persons not having the qualifications of an elector under the constitution and laws of such State previous to the late rebellion shall be allowed to vote, unless he shall possess one of the following qualifications, namely:

1. He shall have served as a soldier in the Federal Army for one year or more.
2. He shall have sufficient education to read the Constitution of the United States, and to subscribe his name to an oath to support the same; or,
3. He shall be seized, in his own right or in the right of his wife, of a freehold to the value of \$250.

Mr. Doolittle said: "Mr. President, the question presented in the instructions proposed by me is, whether Congress is still resolved to subject the white people of the Southern States to the dominion of the negro race at the point of the bayonet, or whether Congress, in deference to the recently expressed will of the American people, will now so far modify their policy as to leave the governments in those States in the hands of the white race and of the more civilized portion of the blacks? That is the naked question. Strip it of all useless verbiage and specious arguments about sustaining loyal men and punishing rebels, it is nothing more nor less than this: shall the General of the Army put the negro in power over the white race in all the States of the South and keep him there? That purpose is boldly avowed by some, and that will be the effect of this Radical reconstruction now as it stands, or as it will stand if this bill shall become a law. On

the other hand, the amendment which I offer, if adopted, would leave the governments in those States where they belong, and where they ought always to remain—in the hands of our own race—while, at the same time, it would allow the right of suffrage to all those negroes who have any claim to it by reason of intelligence or patriotic services or estate subject to taxation, namely:

"1. To those who have served in the Federal Army:

"2. To those who have sufficient education to read the Constitution of the United States and to subscribe their names to an oath to support the same; or

"3. To those who have acquired and hold real property to the value of \$250.

"But the question may be asked, why not apply the same tests to the white men of the South? The answer is plain and twofold. First, by the constitutions and laws of those States the right of suffrage is already secured to them, and we have no rightful power to take it away. To do so would trample under our feet one of the most sacred rights reserved to the States. It is by extending suffrage to the negroes that Congress is overturning the constitutions of those States. In my opinion, this is a usurpation, which its advocates justify upon the ground of necessity alone. I neither admit the power nor the necessity; but, granting both, no reason can be given, and no necessity but that of party ascendancy can be urged, for going any further in this revolutionary work than to admit to suffrage the classes of negroes named in this amendment.

"The second answer is, that white men have for centuries been accustomed to vote. They have borne all the responsibilities and discharged all the duties of freemen among freemen; and it is a very different thing to take away from a freeman a privilege long exercised by him and by his ancestors, from what it is to confer one never before enjoyed upon ignorant, half-civilized Africans just released from slavery. Three generations back many of them were cannibals and savages of the lowest type of human kind. The only civilization they have is that which they have received during their slavery in America.

"To confer this great privilege upon the more enlightened negroes might tend to elevate the mass in the end. But to confer it now upon their ignorant hordes can only degrade the ballot and the republican institutions which rest upon it."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, in reply, said: "A great portion of the Senator's argument is based upon the assumption that there is an intention on the part of Congress to place the governments of the South under negro control. The answer to this is, it is not true in point of fact; it is a false assumption; and of course the whole argument based upon it falls. What is the truth? Why, sir, in all the Southern States to which the Reconstruction Act applies,

with the exception of Mississippi and South Carolina, the white population largely preponderates. In the State of Alabama, in 1860, the date of the last census, there were five hundred and twenty-six thousand whites, in round numbers, and only four hundred and thirty-five thousand slaves, and two thousand six hundred and ninety free colored people. There were nearly one hundred thousand more whites than blacks in Alabama. In Arkansas the whites predominated nearly three to one. In Florida a large majority of the population were whites. In Georgia there are one hundred thousand more whites than blacks. In North Carolina the white population preponderates nearly two to one. In Texas more than two to one. In Virginia more than two to one. Now, sir, what becomes of this assertion that there is an attempt to place the governments in the rebel States in the hands of negroes? If you will look at the registration you will find more whites than blacks registered in most of the States; but if the whites have not registered whose fault is it? The fault of the Senator from Wisconsin, and just such speeches as he has made to-day, to prevent the white population from taking part in this work of reconstruction.

"But, the Senator says, you have disfranchised the whites. How many? Why, sir, only those who led in the rebellion have been disfranchised. The number is comparatively small. But he says it embraces the brains and talent of the South. Is it true that the brains and the talent of the white population of the great State of Virginia, amounting to nearly a million, were all concentrated in the few persons who held office in that State prior to the rebellion? All of us who know any thing about Southern society and Southern politics know that offices run in families in that section and always have. Men once in office there frequently hold office for life. We all know that when a member was sent to the House of Representatives or to this body from any of the Southern States in former years he was very likely to be continued as long as he lived or was willing to come. They were not in the habit of changing their officers in that section as we are in the North, and hence the disqualifying clause affects but few. And who are they that are disqualified? Why, sir, they are the leaders of the rebellion. The Senator had the frankness to tell us that the people of the South were not in favor of rebellion; that a majority of the white people of the South were opposed to it. How, then, came they to go into rebellion? He says they afterward united in it. How did that happen? Why, sir, they were forced into it by these very leaders, according to his statement, whom he now seeks to place again in power. They are the last men to be intrusted with authority after having, as he would have us understand, overawed and forced an unwilling people into rebellion.

"There is, then, no truth in the allegation that there is any attempt to place the Southern States under negro supremacy; and if the white people of those States are subjected to any such supremacy, it is because they chose it. They have in nearly every one of those States a majority of votes. In all the conventions which have been held, with the exception of perhaps South Carolina, a large majority of the members have been white. So that this accusation of the Senator not being true in point of fact, there is no need of replying to the horrid condition of affairs which he has painted as resulting from negro supremacy."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "The issue here to-day is the same which prevails throughout the country, and which will be the issue of this canvass, and perhaps for years to come. To repeat what I have had occasion to say elsewhere, it is between two paramount ideas, each struggling for the supremacy. One is, that the war to suppress the rebellion was right and just on our part; that the rebels forfeited their civil and political rights, and can only be restored to them upon such conditions as the nation may prescribe for its future safety and prosperity. The other idea is, that the rebellion was not sinful, but was right; that those engaged in it forfeited no rights, civil or political, and have a right to take charge of their State governments, and be restored to their representation in Congress, just as if there had been no rebellion and nothing had occurred. The immediate issue before the Senate now is between the existing State governments, established under the policy of the President of the United States in the rebel States, and the plan of reconstruction presented by Congress.

"When a surveyor first enters a new territory, he endeavors to ascertain the exact latitude and longitude of a given spot, and from that can safely begin his survey; and so I will endeavor to ascertain a proposition in this debate, upon which both parties are agreed, and start from that proposition. That proposition is, that at the end of the war, in the spring of 1865, the rebel States were without State governments of any kind. The loyal State governments existing at the beginning of the war had been overturned by the rebels; the rebel State governments erected during the war had been overturned by our armies, and at the end of the war there were no governments of any kind existing in those States. This fact was recognized distinctly by the President of the United States, in his proclamation, under which the work of reconstruction was commenced in North Carolina in 1865, to which I beg leave to refer. The others were mere copies of this proclamation. In that proclamation, he says:

And whereas the rebellion which has been waged by a portion of the people of the United States against the properly constituted authorities of the Govern-

ment thereof, in the most violent and revolting form, but whose organized and armed forces have now been almost entirely overcome, has in its revolutionary progress deprived the people of the State of North Carolina of all civil government.

"Here the President must be allowed to speak for his party, and I shall accept this as a proposition agreed upon on both sides: that at the end of the war there were no governments of any kind existing in those States.

"The fourth section of the fourth article of the Constitution declares that 'the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government.' This provision contains a vast, undefined power that has never yet been ascertained—a great supervisory power given to the United States to enable them to keep the States in their orbits, to preserve them from anarchy, revolution, and rebellion. The measure of power thus conferred upon the Government of the United States can only be determined by that which is requisite to guarantee or maintain in each State a legal and republican form of government. Whatever power, therefore, may be necessary to enable the Government of the United States thus to maintain in each State a republican form of government is conveyed by this provision.

"Now, Mr. President, when the war ended and these States were found without governments of any kind, the jurisdiction of the United States under this provision of the Constitution, at once attached; the power to reorganize State governments, to use the common word, to reconstruct, to maintain and guarantee republican State governments in those States, at once attached under this provision. Upon this proposition there is also a concurrence of the two parties. The President has distinctly recognized the application of this clause of the Constitution. He has recognized the fact that its jurisdiction attached when those States were found without republican State governments, and he himself claimed to act under this clause of the Constitution.

"It is true he recites in his proclamation that he is the Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United States; but at the same time he puts his plan of reconstruction, not upon the exercise of the military power which is called to its aid, but on the execution of the guarantee provided by the clause of the Constitution to which I have referred. He appoints a Governor for North Carolina and for these other States, the office being civil in its character, but military in its effects. This Governor has all the power of one of the district commanders, and, in fact, far greater power than was conferred upon General Pope or General Sheridan, or any general in command of a district; for it is further provided:

That the military commander of the department, and all officers and persons in the military and naval service, aid and assist the said provisional governor in carrying into effect this proclamation.

"We are, then, agreed upon the second prop-

osition, that the power of the United States to reconstruct and guarantee republican forms of government, at once applied when these States were found in the condition in which they were at the end of the war. Then, sir, being agreed upon these two propositions, we are brought to the question as to the proper form of exercising this power, and by whom it shall be exercised. The Constitution says that 'the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government.' By the phrase 'United States' here is meant the Government of the United States. The United States can only act through the Government, and the clause would mean precisely the same thing if it read 'the Government of the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government.'

"Then, as the Government of the United States is to execute this guarantee, the question arises, what constitutes the Government of the United States? The President does not constitute the Government; the Congress does not constitute the Government; the judiciary does not constitute the Government; but all three together constitute the Government; and as this guarantee is to be executed by the Government of the United States, it follows necessarily that it must be a legislative act. The President could not assume to execute the guarantee, without assuming that he was the United States within the meaning of that provision, without assuming that he was the Government of the United States. Congress could not of itself assume to execute the guarantee without assuming that it was the Government of the United States; nor could the judiciary without a like assumption. The act must be the act of the Government, and therefore it must be a legislative act, a law passed by Congress, submitted to the President for his approval, and perhaps, in a proper case, subject to be reviewed by the judiciary.

"Mr. President, that this is necessarily the case from the simple reading of the Constitution seems to me cannot be for a moment denied. The President, in assuming to execute this guarantee himself, is assuming to be the Government of the United States, which he clearly is not, but only one of its coordinate branches; and, therefore, as this guarantee must be a legislative act, it follows that the attempt on the part of the President to execute the guarantee was without authority, and that the guarantee can only be executed in the form of a law, first to be passed by Congress, and then to be submitted to the President for his approval, and, if he does not approve it, then to be passed over his head by a majority of two-thirds in each House. That law, then, becomes the execution of the guarantee and is the act of the Government of the United States.

"Mr. President, this is not an open question. I send to the Secretary and ask him to read a part of the decision of the Supreme Court of

the United States, in the case of *Luther vs. Borden*, as reported in 7 Howard."

The Secretary read as follows:

Moreover, the Constitution of the United States, as far as it has provided for an emergency of this kind, and authorized the General Government to interfere in the domestic concerns of a State, has treated the subject as political in its nature and placed the power in the hands of that department.

The fourth section of the fourth article of the Constitution of the United States provides that the United States shall guarantee to every State in the Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasions; and, upon the application of the Legislature or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

Under this article of the Constitution it rests with Congress to decide what government is the established one in a State. For, as the United States guarantees to each State a republican government, Congress must necessarily decide what government is established in the State before it can determine whether it is republican or not. And when the Senators and Representatives of a State are admitted into the councils of the Union, the authority of the government under which they are appointed, as well as its republican character, is recognized by the proper constitutional authority. And its decision is binding upon every other department of the Government, and could not be questioned in a judicial tribunal. It is true that the contest in this case did not last long enough to bring the matter to this issue; and, as no Senators or Representatives were elected under the authority of the Government of which Mr. Dorr was the head, Congress was not called upon to decide the controversy. Yet the right to decide is placed there, and not in the courts.

Mr. Morton: "In this opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States, delivered many years ago, the right to execute the guarantee provided for in this clause of the Constitution is placed in Congress, and nowhere else, and therefore the necessary reading of the Constitution is confirmed by the highest judicial authority which we have.

"I therefore, Mr. President, take the proposition as conclusively established, both by reason and authority, that this clause of the Constitution can be executed only by Congress; and taking that as established, I now proceed to consider what are the powers of Congress in the execution of the guarantee, how it shall be executed, and what means may be employed for that purpose. The Constitution does not define the means. It does not say how the guarantee shall be executed. All that is left to the determination of Congress. As to the particular character of the means that must be employed, that, I take it, will depend upon the peculiar circumstances of each case; and the extent of the power will depend upon the other question as to what may be required for the purpose of maintaining or guaranteeing a loyal republican form of government in each State. I use the word 'loyal,' although it is not used in the Constitution, because loyalty is an inhering qualification not only in regard to persons who are to fill public offices, but in regard to State governments, and we have no right to recognize a

State government that is not loyal to the Government of the United States. Now, sir, as to the use of means that are not prescribed in the Constitution, I call the attention of the Senate to the eighteenth clause of section eight of the first article of the Constitution of the United States, which declares that—

The Congress shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States or any department or officer thereof.

“Here is a declaration of what would otherwise be a general principle anyhow, that Congress shall have the power to pass all laws necessary to carry into execution all powers that are vested in the Government under the Constitution. As Congress has the power to guarantee or maintain a loyal republican government in each State, it has the right to use whatever means may be necessary for that purpose. As I before remarked, the character of the means will depend upon the character of the case. In one case it may be the use of an army; in another case perhaps it may be simply presenting a question to the courts, and having it tested in that way; in another case it may go to the very foundation of the Government itself. And I now propound this proposition: that if Congress, after deliberation, after long and bloody experience, shall come to the conclusion that loyal republican State governments cannot be erected and maintained in the rebel States upon the basis of the white population, it has a right to raise up and make voters of a class of men who had no right to vote under the State laws. This is simply the use of the necessary means in the execution of the guarantee. If we have found after repeated trials that loyal republican State governments, governments that shall answer the purpose that such governments are intended to answer, cannot be successfully founded upon the basis of the white population, because the great majority of that population are disloyal, then Congress has a right to raise up a new loyal voting population for the purpose of establishing these governments in the execution of the guarantee. I think, sir, this proposition is so clear that it is not necessary to elaborate it. We are not required to find in the Constitution a particular grant of power for this purpose; but we find a general grant of power, and we find also another grant of power authorizing us to use whatever means may be necessary to execute the first; and we find that the Supreme Court of the United States has said that the judgment of Congress upon this question shall be conclusive, that it cannot be reviewed by the courts, that it is a purely political matter; and therefore the determination of Congress, that raising up colored men to the right of suffrage is a means necessary to the execution of that power, is a determination which cannot be reviewed by the courts, and is conclusive upon the people of this country.

“But, Mr. President, time passed on. At last, in 1866, the constitutional amendment, the fourteenth article, was brought forward as a basis of settlement and reconstruction; and there was a tacit understanding, though it was not embraced in any law or resolution, that if the Southern people should ratify and agree to that amendment, then their State governments would be accepted. But that amendment was rejected, contemptuously rejected. The Southern people, counselled and inspired by the Democracy of the North, rejected that amendment. They were told that they were not bound to submit to any conditions whatever; that they had forfeited no rights by rebellion. Why, sir, what did we propose by this amendment? By the first section we declared that all men born upon our soil were citizens of the United States—a thing that had long been recognized by every department of this Government until the Dred Scott decision was made in 1857. The second section provided that where a class or race of men were excluded from the right of suffrage they should not be counted in the basis of representation—an obvious justice that no reasonable man for a moment could deny; that if four million people down South were to have no suffrage, the men living in their midst and surrounding them, and depriving them of all political rights, should not have members of Congress on their account. I say the justice of the second clause has never been successfully impugned by any argument, I care not how ingenious it may be. What was the third clause? It was that the leaders of the South, those men who had once taken an official oath to support the Constitution of the United States and had afterward committed perjury by going into the rebellion, should be made ineligible to any office under the Government of the United States or of a State. It was a very small disfranchisement. It was intended to withhold power from those leaders by whose instrumentality we had lost nearly half a million lives and untold treasure. The justice of that disfranchisement could not be disproved. And what was the fourth clause of the amendment? That this Government should never assume and pay any part of the rebel debt; that it should never pay the rebels for their slaves. This was bitterly opposed in the North as well as in the South. How could any man oppose that amendment unless he was in favor of this Government assuming a portion or all of the rebel debt and in favor of paying the rebels for their slaves? When the Democratic party North and South opposed that most important and perhaps hereafter to be regarded as vital amendment, they were committing themselves in principle, as they had been before by declaration, to the doctrine that this Government was bound to pay for the slaves, and that it was just and right that we should assume and pay the rebel debt.

“This amendment, as I have before said, was rejected, and when Congress assembled in

December, 1866, they were confronted by the fact that every proposition of compromise had been rejected; every half-way measure had been spurned by the rebels themselves, and they had nothing left to do but to begin the work of reconstruction themselves; and in February, 1867, Congress for the first time entered upon the execution of the guarantee provided for in the Constitution by the passage of the first reconstruction law. A supplementary bill was found necessary in March, another one in July, and I believe another is found necessary at this time; but the power is with Congress. Whatever it shall deem necessary, whether it be in the way of colored suffrage, whether it be in the way of military power—whatever Congress shall deem necessary in the execution of this guarantee, is conclusive upon the courts, upon every State, and upon the people of this nation.

"Sir, when Congress entered upon this work it had become apparent to all men that loyal republican State governments could not be erected and maintained upon the basis of the white population. We had tried them. Congress had attempted the work of reconstruction through the constitutional amendment by leaving the suffrage with the white men, and by leaving with the white people of the South the question as to when the colored people should exercise the right of suffrage, if ever; but when it was found that those white men were as rebellious as ever, that they hated this Government more bitterly than ever; when it was found that they persecuted the loyal men, both white and black, in their midst; when it was found that Northern men who had gone down there were driven out by social tyranny, by a thousand annoyances, by the insecurity of life and property, then it became apparent to all men of intelligence that reconstruction could not take place upon the basis of the white population, and something else must be done.

"Now, sir, what was there left to do? Either we must hold these people continually by military power, or we must use such machinery upon such a new basis as would enable loyal republican State governments to be raised up; and in the last resort, and I will say Congress waited long, the nation waited long, experience had to come to the rescue of reason before the thing was done—in the last resort, and as the last thing to be done, Congress determined to dig through all the rubbish, dig through the soil and the shifting sands, and go down to the eternal rock, and there, upon the basis of the everlasting principle of equal and exact justice to all men, we have planted the column of reconstruction; and, sir, it will arise slowly but surely, and 'the gates of hell shall not prevail against it.' Whatever dangers we apprehend from the introduction of the right of suffrage of seven hundred thousand men, just emerged from slavery, were put aside in the presence of a greater danger. Why, sir, let me say frankly to my friend from Wisconsin

that I approached universal colored suffrage in the South reluctantly. Not because I adhered to the miserable dogma that this was the white man's Government, but because I entertained fears about at once intrusting a large body of men just from slavery, to whom education had been denied by law, to whom the marriage relation had been denied, who had been made the basest and most abject slaves, with political power."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed in reply, saying: "The honorable member places the authority to pass the bills upon your table exclusively under that clause in the Constitution which provides that—

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government.

"He renounces (and I was glad, though not surprised to hear it), and he almost denounces, the doctrine that Congress or any department of the Government can wander from the Constitution for the purpose of finding any authority outside for any measures which it may think proper to adopt. He relies, therefore, exclusively upon the clause of which I have spoken. The logical acumen of the honorable member has evidently taught him, in his careful study, for which he deserves the credit that every member deserves who appears before this body prepared, understanding the matter of which he professes to speak—he must have discovered, in his meditations in his closet, that he would be unable to invoke the aid of that clause for the support of these measures unless he could interpolate into the clause a word not to be found in it. I do not mean by using the word 'interpolate' to say any thing offensive to the honorable member, for that I am sure he knows I am incapable of. I could not do it without warring against my own feelings. What I mean to say is, that he believed it to be necessary for the purpose of his proposition to read the clause as if it contained a word not to be found in it. He therefore reads it as if our fathers had written it, that the United States shall guarantee to every State in this union a 'loyal' republican form of government. That there is no such phrase to be found in the clause the honorable member conceded; but he placed his right to consider it as virtually within the clause upon the ground that loyalty is inherent, and must therefore be considered as existing both in relation to that clause and every other part of the instrument.

"Mr. President, unless I am greatly mistaken, the honorable member is evidently in error. When the Constitution was being framed, there were thirteen States, each of which was then sovereign; each of which, not only in the judgment of its own people, but in the judgment of all the other States, was republican in form. That was a time when each, therefore, was to be considered in that particular as standing upon the same footing with all the rest. The object of the Convention was to preserve

that unity of form, to preserve republican liberty by preserving a republican form of government, not to guard against the abuses of those who might be called upon to administer a government of that form, but, leaving any such abuses to be corrected by time and by the subsequent reflection of the people, to preserve them all as they then existed, republican States in point of form.

"What was the condition of each of the States? In the most of them slavery existed, and the Constitution contained a provision by which the number of slaves might for a period of twenty years be increased by immigration, and placed that particular provision beyond the power of amendment. And in all of the States, as I believe, at that time, there existed no universal right of suffrage. In most of them the voter was required to have a property qualification. In all of them he was required to have a particular period of residence within his own State, and to be of a certain age. Did anybody suppose at that day, did any member of the Convention for a moment imagine when he signed his name to that Constitution, did it enter into the imagination of the three great men who recommended it to the adoption of the American people in the celebrated letters of Publius, that there lurked within it a provision which might be used by Congress for the purpose of taking away from the States the authority to regulate suffrage, to prescribe the qualification of voters, or the qualification of those who should be voted for?"

"Did any member of the Convention, above all, think at that time that the institution of slavery and the provision for its increase might be entirely defeated by measures which Congress in the future might adopt under the authority of this clause which the honorable member correctly characterizes, if his doctrine is right, as including within itself a mass of undefined power? So far from it, in one of the letters of Publius, written by Mr. Madison, No. 43, in which he discusses the meaning of that clause, he recommends it to the adoption of the people; and meets any possible objection, that might be made in the State conventions thereafter to assemble for the purpose of ratifying the Constitution, by stating that the object of the clause was to preserve the States as they then were. He was apprehensive—for those celebrated letters examined every power contained in the Constitution—that those who were fearful of conferring upon the General Government powers that might be used to the injury of the States, powers that might be used to destroy the reserved rights of the States, might construe this particular clause as authorizing such legislation; and he, therefore, in commenting upon the clause, said what I send to the desk and ask to have read."

The Secretary read, as follows, from No. 43 of the *Federalist*:

It may possibly be asked, what need there could be of such a precaution, and whether it may not become

a pretext for alterations in the State governments without the concurrence of the States themselves. These questions admit of ready answers. If the interposition of the General Government should not be needed, the provision for such an event will be a harmless superfluity only in the Constitution. But who can say what experiments may be produced by the caprice of particular States, by the ambition of enterprising leaders, or by the intrigues and influence of foreign powers? To the second question it may be answered, that if the General Government should interpose by virtue of this constitutional authority, it will be, of course, bound to pursue the authority. But the authority extends no further than to a guarantee of a republican form of government, which supposes a preëxisting government of the form which is to be guaranteed.

Mr. Johnson: "Now, Mr. President, it is evident that in the judgment of the men of that day it was not thought that there was included within this particular clause any power to interfere with the government of a State; in other words, it was held that it conferred upon Congress no power to create a government for a State. Its purpose was to protect the States and nothing else. Its object and its effect was to defend the States, and not to confer upon Congress the power to interfere with the government of a State. It supposes, in the language of Madison, that there exists a government in point of fact republican in form, and that the government, in point of fact, which the States are entitled to have is one of their own creation; and until now, as far as my knowledge extends, it never was pretended that Congress had any power under this clause to make a constitution for any State.

"But again, Mr. President, the honorable member reads the clause as if the word 'loyal' was in it. Hence the admission, from the necessity under which he labors of reading the clause with that word in, is, that without it it would not serve the purpose of his argument. Now, we have examined the clause; it contains no such word. What is loyalty? What meaning does the honorable Senator attach to the term in that connection? Does he mean to say that a republican form of government does not exist because its people, few or many, entertain opinions which, in his judgment, are not loyal to the United States?"

"Now, what is loyalty? What do we understand it to be at this time of day? The war is over; not an arm is raised in any part of our wide domain in resistance to the just authority of the Government; peace, in the sense of that term as contradistinguished from war, prevails throughout the land. Is it disloyalty to entertain abstract opinions upon the meaning of the Constitution, to have believed in the doctrine of secession in the past, or to believe in it now? Is it disloyalty to believe that the measures which the Congress of the United States have adopted or propose to adopt are not such as should be adopted, looking to the true interests of the country? Is it disloyalty to believe that, so far from their tending to the interests of the country, they violate many of the positive limitations to be found in the Con-

stitution, limitations placed upon the power of Congress for the purpose not only of protecting the States against the invasion of State power, but for the purpose of protecting the individual citizen against the violation of the guarantees of personal liberty to be found in the same Constitution? Is that disloyalty? The honorable member will hardly say that it is. It may be, and in his judgment, no doubt, is an error of opinion; it may be, and in his judgment, no doubt, it is an error attended with mischief to the country at large; but differences of opinion do not make him who holds one loyal and him who holds the opposite opinion disloyal.

"Mr. President, if I may be permitted to illustrate by referring to my own case, if I can do so without any violation of good taste, as I hope I may, am I disloyal because I differ with the majority in this House? Am I disloyal because I have differed, and no doubt shall continue to differ, with some of the doctrines of the Executive of the United States? Am I disloyal because I have occasionally differed, and no doubt shall continue to differ, from some of the opinions pronounced by the Supreme Court of the United States? I hope not. In the exercise of my own honest judgment, and having at heart the prosperity and safety of my country, I did, from the commencement of the rebellion, and before, denounce it as resting upon a doctrine finding no support in the Constitution of our country, but, on the contrary, at war with many of its express provisions. I had, however, the charity to believe, and I believe now, that the opposite doctrine to my own was maintained with equal sincerity by hundreds and thousands of citizens to be found in every State of the Union. It had for its support, or was supposed to have had for its support, the name of Jefferson, the apostle of liberty, according to our view of his character, the author of the Declaration of Independence.

"The immediate cause of the apprehension under which he labored was the passage of the Alien and Sedition Laws. He found no authority for such legislation in any power conferred upon the Congress of the United States. He believed that they trampled upon the guaranteed rights of the citizens and of the States, and he, in advance, told the country, by the resolutions to which I have referred, which came from his pen, and which he knew would be adopted by Kentucky, and which were adopted by the unanimous voice of the Legislature of that State, that the country would come into a condition which would justify Kentucky or any other State in the Union in abandoning what he considered as a confederacy. On more occasions than one I have, with the little ability I may possess, controverted the doctrine. It is, in my judgment, as antagonistic to the true spirit of the Constitution of the United States as it is fatal to the continuing existence of a Government formed, as ours is, of States as

well as of people; but in 1799, if I had been old enough then to form an opinion upon the subject, I never should have dreamed of imputing to Jefferson disloyalty, in the sense in which the honorable member from Indiana evidently uses the term when he reads it in connection with this clause. I never should have thought, and certainly the Congress of the United States at that time never dreamed, that there existed in this clause, or in any other clause of the Constitution, a power to interfere with the government of Kentucky upon the ground that her citizens were not, according to their judgment, loyal to the Government of the United States.

"Look to my own State; look to the State so ably represented by my friend who now sits next to me (Mr. Conkling), New York. Are these States to be brought within the grasp of that large mass of undefined powers which are supposed to lurk within a clause that professes to give no power, but to guarantee an existing government? The honorable member from Indiana says the Southern States can be brought within that clause, because, in his opinion, they are not loyal; because, in his view, republican forms of government in those States cannot be secured unless the Congress of the United States shall form State governments and State constitutions for them, or prescribe the conditions upon which they shall come into the Union as States.

"The honorable member from Indiana, not, I am sure, meaning to cast any reflection upon me in what he said in regard to my State, stated in substance, in the speech to which I am now replying, and in one made a few days before upon the right of my colleague to take his seat in this body, that the government of that State was now in the hands of persons who sympathized with the late rebellion. It is not for me to comment with any unkindness upon the character of the men in whose hands the destinies of the State are now placed. In my judgment they are in the possession of the government rightfully, as far as the laws and constitution of the State are concerned, and as far as the Constitution of the United States is concerned. That they erred in the past in sympathizing with the South nobody is more satisfied than I am; and they are satisfied, more than satisfied, that if wiser counsels had not prevailed during the rebellion, by which the State was retained within the orbit of her duty, and she had attempted secession, she would have been the battle-ground of the war, and her own great city, in all human probability, would have been laid in ashes; every house, now the abode of happiness and of freedom, might have shared the same fate; her children would have fallen in the idle, and, as I believe, unconstitutional attempt to destroy the Government to which she, as every State in the Union, is indebted for all the power and all the prosperity which she possesses.

"But many of them, no doubt, thought dif

ferent. Now, however, the war is over, the rebellion is at an end. No man dreams of reviving it, as I think. For centuries no man but a madman will think of reviving it. It was insane as well as unconstitutional in its origin, in my judgment. It was fatal, as I was sure from the first it would be, to the very institution which its authors thought to preserve by it—fatal to slavery. In my view, great as have been the losses of the war, terrible as has been the loss of life North and South, there is to be found in the fact that slavery no longer exists, and is no longer a blot upon the fair fame of this nation, compensation almost entire for all that has occurred. There is another compensation: it has ended, and, as I believe, forever, the doctrine of secession; and that doctrine terminated and slavery forever terminated, I cannot for the soul of me imagine why it is that we are not at once to become more prosperous than before, and possess the security that, happen what will, if we move within the respective orbits to which the State governments and the Government of the United States are limited, we shall continue to exist forever a free and a powerful nation.

"Mr. President, there is another error into which the honorable member has fallen in his argument. He reads the clause of guarantee as if there were no other clauses in the Constitution. Now, nobody knows better than my friend from Indiana that it is a familiar principle of construction, of universal application, that when you desire to ascertain the meaning of any particular clause, whether it be in a constitution or in any other written agreement, you are to read it in connection with the other clauses. But the honorable member's reading of it, and his application of it to the measure now before the Senate, in my judgment, disregard many of the other clauses which were designed not only to be restrictions upon the particular clause, but upon every other clause bearing on the subject to be found in the Constitution. What are they? In the Constitution, as it was originally framed, it is provided that 'no bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed'—a positive, commanding inhibition intended to be in force throughout all time, specially provided, as the terms show, as a restriction upon the legislative department of the Government. Rebellions have existed the world over under every form of government. During their existence and subsequent to their termination bills of attainder and *ex post facto* laws have been passed. The men who framed the Constitution, imbued as they were with the pure spirit of freedom, deemed it their duty, for the security of freedom, not only to denounce but to prohibit such legislation, and they did it by the provision to which I am adverting.

"But there is another provision. The scaffolds of the Old World had for ages been soaked with the blood of political offenders under the doctrine of constructive treason. The courts,

in those days, when, as it was said by some political writer, the winter of ages upon ages had settled on the cause of human freedom, were so much under the influence of the Government that they held almost every act of resistance to the authority of the Government to be treason. This our fathers knew, and they therefore provided that 'treason against the United States shall consist only'—the word 'only' is pregnant with the meaning they had in view—'shall consist only of levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.' There was another security they wished to afford: it is the security of a grand jury, and the further security of a petit jury. These securities had, by their operation for ages, however inefficient they were in the beginning, made England the freest Government in the world until we emerged from her dominion and became ourselves freer even than she was. Every man is to be indicted and tried by his neighbors; and finally, and above all, no man either in peace or war is to be subjected to any other mode of trial, unless he belongs to the land or naval forces of the United States, or the militia, when called into the service of the United States in time of war or public danger. The men of that day feared, as well they might—the history of the world furnished instances enough to cause the apprehension—that there was danger to liberty from military power. They wished, therefore, if possible, to guard the citizen against its exercise, and with that view they protected him, by providing, that unless he was in the army or in the navy, when, of course, he would be subject to such laws as Congress might pass for the government of the army and the navy, he had a right to stand upon the Constitution and demand his trial by indictment and by a petit jury, and with all the other securities the Constitution affords; the right to confront his witnesses, the right to a speedy trial, the right to have counsel for his defence.

"Now, Mr. President, what is the bill upon the table which the honorable member from Indiana supposes to be constitutional by virtue of the guarantee clause and by virtue of that clause alone? To place ten of the States of the Union—whether they are States or not I will inquire in a moment—entirely under the dominion of the military of the United States. It is not necessary for the purpose I have in view now to examine into the right to place the power of the Army of the United States into the hands exclusively of the present General-in-Chief, or whoever may be its chief commander other than the President; but assuming that power to exist, he is for the time being made a military despot. He may not use the power despotically. That is immaterial to the principle. That he will not, I believe. I have confidence in him as a man, and I feel, in common with all the country, a grateful sense of the debt which we owe to him for having led our armies to victory, and having, by so doing,

crushed the rebellion. But if he were Washington himself I would not intrust to him such power as you propose to intrust to him by one of the sections of the bill upon the table—the power to arrest, the power to imprison, the power to execute, the power to disregard all the securities of the rights of the people of the South, which it was the object of the Constitution expressly to provide against.

"If that clause stood alone, if it was the only constitution of the Government which we have, if such a thing could be supposed, in my judgment it would not authorize any such interpretation; but when it is found in a constitution which contains special and positive guarantees intended to be limitations upon the power of Congress, it is warring with any rule of construction with which I am acquainted to suppose that it can be used so as entirely to disregard all the restrictions upon the power of Congress. May Congress pass laws, now that the war is over, providing for the attainer of the people of the South? May it pass laws making matters criminal which were not criminal before, when they were perpetrated; in other words, *ex post facto* laws? He might as well claim it; and yet, as the Senate know, Congress is restrained from passing acts of that description in very positive terms."

The motion of Mr. Doolittle was lost by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Dixon, Doolittle, Hendricks—3.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Ferry, Fowler, Harlan, Henderson, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Me., Morrill of Vt., Nye, Patterson of N. H., Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—33.

The Judiciary Committee, to whom the bill of the House was referred, reported in favor of striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting the following:

That hereafter any election authorized by the act, passed March 23, 1867, entitled "An act supplementary to an act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States, passed March 2, 1867, and to facilitate restoration," shall be decided by a majority of the votes actually cast; and, at the election in which the question of the adoption or rejection of any constitution is submitted, any person duly registered in the State may vote in the election district where he offers to vote, when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding such election, upon presentation of his certificate of registration, his affidavit, or other satisfactory evidence, under such regulations as the district commanders may prescribe.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the constitutional convention of any of the States mentioned in the acts to which this is amendatory may provide that, at the time of voting upon the ratification of the constitution, the registered voters may vote also for members of the House of Representatives of the United States and for all elective officers provided for by the said constitution; and the same election officers who shall make the return of the votes cast on the ratification or rejection of the constitution shall enumerate and certify the votes cast for members of Congress.

The report was agreed to, and the bill passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Ferry, Harlan, Howe, Morrill of Me., Morrill of Vt., Nye, Patterson of N. H., Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—28.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Davis, Doolittle, Hendricks, Patterson of Tenn., and Saulsbury—6.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Cattell, Conness, Dixon, Drake, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Guthrie, Henderson, Howard, Johnson, Morgan, Morton, Norton, and Sprague—19.

In the House, on February 26th, the amendment of the Senate was concurred in by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Cary, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Cornell, Covode, Cullom, Dixon, Dodge, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Eliot, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Gravely, Griswold, Harding, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Hunter, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelsey, Ketcham, Koontz, Laflin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Marvin, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercer, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, O'Neill, Orth, Payne, Perham, Peters, Polsley, Price, Raum, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Shaddeus Stevens, Stokes, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, James F. Wilson, and John T. Wilson—96.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Boyer, Brooks, Chanler, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Holman, Hotchkiss, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Loan, Marshall, McCormick, Morgan, Niblack, Pruyn, Randall, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stone, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Thomas Williams, and Woodward—32.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Anderson, Archer, Bailey, Beatty, Beck, Benjamin, Benton, Burr, Cake, Coburn, Cook, Dawes, Donnelly, Ela, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Finney, Garfield, Haight, Halsey, Hawkins, Higby, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Ingersoll, Jones, Kelley, Kitchen, Mallory, Maynard, McCullough, Miller, Morrissey, Mungen, Nicholson, Nunn, Phelps, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Pomeroy, Robertson, Robinson, Selye, Shanks, Shellabarger, Smith, Spalding, Stewart, Taber, Henry D. Washburn, Welker, William Williams, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, Wood, and Woodbridge—61.

In the House, on January 13th, Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, moved to suspend the rules, to make a report from the Committee on Reconstruction. The motion having been passed, Mr. Bingham reported the following bill:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Florida, and Arkansas there are no civil State governments republican in form, and that the so-called civil governments in said States, respectively, shall not be recognized as valid or legal State governments either by the executive or judicial power or authority of the United States.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That for the speedy enforcement of the act entitled "An act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the several acts supplementary thereto, the General of the Army of

the United States is hereby authorized and required to enjoin, by special orders upon all officers in command within the several military departments within said several States, the performance of all acts authorized by said several laws above recited, and to remove by his order from command any or all of said commanders and detail other officers of the United States Army, not below the rank of colonel, to perform all the duties and exercise all the powers authorized by said several acts, to the end that the people of said several States may speedily reorganize civil government, republican in form, in said several States, and be restored to political power in the Union.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the General of the Army may remove any or all civil officers now acting under the several provisional governments within said several disorganized States and appoint others to discharge the duties pertaining to their respective offices, and may do any and all acts which by said several laws above mentioned are authorized to be done by the several commanders of the military departments within said States; and so much of said acts, or of any acts as authorize the President to detail the military commanders to said military departments, or to remove any officers which may be detailed as herein provided, is hereby repealed.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be unlawful for the President of the United States to order any part of the Army or Navy of the United States to assist by force of arms the authority of either of said provisional governments in said disorganized States, to oppose or obstruct the authority of the United States as provided in this act and the acts to which this is supplementary.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That any interference by any person, with intent to prevent by force the execution of the orders of the General of the Army made in pursuance of this act and of the acts aforesaid, shall be held to be a high misdemeanor, and the party guilty thereof shall, upon conviction, be fined not exceeding \$5,000, and imprisoned not exceeding two years.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That so much of all acts and parts of acts as conflict or are inconsistent with the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

Mr. Brooks, of New York, said: "I desire to submit a report of the views of the minority of the committee, signed by the gentleman from Kentucky (Mr. Beck) and myself, in opposition to this bill. And as the injunction of secrecy upon the action of the committee has been removed, as will be seen by any one who will refer to the daily papers, I may avail myself of this opportunity to add that the honorable gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Stevens) was also opposed to the bill as reported, though upon entirely different grounds; our opposition being to the principle of the bill, and he, as I understand him, being opposed to the bill because it was not effective enough, but was rather a bill to make a President of the United States than to carry out the objects stated in the bill.

I now present the report of the minority.

The report was as follows:

The undersigned, a minority of the Committee on Reconstruction, submit, among others, the following as some of their reasons for opposition to this bill:

1. That a Congress *ex parte* is asked (first section) to abrogate and destroy all civil State governments in ten States, four of them, namely, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, being of the original thirteen that started the Government and created the Constitution, while four others of that

thirteen (making eight in all) have just been demonstrating through their popular elections that they recognize their civil State governments, and guarantee, as far as the popular voice there can, their preservation (not destruction) as legal State governments. Self-government and representation are cardinal principles of a republic, and solemnly ordained in our Federal Constitution; but this section ignores both, and robs ten States of the Union and their twelve million inhabitants of all protection from the judiciary or executive branches of the Government, while dooming them to a military despotism.

2. That a Congress thus representing but a part of the people, and that part now in a minority, even if a full Congress, in the proper parliamentary sense of that word, could be but one of the three great branches of the Government, with no right nor power to invalidate or to deny the recognition of the judicial or executive power, as asserted in this bill. The executive or judiciary has as much right to proclaim or adjudicate that Congress shall not be recognized as Congress has thus to enact; for the executive and the judiciary both are as much the Government and the creature of the Constitution as the House of Representatives or Senate; and the Executive elected by the whole people better represents the principles of popular government than a Senate, the mere arbitrary creature of the States without regard to population.

3. That this invalidation or nullification of the executive and judicial power in ten States is not only an abolition of the Federal Constitution, but, without a direct repeal of, in conflict with the great military act of 1792, 1795, and of March 3, 1807, putting the Army and Navy and militia of the United States in certain cases at the disposal of the President; also in conflict with the fundamental judiciary act of 1789, and also in conflict with article four, section five, of the Constitution, which, while guaranteeing to every State a republican form of government, also guarantees, on application of the civil authorities of the State, protection against domestic violence or invasion, such as is contemplated in this bill.

4. That the second and third sections are in utter violation of the Constitution—Article 2, section 2—which declares "the President" to be Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United States, inasmuch as only the General of the Army is there authorized to be that Commander-in-Chief, and to remove by his order alone any or all officers of the Army of the United States, independent of the constitutional and people's elected Commander-in-Chief, and this investiture of a General of the Army with the supreme dictatorship is, as if in solemn mockery, set forth to be to reorganize civil government republican in form!

5. That the whole act is revolutionary and incendiary in arraying Congress, but one branch of the Government, against two coördinate branches, in all respects the constitutional equals of Congress, and in some respects the constitutional superiors of that Congress, and thereby calculated, if not intended, to involve the whole country in commotion and civil strife, the end of which no human eye can foresee.

JAMES B. BROOKS, of New York.

JAMES B. BECK, of Kentucky.

Mr. Brooks said: "Sir, it seems to me, with all due respect to the committee that reported it, that this bill is mainly a bill to elect a President of the United States, and to so organize the Southern States as to elect a particular person to the presidency of the United States. In order to give that particular person a sufficiency of power to become President of the United States, he is made supreme dictator over the ten Southern States, a vast extent of territory, stretching from the Potomac to the Rio Grande.

"Now, if that be the object of this bill, I can well understand it. And yet I do not see why it is necessary, in order to do that, to violate the Constitution of the United States, as this bill does violate it, as I have shown in the minority report which I have just presented. In this purpose of settling the question of the presidency of the United States and to settle the conflict which is now going on in the Southern States, for the control of the national convention, it is proposed to invest the General of the Army or his friends with such supreme power over the Southern States of this Union in order that they can control the nomination in the national convention by electing delegates to that convention of their own preference and creed. This seems to me to be the great object of the bill.

"The opponents of the nomination of the General-in-Chief of the Army for the presidency are doubtless willing to concur in the passage of this bill, reasoning in their own minds that, by giving him the dictatorship of the country, by making him supreme over the rights of property and of life, of civil and municipal law, by clothing him with such high prerogatives and power, like those given to Roman generals of old, he will be certain in the exercise of them to commit suicide and destroy himself. Thus both the friends and the opponents of the nomination of the General-in-Chief have united in presenting this bill here, though with purposes entirely different. The latter favor it in order to secure his destruction; the former in order to enable his friends to control the national convention and thus secure his nomination.

"But this bill presents a few immediate practical results beyond that of a mere presidential nomination, though in all other respects it overrides the Constitution and laws of the country in every and in any form. And if I am correct in that suspicion, or in that allegation, I put it to this House, I put it to the country, whether it becomes our dignity, the dignity and the honor of the House of Representatives, upon a bill so solemn in its form as this, thus to engage in a presidential election and settle the political difference between the Chief Justice of the United States and the General of the Army of the United States."

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, replied: "The object of this bill is not to deprive the people of those States of protection. The object of it is to hasten the day when the people of those States, under the protection of a law, obeyed by the President and carried into effect by the officers of the Army, to whom it becomes a rule of official conduct, will reorganize governments republican in form, to the satisfaction of the Congress of the United States, and, in the words of the bill, 'be restored to political power in the Union.'

"Now, what objection is there to that? There can be but one objection; and that is the argument that the people of those States

already have republican forms of government. How did they come by them? Did their former governments survive the rebellion of over four years? There can be no republican government in a State without an organized body of officers qualified in accordance with the requirements of the national Constitution. There was no such organization in any one of those States on the day that Lee surrendered to Grant.

"What sort of governments have they had since then? An organization made by the authority of the President of the United States, who, in my judgment, had no right to determine the question at all. I lay nothing to his charge for having interposed to aid the people who might voluntarily have organized governments. But did they do it? Have they laid their constitutions of government before this body? Has the Congress of the United States approved them? The Congress has the right to determine the fact whether there be republican governments there before the Congress shall enforce the guarantee. Has Congress approved them? Not at all. For four long years the Congress disapproved their illegal and void governments in a mode and manner which any man can understand.

"Will any gentleman rise in his place here and say that the government of Mississippi, for example, organized under the direction of the President of the United States, with Governor Sharkey appointed by him to that end, is a republican government springing from the people and resting upon the consent of a majority of the free male citizens of the United States resident within its limits? Not at all.

"Sir, I will venture to say that there never was a State government recognized as republican in form, in any period of the Republic, which deprived a majority of the free male citizens of the United States, resident within its limits and charged with no crime, of all voice or power in its administration. If there ever was any thing that approached it, I want to know when and where it was. I say this only in vindication of the action of Congress. All the past traditions of the Republic are against recognizing as republican in form any of the governments in those ten disorganized States as they now stand before the country.

"The party that maintains the unity of the Republic, the party opposed to State secession, that party has declared, in more solemn form than the people ever declared any thing before in our history, that those States lately in insurrection, and filled with the tempest and conflict of battle, shall not again be admitted to political power in this country, until, in the most explicit and binding form of law, they shall have given a new and irrevocable guarantee for the future safety of the Republic. That is the issue which underlies this legislation. We say to those States: 'Before you send Representatives to this Hall, you must

accept the decree which twenty-three States of this Union have already solemnly ratified, declaring that no State of this Union shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, nor shall any State deny to any person the equal protection of the laws.'

"That, sir, is the first proposition involved in this contest, that this limitation shall be placed by irrevocable amendment in the Constitution. There is not an intelligent man in America but knows that to secure the rights of all citizens and free persons in every State was the spirit and intent of the Constitution in the beginning. There is not an intelligent man in America but knows that this spirit and intent of the Constitution was most flagrantly violated long anterior to the rebellion, and that the Government was powerless to remedy it by law. That amendment proposes hereafter that this great wrong shall be remedied by putting a limitation expressly into the Constitution, coupled with a grant of power to enforce it by law, so that when either Ohio or South Carolina or any other State shall in its madness or its folly refuse to the gentleman or his children, or to me or to mine, any of the rights which pertain to American citizenship or to a common humanity, there will be redress for the wrong through the power and majesty of American law.

"That is the first issue; and it is as essential to the life of this Republic as is the light of God in which we live.

"What is the next? That representation shall be apportioned among the people of all the States according to the whole number of representative population. What is the next? That those who added to the great crime of treason the additional crime of perjury, clothing themselves with perjury as with a garment, to enact this great drama of armed revolt and blood, shall never again exercise official trust, State or national, until their disability shall be removed by an act of Congress.

"What next? That the national debt contracted in defence of the nation's life shall be forever inviolate and shall never be challenged by congressional or by State legislation; that the pledged faith of this nation to its dead and its living defenders shall be inviolate; that the pledge which the nation gave to the one hundred thousand childless mothers in this land, when in the day of battle they gave their sons a beautiful and holy sacrifice for the life of the nation, lifting their hands and invoking God's blessing on their going, shall never be broken."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, said: "Mr. Speaker, the minority of the Committee on Reconstruction felt it to be their duty to differ with the majority of that committee in regard to the presentation of the bill now before the House, and to give our reasons for that difference of opinion in the form of a minority report which is now before the House and the

country. The question before the House is whether the majority or the minority of that committee are right. The majority maintain that the bill presented by them is constitutional, and that its constitutionality can be maintained here and everywhere. We of the minority in our report contend that that bill is unconstitutional. That, sir, is the question before us, and I intend to confine myself as strictly as possible to this question. I will not follow the lead of the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) in giving the history of previous parties or the past conduct of men. I am not aware that the fact how any man voted seven years ago, or how any man felt ten years ago, or how he feels now, will tend to elucidate the question under consideration.

"The question is simply this: Is this a bill which we ought to pass; is it a bill which we have the right to pass, according to the Constitution? I say it is not.

"While I believe that the interference by the present Executive was of a character that cannot on principle be successfully defended, because it infringed to some extent the right of the States to control their own domestic affairs, yet these people had accepted this plan of restoration proposed by President Johnson, and had acted upon it. The Republican Congress and Mr. Lincoln himself were committed to the proposition, and the people of the South were content with it. The President knew the exigency in which he was placed, and that the only chance he had was some plan which should be approved by the Republican party, and, as they were committed to Mr. Lincoln's plan, he, doubtless, thought it the best means of speedy and harmonious settlement. The people of the South acted under it, whether they liked it or not. They organized State conventions, elected Legislatures, adopted the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution, and sent members to these Halls asking for admission. What did Congress do then? Did it tell them they had no civil governments? Not at all. It sanctioned the proclamation by the Secretary of State of the adoption of the thirteenth amendment by the Legislatures of the Southern States; it passed the Freedmen's Bureau Bill and the Civil Rights Bill without saying a word against their State governments. But what further did it do? Taking advantage of the action of those State governments, recognizing them as valid for the purpose of acting upon that constitutional amendment and of passing laws, it proposed for submission to the Legislatures of those States a further constitutional amendment, thus recognizing their State governments as valid all the time. And, when Tennessee adopted the fourteenth amendment, the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) became the champion of the measure to admit that State to representation in Congress, a resolution for their admission was passed, as shown above, and her Senators and Representatives took their seats

in these Halls. If she had not a legal State government, how could she ratify that amendment?

"But that is not all. It is charged here that the people have repudiated this action of the President. Now, the gentlemen never dared to let their constituents know, till after the late elections in the northern States, that they intended to take any such ground as they have now taken. Why did not they pass the military bill at the first session of the Thirty-ninth Congress? They knew that these States had not civil governments just as well then as they know it now. The elections were coming on, and had to be bridged over, and therefore all this action was postponed until the last session of the Thirty-ninth Congress, when all the members, except from a few Democratic States, had been elected to the Fortieth Congress, and they had a two years' lease of power. That, in my humble judgment, was the reason that influenced many gentlemen, and perhaps a majority, to hold it back until after that time. I ask, then, in view of all these things, whether the majority of the Reconstruction Committee are right in claiming that there are no civil governments in these States, and therefore that they have a right to take them and hold them as conquered provinces, to remove the protection of the President and the protection of the Supreme Court from them, put the negro above the white man, and place an officer of the Army over all, whose will shall be law and who shall have the lives, liberties, and property of the people at his absolute disposal?

"Sir, I can understand how the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Stevens) and those who agree with him that the Constitution is thrown aside, and that we are acting outside of it, can take this ground; but I cannot understand how a gentleman like the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham), who claims to be acting under and in accordance with the Constitution, can do it. If there are no regularly organized governments in these States, does not the Constitution of the United States extend over these people? Does not that Constitution extend as far as the power of the United States extends, and protect every human being within their limits, no matter where situated? Beyond all question it does.

The Constitution of the United States is a law for rulers and people equally in war and in peace, and covers with the shield of its protection all classes of men at all times and under all circumstances.

"So said the Supreme Court in the Milligan case.

"Where, then, I ask, are the powers, now sought to be assumed, granted to this Congress? The gentleman from Ohio asserts that Congress has a right to exercise every power not expressly taken away from Congress by the Constitution. Just the reverse is the fact. This Constitution was made by thirteen free, equal, and independent States. They put lim-

itations upon the Federal Government, and they expressly declared that all powers not specially granted to the Government or necessarily inferable therefrom were reserved to the States and the people thereof; and when the gentleman declares, as he did in his speech, that all power is in the Congress of the United States unless expressly prohibited, he commits a fatal error, an error which I would not have supposed a gentleman of his acumen would have fallen into."

Mr. Eldridge, of Wisconsin, followed, saying: "I insist, Mr. Speaker, that that clause of the Constitution does require by necessary import a preëxisting government to be guaranteed. I say that the United States are bound to guarantee in each of those States a republican form of government, and that the republican form of government which they are to guarantee is the government existing before or at the time when these States went into the rebellion. But even if the term guarantee imports an original independent power to make or create, if that position could by any possibility be correct, 'guarantee' does not, cannot mean to destroy or overthrow; it does not mean to subvert or tear down; it cannot mean to take away from the people republican governments and give them military governments in their stead. It cannot authorize Congress to take from them all civil governments and subject them to rule of the sword. And by what logic or reasoning it can be claimed that this bill is an execution of the power to guarantee to those States a republican form of government, by declaring that all the civil governments existing in those States shall be overthrown, destroyed, subverted, and the people put under the control of the military power of a military despot, is beyond my comprehension, beyond my ability to understand. Is it guaranteeing republican form of government to those States to prohibit the Executive and the judiciary from recognizing any of their civil rights, from protecting them in the right to their State governments, in the rights of life, liberty, and property? Is military government, is the government by the bayonet, the republican government to be guaranteed to the States?

"But, sir, when I drove the gentleman by the question which I put to him when he was making his speech from this clause of the Constitution, he attempted to take refuge under another, and that one where all men who would exercise ungranted power, who are not content with the powers granted by the Constitution, flee when driven from more solid ground; he took refuge under that clause of the Constitution which provides that the Congress shall have power 'to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers.'

"But, sir, I insist that he cannot find power for this bill under that clause of the Constitution. That provision must of necessity be con-

strued with reference to the powers actually delegated, expressly given by some express power of the Constitution, and upon that point I refer to the very authority which the gentleman himself cited in his speech. He undertook to show that, because Congress is authorized to guarantee republican forms of government, it may under this general clause do any thing original in its effect, original in its purpose, which shall in the end or may by possibility restore republican governments. In other words, the power which the gentleman claims under this provision is that he may create a republican form of government, and upon that hang his guarantee—upon that exercise the power of guaranteeing republican form of government.

"But the gentleman devoted most of his time to the first section of this bill. What is that section? It declares that 'the so-called civil governments in those States respectively shall not be recognized as valid or legal State governments either by the executive or judicial power or authority of the United States.'

"Sir, I insist that that section is in direct conflict with more than one provision of the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution provides that 'the executive power is vested in the President.' It also provides that 'the judicial power is vested in one Supreme Court' and such inferior courts as may be established. Now, what does this bill provide? It provides that these States shall not be recognized as having valid and legal State governments either by the executive or the judicial power of the Government.

"That is an injunction upon 'the exercise of the power.' It is not that the President shall not do a certain act, nor that the judges of the court shall not perform certain specified acts, but it is that 'the power' shall not be exercised. It is a prohibitory injunction against the exercise of a power granted by the Constitution. If it merely prohibited the President from doing some act not within the scope of executive power, it might not, then, prohibit the exercise of 'the executive power' conferred upon him by the Constitution. If it was to prevent the court from doing some particular act, it might not, then, restrict or prohibit the exercise of 'the judicial power.'

"But there is a power vested in the executive and the judiciary coming from the same source from which Congress derives all its power, the original source of all governmental power, the people. This bill attempts to circumscribe and limit the exercise of 'the power' itself, a power not conferred upon Congress, not subject to its control. The executive and judicial power is as much above and beyond the control of Congress as is the legislative power vested in Congress by the Constitution above the control of the executive and the judiciary. And yet this bill by its terms expressly declares that these powers of the executive and the judiciary shall not in a given case be exercised.

What is this but the exercise of these powers by the Congress? If it may say when and when not the powers shall move, if its discretion and not theirs is to determine when they shall be put in force, they are both overthrown and destroyed."

Mr. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, followed, saying: "I desire to call the attention of the House to the provision of the Constitution which provides that the Government of the United States shall guarantee to each State a government republican in form, and also to the nature of the guarantee which the Government of the United States are bound to furnish. The word 'guarantee' in the Constitution has a larger meaning than is given to it when used in reference to the individual relations of men. The Constitution guarantees to each State a government republican in form. Suppose in a given State we find on observation that there is no government, what, then, is the force and effect of our guarantee? To create for them a government republican in form? No, sir; because on our theory a republican form of government cannot be constructed in that way. The effect of our guarantee is this: we provide the ways and means and furnish incidental security by which the people themselves set up a republican form of government, and which, when set up, we inspect; and, if, in the judgment of the Congress of the United States, it is republican in form, we then guarantee that government to the State. In the next place, if we find a government not republican in form, then the United States are bound in some way to remove it and to give the people an opportunity to establish a republican form of government. We must perform this service, or otherwise the provision of the Constitution is utterly ineffectual. If in a State you find there is no government, is not your obligation under the Constitution binding upon you to guarantee to them a government republican in form? And is not the guarantee entirely inoperative unless you furnish ways and means and security through which they may form a government? If in another State you find a government manifestly not republican in form, a monarchy, an aristocracy, a military government, are you obliged to be silent, to be inactive, to allow that government to continue, as inevitably you must if the doctrine maintained on the other side of the House be true, that it is only when there is a republican government that this provision of the Constitution becomes operative? You must remove these governments and give the people an opportunity to set up a republican government. And this was the doctrine of the Supreme Court in the case of *Luther vs. Borden*, to which reference has so often been made. The court say:

Unquestionably a military government, established as the permanent government of a State, would not be a republican government, and it would be the duty of Congress to overthrow it.

And again, in the same case, the court say:

Under this article of the Constitution it rests with Congress to decide what government is the established one in a State: for, as the United States guarantee to each State a republican form of government, Congress must necessarily decide what government is established in a State before it can determine whether it is republican or not. * * * * *

And its decision is binding on every other Department of the Government, and could not be questioned in a judicial tribunal."—*Luther vs. Borden*, 7 Howard, p. 142.

"Can any thing be clearer than that the whole subject of observation, of inquiry, of judgment, is open to the United States, which means, for purposes of political action, Congress and the President coöperating; and upon such inspection, observation, and judgment to decide, first, whether there is any government. If they find that there is a government, then next to inquire whether it is republican or not, and if Congress finds either that there is no government or that the government is not republican, it is a duty to provide ways and means for the establishment of a republican government. Otherwise, in the only cases where the provision would be of any service, it would be utterly ineffectual and worthless to the country."

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, said: "I have no difficulty with the great question which has been argued here as to the constitutionality of our acts in this regard. There are at least three several provisions of the Constitution of the United States under which all we have done may be well maintained.

"But if I had ever had any such difficulty, the time for stating it has long since passed. I understand that the constitutional objection urged upon the other side is that this bill tends to take away from the President of the United States his power as Commander-in-Chief of the Army of the United States. I find by reference to the law that when the grade of General was revived he was authorized to command only during the pleasure of the President of the United States. I have before me the law establishing the grade of General. It provides for the appointment of 'a person of courage, skill, and ability, who, being commissioned as General, may be authorized, under the direction and during the pleasure of the President, to command the armies of the United States.' This is the only authority for having any General at all.

"But in March, 1867, tacked on to the appropriation bill there is a provision—

That the headquarters of the General of the Army shall be at the city of Washington; and all orders and instructions relating to military operations issued by the President and Secretary of War shall be issued through the General of the Army, and, in case of his disability, through the next in rank. The General of the Army shall not be removed, suspended, or relieved from command, or assigned to duty elsewhere than at his headquarters, unless at his own request, without the previous approval of the Senate; and any orders or instructions relating to military operations issued contrary to the requirements of this section shall be null and void.

"And I find this legislation printed as having been approved by the President of the United States; therefore, if I had any doubts before, they would be resolved now. Certainly no man has hitherto attempted to interfere with the action of this provision of law.

"While I say it is quite competent for Congress to put all this matter of reconstruction in the hands of the General of the Army, and I trust it will be so put, at least so much of supervision over it as will require unity of action by the commanders of the several districts, still, in my judgment, the details of the bill require some revision, in order that a system and officers of civil governments in the rebellious States may be set up and appointed at once, which shall afford to loyal men and the friends of the Government security for life, liberty of action, and exemption from outrage, until these States shall be again represented in the Congress of the United States."

The following amendments, reported by the committee, were agreed to:

Amend section two by inserting before the words "to remove" the words "is authorized," and inserting after the words "to remove" the words "at his discretion;" so that portion of the section will read:

The General of the Army of the United States is hereby authorized and required to enjoin, by special orders, upon all officers in command within the several military departments, within said several States, the performance of all acts authorized by said several laws above recited, and is authorized to remove, at his discretion, by his order, from command, any or all of said commanders and detail other officers of the United States Army, etc.

Also to insert after the words "of the acts aforesaid" in section five the words "or any refusal or wilful neglect of any person to issue any order or do any act required by this act, or either of the acts to which this act is additional and supplementary, with intent to defeat or delay the due execution of this act, or either of the acts to which this is supplementary;" so that the section will read:

SEC. 5. And be it further enacted, That any interference by any person, with intent to prevent by force the execution of the orders of the General of the Army made in pursuance of this act and of the acts aforesaid, or any refusal or wilful neglect of any person to issue any order or do any act required by this act, or either of the acts to which this act is additional and supplementary, with intent to defeat or delay the due execution of this act or either of the acts to which this is supplementary, shall be held to be a high misdemeanor, and the party guilty thereof shall, upon conviction, be fined not exceeding \$5,000, and imprisoned not exceeding two years.

Mr. Butler said: "I move to amend the first section of the bill by striking out all after the enacting clause, and inserting in lieu thereof as follows:

That in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Florida, and Arkansas there are no civil State governments republican in form, and that the so-called civil governments in said States, respectively, shall not be recognized as valid or legal State governments either by the executive or judicial power or authority of the United States. In order to supply the place of such governments so declared illegal, the several constitutional conventions of each of said States, as soon as such conventions, respectively, shall have submitted to the people a constitution or

frame of government for their ratification, shall have power and authority to appoint all civil officers heretofore provided by the laws of said States; such officers to have all the powers and shall perform all the duties appertaining by law to such officers respectively. It shall be the duty of the several district commanders to confirm the appointment of such officers by the convention; to install each officer in his office; to cause to be put into the possession and control of each officer the records and archives and other property of the State pertaining to his office, and to do all other acts which may be necessary to enable such State officers, respectively, to perform the functions of their offices. Each of said officers may be removed for cause, to be stated in the order of removal, by said district commanders respectively; and in case of vacancy by death or otherwise, the same may be filled by the appointment of the district commanders respectively. Such State governments so organized shall continue in force and authority until each State, respectively, shall be represented in the Congress of the United States and other State officers shall have been elected and qualified under the constitution thereof.

Mr. Butler said: "Mr. Speaker, I do not propose to trouble the patience of the House further than to state that the only difference between this amendment and the proposition contained in the bill reported by the committee is that the amendment proposes the appointment of the State officers by the several constitutional conventions, after they shall have submitted the respective constitutions to the people, instead of permitting those officers to be appointed by the district commanders. I have offered the amendment in response to a universal demand to this effect coming from every Southern State."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "Mr. Speaker, I have no desire to debate this question; but, in view of my position as chairman of the committee, and of the fact that I have not joined in the report, it may be proper that I should give my reasons for dissenting from the conclusions of my colleagues.

"In the first place, I do not perceive that the present bill will add any efficiency to our present legislation. As chairman of the committee, I have, very naturally, been addressed upon subjects of this kind by the several conventions, they not knowing the slight part I take in these matters now. From all the conventions now in session, I believe, with the exception of three, or at most four, there have come to me requests to introduce and advocate a measure similar to the proposition which has been offered by the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler). I will state the reasons on which these applications have been based.

"It is thought that, after the military power has so far protected those populations as to enable the conventions to go on quietly in framing constitutions and submitting them to the people, the designation of the officers to carry those constitutions into effect will be much better made by the civil than by the military power. There is naturally some objection down there, as there is everywhere, to the unnecessary prolongation of military rule in this country.

"In addition to this, the men composing the conventions are, as a matter of course, much better acquainted with the proper agents to carry their work into effect than the military authorities can possibly be. It is believed, also, that there will be a much better chance for the success of these constitutions before the people if the conventions have the appointment of the agents than if the appointments be made by the district commanders. I need not say that the former system is also more consonant with our form of Government.

"I believe the loyal people there are nearly unanimous on this subject. Having received the draft of a bill very similar in substance to the amendment of the gentleman from Massachusetts, I have come to the conclusion that the system of appointment thus proposed is vastly more proper and more likely to be effectual in getting these States speedily back again than the system contemplated by the bill now before us. For these reasons I advocate the proposition. I have no desire, of course, to make any factious opposition upon a question of this kind. I support the amendment of the gentleman from Massachusetts because it is in accordance with what I know to be the wishes of the great majority of those who are to be affected by it."

The amendment of Mr. Butler was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Banks, Broomall, Butler, Cake, Cary, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Ela, Ferry, Fields, Gravely, Harding, Higby, Hunter, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Kitchen, William Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Maynard, McClurg, Mercur, Mullins, Newcomb, Nunn, Perham, Raum, Schenck, Shanks, Thaddeus Stevens, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, William Williams, Stephen F. Wilson, and Windom—53.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Barnes, Barnum, Beaman, Beck, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Boyer, Bromwell, Brooks, Buckland, Burr, Chanler, Cook, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Eggleston, Eldridge, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Fox, Garfield, Getz, Grossbrenner, Golladay, Griswold, Grover, Haight, Halsey, Holman, Hooper, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Ingersoll, Jenekes, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Koontz, Lincoln, Marshall, Marvin, McCarthy, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrissey, Mungen, Myers, Niblack, Nicholson, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Peters, Phelps, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsey, Pomeroy, Price, Pruyn, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Scofield, Sitgreaves, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Stewart, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Burt Van Horn, Van Trump, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Wood, Woodbridge, and Woodward—112.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Cornell, Covode, Finney, Hawkins, Hill, Ladin, George V. Lawrence, Loan, Lynch, Mallory, McCormick, McCullough, Morgan, Morrell, Randall, Robinson, Selye, Shellabarger, Stokes, Taffe, and William B. Washburn—23.

So the amendment was rejected.

The bill was then passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Birmingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Gravelly, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Logan, Loughbridge, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercier, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Pomeroy, Price, Raum, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Selye, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Taylor, Thomas, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and Woodbridge.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, McCormick, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stewart, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auker, Van Trump, Wood, and Woodward—45.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Butler, Cornell, Covode, Finney, Hawkins, Hill, Laffin, George V. Lawrence, Loan, Lynch, Mallory, McCullough, Morgan, Morrell, Randall, Shellabarger, Stokes, Taffe, John Trimble, and Elihu B. Washburne—20.

The bill was not taken up in the Senate.

In the House, on March 26th, Mr. Farnsworth, of Illinois, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported the following bill for the admission of Alabama to representation in Congress:

Whereas, the people of Alabama, in pursuance of the provisions of an act of Congress entitled "An act for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, have framed a constitution of State government which is republican in form; and whereas, at an election commencing on the 4th day of February, A. D. 1868, a large majority of the legal voters of said State, voting at said election, voted for the adoption of said constitution: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the said State of Alabama shall be entitled to representation in Congress as soon as the Legislature of said state, the members of which were elected at the election mentioned in the preamble of this act, shall have duly ratified the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and known as article fourteen.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That it shall be the duty of the commanding general of the military district in which Alabama is included to notify the members of the Legislature of said State, chosen at the election held in February, 1868, to assemble at the capital of said State within thirty days after the passage of this act.

SEC. 3. And be it further enacted, That said State of Alabama shall be entitled to representation in Congress and reorganized as a State of the Union upon

the following fundamental conditions: that the constitution of Alabama shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or any class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote, who are entitled to vote by the constitution herein recognized, nor so amended or changed as to allow any person to vote who is excluded from office by the third section of the fourteenth article of the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, until the disabilities imposed by said section shall have been removed in the manner therein provided; and Congress shall have power to annul any amendment to the constitution of Alabama or any act of the Legislature of said State contrary to the provisions of this section.

Mr. Spalding, of Ohio, offered the following, as an amendment to the bill:

That the constitution framed by the convention of Alabama, which was submitted for ratification by the people at an election commencing on the 4th day of February, 1868, is hereby declared to be the fundamental and organic law for a provisional government for the people of Alabama, so far as the same is not in conflict with the Constitution and laws of the United States. And the officers elected at said election shall, on the 1st day of May, 1868, qualify as provided in said constitution and the ordinances of said convention, and immediately thereafter enter upon the discharge of the duties of their respective offices.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That the Governor, at any time after he shall have qualified and entered upon the discharge of the duties of his office, may, by proclamation, convene the Legislature chosen at said election. The Legislature, when so convened, shall possess all the power conferred by said constitution which may not be in conflict with the Constitution and laws of the United States. And the Legislature is hereby further empowered to submit said constitution to the qualified electors of Alabama for ratification at such time or times as it may designate. And said Legislature is also empowered, by a majority vote of each House, to submit the said constitution, as framed by the convention, with or without amendments proposed by the Legislature. And if amendments be proposed by the Legislature, they shall be voted upon separately, and not in connection with the constitution as it came from the convention.

SEC. 3. And be it further enacted, That whenever the people by a majority vote of the qualified electors of Alabama, qualified under the act of Congress of March 23, 1867, to vote for delegates to frame a constitution, and actually voting upon such ratification, shall have ratified a constitution submitted as aforesaid, and the Legislature of the proposed State organization shall have adopted the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and known as article fourteen, the constitution of Alabama may be presented to Congress for its approval.

SEC. 4. And be it further enacted, That the district commanders shall furnish all necessary aid in enforcing this act, and the act of March, 2, 1867, entitled "An act to provide for a more efficient government for the rebel States," and the acts supplemental to and amendatory thereof shall remain in full force in Alabama, except as modified by this act, until Alabama shall be restored to representation in Congress.

The substitute was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Ames, Anderson, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beatty, Benjamin, Bromwell, Broomall, Churchill, Sidney Clarke, Coburn, Cook, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Eliot, Ferriss, Ferry, Halsey, Hawkins, Hill, Hopkins, Hunter, Ingersoll, Judd, Julian, Kelsey, Ketcham, Koontz, Laffin, William Lawrence, Loan, Loughbridge, May-

nard, McClurg, Mercur, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Poland, Polsley, Pomeroy, Price, Raum, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Thaddeus Stevens, Taffe, Twichell, Upson, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, and Woodbridge—77.

YAYS—Messrs. Adams, Arnell, Bailey, Beaman, Beck, Bingham, Blaine, Boutwell, Brooks, Buckland, Burr, Cary, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Fields, Fox, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Gravely, Haight, Holman, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, Lincoln, Mallory, Marshall, Miller, Mungen, Newcomb, Niblack, Nicholson, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Plants, Prun, Ross, Sitgreaves, Taber, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Van Wyck, Windom, and Woodward—54.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Benton, Blair, Boyer, Butler, Cake, Chanler, Reader W. Clarke, Cobb, Cornell, Donnelly, Ela, Finney, Garfield, Getz, Griswold, Grover, Harding, Higby, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Jenckes, Kelley, Kitchen, George V. Lawrence, Logan, Lynch, Marvin, McCarthy, McCormick, McCullough, Morgan, Morrissey, Phelps, Pike, Randall, Robertson, Robinson, Schenck, Selye, Shellabarger, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Stone, Trowbridge, Van Aernam, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William Williams, and Wood—58.

The bill was then passed—yeas 102, nays 30. It was not taken up in the Senate.

In the House, on May 7th, Mr. Stevens, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported a bill for the admission of the State of Arkansas to representation in Congress. The preamble stated that the people of Arkansas, in pursuance of the provisions of an act entitled "An act for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, had framed and adopted a constitution of State government which was republican in form, and the Legislature of said State had duly ratified the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and known as article fourteen.

The bill then declared that the State of Arkansas was entitled and admitted to representation in Congress, as one of the States of the Union, upon the following fundamental condition: that the constitution of Arkansas shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at the common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted.

The bill was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Covode, Cullom, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Garfield, Gravely, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hunter, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelsey,

Lafin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loughridge, Lynch, Marvin, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pike, Plants, Poland, Price, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Smith, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, Welker, William Williams, James F. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and the Speaker—110.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Baker, Beck, Cary, Eldridge, Golladay, Grover, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Kerr, Knott, Loan, Marshall, McCormick, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Phelps, Prun, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Spalding, Stone, Taber, Van Auken, Van Trump, Thomas Williams, and Woodward—32.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Archer, Delos R. Ashley, Axtell, Barnes, Barnum, Bingham, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Chanler, Cornell, Dawes, Dixon, Fields, Finney, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Haight, Hawkins, Asahel W. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Johnson, Jones, Kelley, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Logan, Mallory, Maynard, McCullough, Morrissey, Mullins, Nicholson, Polsley, Pomeroy, Raum, Selye, Shellabarger, Starkweather, John Trimble, Lawrence S. Trimble, Robert T. Van Horn, William B. Washburn, John T. Wilson, and Wood—47.

In the Senate, on June 1st, Mr. Drake, of Missouri, urged the following as an amendment to the bill, by striking out and inserting it after the fifth line:

That there shall never be in said State any denial or abridgment of the elective franchise, or of any other right, to any person by reason or on account of race or color, excepting Indians not taxed; and that any such denial or abridgment shall authorize the exclusion, while it continues, of said State from representation in either House of Congress.

Mr. Drake said: "Will it be denied that in Congress alone is the right to admit States into the Union? Of course it will not. Will it be denied that Congress is vested with a complete, unquestioned, and unquestionable discretion as to the admission of States? If denied, I ask where is the provision of the Constitution which fetters or limits that discretion? That instrument says nothing on this subject but that 'new States may be admitted by the Congress into the Union.' Who has the right to convert that 'may' into shall, and compel Congress against its will to admit any State? No one here will contend that any such compulsory power exists anywhere, or that any State can come into the Union without the consent of Congress.

"If, then, Congress has the sole, exclusive, and discretionary power over this whole subject, it may prescribe the terms upon which any State may be admitted into the Union; for the Constitution prescribes none; and when that instrument authorizes Congress to act on any subject, without saying when, how, why, or on what terms it shall act, the time, mode, considerations, and terms of its action are as absolutely in the discretion of Congress as if the Constitution so declared in express words. If this be not so, a State might come into the Union when and how it pleased without any

authority or any terms. Once establish such a doctrine, and the control of the nation over this subject vanishes.

"But it may be assumed that the constitutional provision just quoted applies to new States only, and, therefore, not to the case in hand. Let us briefly examine this.

"What is it to admit a State into the Union? In this debate, so far, this has not been considered; but it is, in my judgment, in an important degree worthy of attention. It is not to admit the people of a State into the nation, for they are already a part of the nation. When, therefore, a State is admitted into the Union, it is not into the Union of the people as a nation, but into the Union formed under the Constitution for purposes of government. It is admitted to participate as a body-politic in the Government formed by that Constitution, in which the people composing the State had no previous participation, or whose participation had been broken off. This, I take it, is the meaning of the admission of a State into the Union, except as in the case of Texas, where a foreign people are, by the act of admission into the governmental Union, also admitted into the Union of the people as a nation, which latter Union, let it be remembered, antedates the former, for it has existed since the assembling of the Continental Congress in September, 1774, outside and independent of, as well as anterior to, any Constitution or written form of government whatever.

"If these views be correct, it follows that the word 'new' in this clause of the Constitution does not confine the action of Congress in the premises to the original admission of States into the Union. That word, if it have any special significance there—which I think it has not—applies to all States which are outside of the governmental Union, and dependent on the action of Congress for their admission into that Union. If not, had the rebel States succeeded in establishing themselves as an independent and separate nation, they might have remained such for a hundred years, and then come back, in defiance of Congress, into the governmental Union upon their own terms, or without any terms.

"If, then, it be true that the admission of a State into the Union is merely its admission to a participation in the government of the Union, it disposes of a common error which probably is entertained by many, to wit: that no portion of the people can become a State until they are admitted as a State into the Union. The history of the Government, in my opinion, disproves this. The State of Vermont was the first admitted into the Union after the adoption of the Constitution. She came in in 1791, without any previous authority from Congress for her organization as a State, and the act for her admission had this preamble:

The State of Vermont having petitioned the Congress to be admitted as a member of the United States.

"Here was an express recognition of the pre-existence of that State outside of the governmental Union, while her people were a part of the nation, and as such subject to the authority and power of that Union. Since that time no less than ten States have been admitted, which were formed without the previous authority of Congress, and yet were recognized as existing States by the acts passed for their admission. They were, with the years of their admission, Maine, 1820; Arkansas and Michigan, 1836; Florida and Iowa, 1845; California, 1850; Oregon, 1859; Kansas, 1861; West Virginia, 1862; and Nebraska, 1867. If these facts show any thing, they show that it has not, in all the history of the Government, been held that a State is dependent upon its admission into the Union for its existence as a State. It cannot be admitted into the governmental Union unless it be organized as a State; but it may be so organized and exist without being so admitted. Hence result two important deductions. The first is, that as long as a State is outside of participation in the Government of the Union, from whatever cause, it has, when it seeks admission to that participation, the status and character of a new State. That is, it is just as much out, just as much to be admitted, just as much dependent on the will of Congress for its admission, when it has, by its own act of rebellion, severed its practical relations with the governmental Union, as when it first seeks admission into it as a new-born State, and therefore falls within the scope of the power of Congress to admit 'new States into this Union.' My second deduction is, that being a State *de facto*, though not yet in the governmental Union, or with its practical relations thereto severed by its own act, it is capable of acting as a State, and binding itself as such, especially in all matters pertaining to its admission or readmission into the Union. If this be not so, how could conditions be proposed to it by Congress, to be assented to before its admission, as has been heretofore done? To ask the question is to answer it. If a State at all, it may contract as a State; if not a State, with power to contract, to propose conditions for its acceptance would be absurd.

"Sir, I see all this clearly, whether I have succeeded or not in showing it to others. I see that the insurgent States, by their rebellion, severed their practical relations to the governmental Union, but did not sever themselves from the union of the people as a nation. They were out of the Union, and at the same time not out of it; an apparent paradox when you lose sight of the fact that the word Union in the clause of the Constitution now before us means the governmental Union formed by the Constitution, and not the popular Union formed nearly fourteen years before the Constitution took effect, and which the Constitution was avowedly intended to make 'more perfect.' Those practical relations, for all purposes of government under the Consti-

tution, were dissolved by war for four years, and have never yet been restored. Why? Because the terms of restoration prescribed by Congress have never yet been fulfilled. Had not Congress the right to prescribe those terms? Had it not a right to say when and on what conditions those rebel States might again take part in the Government they had renounced, warred against, and attempted to overthrow? If not, then are we conquered by the conquered, and our fathers formed a Government which has no power to keep itself out of the hands of its enemies and destroyers? If this be true, then should our cry be, not '*Væ victis!*' but '*Væ victori!*' Woe to the conqueror! woe to the conqueror! But, sir, I leave the letter of the Constitution, and invoke the decision of this question on higher grounds.

"No nation can live and not have the absolute and unassailable right, through its very existence, as a nation, to say who may and who may not share in its government. To say that rebels, because they constitute States, cannot be for their rebellion debarred from a share in that Government, is to set a part above the whole, to break down constitutions and laws, and to snap every ligament which can bind a people in unity of popular or governmental organization. And as the greater includes the less, if you can debar them you can readmit them on terms, such terms as you please, and the Constitution affords them no remedy. When, therefore, as in this amendment, you say to Arkansas that she may come back upon the condition therein expressed, you exercise a clear and undoubted right, for which you find a warrant not only in the Constitution, but in that primal law of self-preservation, which belongs to nations as well as individuals, and is high above all constitutions.

"But Senators assert that to impose this condition on Arkansas is to deprive her of equality among the States. Sir, what means this much-talked-of equality of States? Does it depend on their internal organization? If one State lets negroes vote, and another does not, is there therefore inequality between them? If one lets women or foreigners, or Indians or Chinamen vote, and others do not, is there for that reason inequality between them? If one requires a property qualification in voters, and another does not, are they therefore unequal? I look in vain for any such inequality. But suppose it to exist, where is there any thing in the Constitution which forbids it? There is not a word there about the equality of the States, except in the single point of representation in this Senate. In every other respect, even in representation in the other branch of Congress, the States were unequal at the adoption of the Constitution, and have been so ever since, and will continue to be so always.

"There is a gross mistake or perversion in all this talk about the equality of the States, which proceeds, doubtless, from the language of the acts admitting new States, declaring that a

State is admitted into the Union 'on an equal footing with the original States.' Does that import that the new State is equal to any other State? By no means; but that it is admitted to take part in the Government of the Union on an equal footing with the others; possessing its relative share of power, subject to its relative quantum of burdens, and enjoying alike with the others the rights, immunities, and privileges secured by the Constitution to the States respectively, as participants in that Government. It therefore follows that when a State is admitted with her two Senators, she is the exact coequal of every other State in this body; and if she have the number of Representatives which her population entitles her to, she is relatively, as nearly as practicable, the coequal of every other State in the House of Representatives; and, therefore, for all purposes of participation in the governmental Union, is on an equal footing with the original States; and this is the whole scope of the vaunted equality of States. Internally they may be, as we all know they are, totally unequal in every material, moral, and political respect, but in their relations to the Government of the Union they are as nearly on an equal footing as they can well be put.

"Sir, in requiring Arkansas never to deny or abridge the elective franchise to any person on account of his color, do we deprive her of that equal footing? Do we thereby take away her equal participation in the Government of the Union? Not in the least degree. If not, we violate no part of the Constitution in exacting from her this guarantee of the rights of citizens of the United States, whose rights we are bound by honor and justice to protect and defend."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, followed, saying: "Mr. President, the question which is before the Senate on the bill which is now upon the table is a very interesting one; and although the honorable member from Missouri (Mr. Drake) and those who concur with him think that Congress has the power to impose such conditions as are suggested, I think it very clear that the power does not exist. The condition in the bill as reported by the Judiciary Committee is, that the right of suffrage as it now exists, or will exist under the constitution of the State if the State should be admitted, shall not at any time be changed so as to take from the parties who are entitled to vote under the present constitution that right hereafter. I suppose, if any thing be true, whether we consult the debates in the convention by which the Constitution was framed, or consult the debates in the several conventions by which the Constitution was ratified, or consult the words of the Constitution itself and the interpretation put upon it in the particular in question, nothing is more clear than that the States were left to control the franchise among themselves just as they had the authority to control it before the Constitution was adopted.

"The honorable member from Missouri asked, and I think it was asked again by some one of the other Senators upon the floor, whether there was any thing in the Constitution of the United States which declares that the States shall be equal. The inference involved in the question is true, if it is intended merely to inquire whether there are any express terms to be found in the Constitution declaring the equality of the States; but, although there are no such express terms, it seems to me to be clear, beyond all reasonable doubt, and that the Government could not exist if it was otherwise, that there is absolute equality among the States, as far as a question of this description is concerned. That state of equality is to be gathered from almost every source. First, the Convention itself was called by the people of the States, acting in their separate capacity of people of the several States. The States were represented in the Convention as equals, each having the same voice. The Constitution adopted by the Convention was submitted to the States afterward as equals; and if we look into the Constitution itself we find that all the provisions, which relate to the States as such, show that in the intendment of the Convention they were considered as equal.

"Their representation in the House of Representatives is founded upon the idea of equality; their representation in this Chamber is founded upon that idea; and the Constitution provides that that equality shall not at any time, even by an amendment of the Constitution, be changed. If we look at the nature of a State government, the object of retaining the State government, so to speak, or rather the purpose of creating a general government endowed with only certain specified powers, and the tenth amendment of the Constitution which says in so many words that all the powers not delegated to the General Government are to be considered as expressly reserved to the States, or the people of the States respectively, we are led, as I think, only to one conclusion, and that is, that in the judgment of the framers of the Government of the United States, and of the people by whom it was adopted, the States were esteemed to be equal in all the powers which they had not agreed to transfer to the General Government. That being so, the moment we ascertain in any particular instance whether the power in question has or has not been delegated to the General Government, and the result of the examination is that there has been no such delegation, then the power is in the States, not only from the nature of the General Government, but by force of the tenth amendment of the Constitution which reserves to the States that power.

"If, then, the General Government has not the power to interfere with the franchise so as to take from the States the absolute and uncontrollable power to regulate it directly, it would seem to follow that they cannot do it indirectly. I do not know whether the Judiciary Commit-

tee has made a report upon the several bills or resolutions which from time to time have been referred to that committee, providing for the regulation of suffrage throughout the States by act of Congress; but I suppose that that proposition, if it shall be brought before the Senate by the committee, will never receive the sanction of this body. I think all the indications of the opinions of the members of the body show that they do not believe the General Government has that authority.

"Assuming, then, that it has not the authority to interfere with the States which are now in the Union beyond all dispute, the question immediately before us is (to take the case of Arkansas as the immediate one now pending), assuming that Arkansas is not now a State but is to become a State by our legislation, can we impose it upon her as a condition that she shall surrender the right to regulate her franchise so that at no time hereafter can she interfere with it in contravention of the condition upon which alone we agree to admit her? If we have that power, there is some way, of course, of making its exertion effectual. That must be true. It can never be true that the General Government has a power which it cannot exert practically. A former President of the United States told us that he was of that opinion; that although he believed the States had no authority to secede from the Union, and that it was the duty of the General Government to prevent it, yet that it had no power to enable it to execute that duty. That is not my view. I think that all the powers that are vested in the General Government it has the means by legislation to execute, where they fail to execute themselves by their very nature.

"If it is so, Mr. President, that the power exists in relation to a State which is not now in the Union, but is to be brought into the Union, and we impose it, then what becomes of the equality of the States? Arkansas, that being done, cannot change her franchise as regulated by the Constitution, and made by us a condition of the admission of the State. New York can; and so can every other State now in the Union, not only without the consent of Congress, but against its legislation. In other words, as far as New York is concerned, she is now just as absolutely the mistress of the power to regulate the franchise as she was before the Constitution of the United States was adopted. So is Maryland; so are all the other States; but Arkansas comes in with that power denied her; and that is inequality. If we have the right to exclude her except upon the condition that she will abandon forever the possession of that power which belongs to all the other States, why have we not the right to exclude her if she will not abandon all the other powers that belong to the other States? Why not regulate the number of which her Legislature is to be composed? Why not provide that there shall be only one branch? Why not provide that her judiciary shall be for life,

or for a term of years? Why not say that they shall not be composed of lawyers or professional men? Can any reason be given?

"If the power is in Congress to impose conditions which will limit the power of a State by a condition denying to her the right to regulate the franchise, I cannot see how any such distinction can be made. As the honorable member from Indiana (Mr. Morton) suggested the other day, if the power exists, why can she not agree to abandon her right to be represented upon this floor by two Senators; agree that she shall only have one, or that she shall have none; agree that her representation in the other House shall not be regulated by the rules by which representation in the other House on the part of the remaining States is regulated by the Constitution? Why not provide that her citizens shall not be at liberty to sue in the courts of the United States, or that they shall be compelled to sue alone in the courts of the United States? In a word, upon what ground, logically, reasonably, can it be maintained that Congress has the authority to take from a State the right to regulate the franchise by way of a condition to her admission into the Union, which will not lead to the demonstration of the power in Congress to deny to her any and every other of the sovereign rights which belong to the other States of the Union?

"Now, Mr. President, if we have the power which the condition of the bill assumes that we do possess, and which the condition of my friend from Missouri also assumes us to possess, it is because the subject of the power is with us, and that subject is the franchise. If that is a subject within our control, we may control it just as we may think proper from time to time. If we have the right to impose this condition, we have the right to impose any other condition which may affect that power. We may impose it, therefore, as a condition of the admission that the State will allow women to vote; that she will permit minors to vote; that she will permit aliens to vote. If we have the power to say that she must permit through all time a black man to vote, we have the right to say that she must, at all times, permit everybody else to vote who happens to be within the State at the time of her election. Will anybody pretend that our powers are as extensive as these suppositions imagine? I think not.

"The error of the argument upon the other side, if it be erroneous, as I think it manifestly is, is in supposing that States of this Union can exist if deprived by the legislation of Congress of any right growing out of any power not included within those delegated to the General Government. In the case of Pollard's Lessee *vs.* Hagan, in 3 Howard, it was held that whether the navigable waters of Alabama were made free to navigation by the terms of the deed of cession, whether that deed was by Georgia or Virginia, or by any treaty of cession, was immaterial; the waters still (notwithstanding the State was admitted upon the condition that

they were to be navigable) were as much under the control of the State as are the waters within the limits of the older States; and whatever power, therefore, is in its nature, with reference to the waters, municipal, is in the States, not in the Government of the United States."

Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, offered the following amendment to the amendment of Mr. Drake, to be inserted after the word "that."

Said State, in fixing the qualifications of electors therein, shall not be authorized to discriminate against any person on account of race, color, or previous condition; and, also, on the further condition that no person on account of race or color shall be excluded from the benefits of education, or be deprived of an equal share of the moneys or other funds created or used by public authority to promote education in said State.

It was rejected.

YEAS—Messrs. Buckalew, Doolittle, Henderson, Hendricks, and Ross—5.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Drake, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Howe, Johnson, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Stewart, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Wade, Willey, Williams, and Yates—30.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Conness, Cragin, Davis, Dixon, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Howard, Morgan, Morton, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Saulsbury, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, and Wilson—19.

The amendment was then agreed to, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Cragin, Drake, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Henderson, Howe, Johnson, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Ramsey, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Wade, Wilson, and Yates—26.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Corbett, Doolittle, Ferry, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Van Winkle, Vickers, Willey, and Williams—14.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Edmunds, Grimes, Howard, Morgan, Morton, Norton, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, Sherman, and Sprague—14.

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, then moved to strike out all the preamble and all after the enacting clause of the bill, and insert the following:

That the State of Arkansas is hereby declared restored to her former proper practical relations to the Union, and is again entitled to be represented by Senators and Representatives in Congress.

This was rejected, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Corbett, Doolittle, Ferry, Fowler, Hendricks, Johnson, McCreery, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Van Winkle, Vickers, and Willey—15.

NAYS—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Cragin, Drake, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Henderson, Howe, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Wade, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—26.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Edmunds, Grimes, Harlan, Howard, Morgan, Morton, Norton, Saulsbury, and Sprague—13.

Mr. Ferry, of Connecticut, when the bill was reported to the Senate, offered the fol-

lowing amendment—to strike out all after the enacting clause, and insert the following:

That the State of Arkansas is entitled and admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union.

It was rejected, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Conkling, Corbett, Doolittle, Ferry, Fessenden, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Saulsbury, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Willey, and Williams—18.

NAYS—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Cragin, Drake, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Henderson, Howe, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Wade, Wilson, and Yates—22.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Edmunds, Fowler, Grimes, Howard, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Norton, and Sprague—14.

The bill was then passed, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Henderson, Howe, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—34.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Doolittle, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, and Vickers—8.

ABSENT—Messrs. Conness, Davis, Dixon, Ferry, Fowler, Grimes, Howard, Johnson, Morgan, Morton, Norton, and Sprague—12.

The bill was returned, without the President's signature, accompanied with the following message:

To the House of Representatives:

I return, without my signature a bill entitled "An Act to admit the State of Arkansas to representation in Congress."

The approval of this bill would be an admission on the part of the Executive that the act for the more efficient government of the rebel States, passed March 2, 1867, and the act supplementary thereto, were proper and constitutional. My opinion, however, in reference to these measures has undergone no change, but, on the contrary, has been strengthened by the results which have attended their execution.

Even were this not the case, I could not consent to a bill which is based upon the assumption either that by an act of rebellion of a portion of its people the State of Arkansas seceded from the Union, or that Congress may, at its pleasure, expel or exclude a State from the Union, or interrupt its relations with the Government by arbitrarily depriving it of representation in the Senate and House of Representatives. If Arkansas is a State not in the Union, this bill does not admit it as a State into the Union. If, on the other hand, Arkansas is a State in the Union, no legislation is necessary to declare it entitled "to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union." The Constitution already declares that "each State shall have at least one Representative;" "that the Senate shall be composed of two Senators from each State;" and "that no State without its consent shall be deprived of its suffrage in the Senate."

That instrument also makes each House "the judges of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members," and therefore all that is now necessary to restore Arkansas in all its constitutional relations to the Government is the decision by each

House upon the eligibility of those who, presenting their credentials, claim seats in the respective Houses of Congress. This is the plain and simple plan of the Constitution; and, believing that had it been pursued when Congress assembled in the month of December, 1865, the restoration of the States would long since have been completed, I once again recommend that it be adopted by each House in preference to legislation which I respectfully submit is not only of at least doubtful constitutionality, and therefore unwise and dangerous as a precedent, but is unnecessary, not so effective in its operations as the mode prescribed by the Constitution, involves the additional delay, and from its terms may be taken rather as applicable to a Territory about to be admitted as one of the United States than to a State which has occupied a place in the Union for upward of a quarter of a century.

The bill declares the State of Arkansas entitled and admitted to representation in Congress as one of the States of the Union upon the following fundamental condition:

That the Constitution of Arkansas shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are entitled to vote by the Constitution herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall be duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State: *Provided*, That any alteration of said Constitution, prospective in its effect, may be made in regard to the time and place of residence of voters.

I have been unable to find in the Constitution of the United States any warrant for the exercise of the authority thus claimed by Congress. In assuming the power to impose a "fundamental condition" upon a State which has been duly admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original States, in all respects whatever, Congress asserts a right to enter a State as it may a Territory, and to regulate the highest prerogative of a free people—the elective franchise. This question is reserved by the Constitution to the States themselves, and to concede to Congress the power to regulate this subject would be to reverse the fundamental principle of the Republic, and to place in the hands of the Federal Government (which is the creature of the States) the sovereignty which justly belongs to the States or the people, to the true source of all political power by whom our Federal system was created, and to whose will all is subordinate.

The bill fails to provide in what manner the State of Arkansas is to signify its acceptance of the "fundamental condition" which Congress endeavors to make unalterable and irrevocable. Nor does it prescribe the penalty to be imposed should the people of the State amend or change the particular portions of the Constitution which it is one of the purposes of the bill to perpetuate, but leaves them in uncertainty and doubt as to the consequences of such action, when the circumstances under which this Constitution has been brought to the attention of Congress are considered. It is not unreasonable to suppose that efforts will be made to modify its provisions, and especially those in respect to which this measure prohibits any alteration. It is seriously questioned whether the Constitution has been ratified by a majority of the persons who, under the act of March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, were entitled to registration and to vote upon that issue. Section ten of the schedule provides that—

No person disqualified from voting or registering under this constitution shall vote for candidates for any office, nor shall be permitted to vote for the ratification or rejection of the constitution at the polls herein authorized.

Assumed to be in force before its adoption, in disregard to the law of Congress, the constitution undertakes to impose upon the elector other and further conditions. The fifth section of the eighth article provides, that "all persons, before registering or

voting," must take and subscribe an oath which, among others, contains the following clause:

That I accept the civil and political equality of all men, and agree not to attempt to deprive any person or persons, on account of race, color, or previous condition, of any political or civil right, privilege, or immunity, enjoyed by any other class of men.

It is well known that a very large portion of the electors in all the States, if not a large majority of all of them, do not believe in or accept the political equality of Indians, Mongolians, or negroes with the race to which they belong. If the voters of any of the States of the North and West were required to take such an oath as a test of their qualification, there is reason to believe that a majority of them would remain from the polls rather than comply with its degrading conditions.

How far and to what extent this test oath prevented the registration of those who were qualified under the laws of Congress, it is not possible to know; but that such was its effect, at least sufficient to overcome them all and give a doubtful majority in favor of this constitution, there can be no reasonable doubt.

Should the people of Arkansas, therefore, desiring to regulate the elective franchise so as to make it conform to the constitutions of a large proportion of the States of the North and West, modify the provisions referred to in the "fundamental condition," what is to be the consequence? Is it intended that a denial of representation shall follow? And if so, may we not dread, at some future day, a recurrence of the troubles which have so long agitated the country? Would it not be the part of wisdom to take for our guide the Federal Constitution, rather than resort to measures which, looking only to the present, may in a few years renew, in an aggravated form, the strife and bitterness caused by legislation which has proved to be ill-timed and unfortunate?

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, June 20, 1868.

The bill subsequently became a law, by the following vote in the House:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Delos R. Ashley, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Buckland, Butler, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cornell, Covode, Cullom, Delano, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Griswold, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelsey, Ketcham, George V. Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, Mercur, Moore, Moorhead, Morrill, Mullins, Newcomb, O'Neill, Paine, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polesley, Pomeroy, Price, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Shellabarger, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Taffe, Taylor, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and the Speaker—111.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Cary, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Holman, Hotchkiss, Johnson, Jones, Kerr, Knott, McCormick, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Pruyn, Robinson, Sitgreaves, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Trump, and Woodward—31.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Arnell, James M. Ashley, Baker, Baldwin, Barnes, Barnum, Bromwell, Broomall, Burr, Chanler, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Finney, Gravely, Halsey, Hopkins, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Hunter, Kelley, Kitchen, Koontz, Ladin, William Lawrence, Marshall, McCullough, Miller, Myers, Nicholson, Nunn,

Orth, Perham, Phelps, Randall, Raum, Ross, Selye, Stone, Thomas, Van Auken, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Elihu B. Washburne, Thomas Williams, Stephen F. Wilson, and Wood—48.

In the Senate, the vote was as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Harlan, Howard, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Wilson, and Yates—30.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Davis, Doolittle, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, and Saulsbury—7.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Cameron, Cattell, Dixon, Drake, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Henderson, Howe, Johnson, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Norton, Vickers, and Williams—17.

Upon the admission of the three members from Arkansas on June 24th, the following protest was presented and entered on the journal:

The recognized presence of three persons on the floor of this House from the State of Arkansas, sent here by military force acting under a brigadier-general of the Army, but nevertheless claiming to be members of this Congress, and to share with us, the Representatives from free States, in the imposition of taxes and customs and other laws upon our people, makes it our imperative duty in this, the first case, to remonstrate most solemnly, and to protest as solemnly, against this perilous and destructive innovation upon the principles and practices of our hitherto constitutional self-government. The so-called Reconstruction Acts, which created the military government in Arkansas and like governments in other Southern States, to share with us in the legislative power of the Northern and Western free people, we have every reason to believe have been held to be unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, the public declaration of which fact was avoided only by the extraordinary and strange device of this Congress in snatching jurisdiction from the court in the McCordle case when such a public decision was about to be made.

Of the three great branches of the Government it seems, then, that after the Executive vetoed these acts as unconstitutional, the judiciary adjudicated them to be so, while a Congress, the creation of but twenty-seven of the thirty-seven States of the Union, overrides these equal and coordinate branches of that Government, first by voting down the vetoes, next by nullifying the judgments of the court! In an era of profound peace, when not an armed man rises against the Government from the Potomac to the Rio Grande, there, in ten States, our American historical way of creating the organic law has been utterly subverted by the bayonet. Ever since the Declaration of Independence, with scarcely an exception, and even amid the battles of the Revolution, conventions have been convoked through, and constitutions created by, the electors of the States, the only authorized depositaries of the sovereign power of every State without exterior dictation or domination, as well under the old confederation as under the existing Federal Constitution. The hardest and harshest test oath required from 1766 to the peace of 1783 was an abjuration oath of allegiance to George III., while some of the now so-called bayonet-made constitutions from the South propose absurd and cruel tests, absurd as in Arkansas, where is interwoven in the organic law a mere party test between the Radical reconstructionists and the Democratic conservatives, such as would exclude from voting, if living there, the thousands and tens of thousands and hundreds of thousands of Democrats in the free States (art. 8, sec. 4), or cruel, as in Alabama, where no

white man can vote who will not forever forswear his own race and color, and perjure himself by swearing, in defiance of the law of God, that the negro is his equal and forever to be his equal at the ballot-box, in the jury-box, with the cartridge-box; in the school, in the college, in house and home, and by the fire-side; in short, in every way, everywhere (art. 7, sec. 4).

Now, in these and the other Southern States, in the midst of war, President Lincoln, in his proclamation, December 8, 1863, offered amnesty and pardon to rebels then in arms, if they would lay down their arms and take an oath of fidelity, while now, not a Union man in Arkansas or Alabama can vote unless in the first place he swears allegiance to the majesty of this Congress, and in the next swears off his Americanism and Africanizes himself. Hitherto constitutions with us have been the outgrowth of popular life, springing from the exuberance of our enterprise and energy in the settlement of the forests or prairies of our country; but here, before us now, are nine constitutions, with one if not three more yet to come from Texas, which have all been imposed upon the people by five military satraps or pentarchs, in a manner never before known under our law, but borrowed at best from imperial Roman military colonization, or from the worst precedents of the French Revolution. France is then recorded to have had five constitutions in three years, so frequently made and so frequently changed that they were ironically classed by the French people with the periodical literature of the day. Louisiana, a colony of that France, has had four constitutions in four years, and a constitution there has now become periodical literature, as in France, in the agonies and throes of the great Revolution. Laws, mere statute laws, which can never be created by conventions, are appended, more or less, to all these constitutions, and bayonet-created, one-branch governments, with no Executive, no senate, no house of representatives, no judiciary, have ordained irrevocable, irreversible laws in the very organism of the State, such as cannot be thus created by the Executive, the senate, and the house of representatives of legitimate governments when acting in unison and all combined. All this has been done, without regard to preceding constitutions or precedents, or to the common law of the States or the law of nations.

The military, which, under legitimate institutions, can only be used in time of peace to conserve or preserve the State, have here been used to destroy States. The General of the Army, who represents the sword, and only the sword of the Republic, has been exalted by acts of Congress above the constitutional Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, in order to execute those military decrees, and as the surer way to root out every vestige left of constitutional law or liberty. The same General of the Army, in order to prolong or perpetuate his military domination North and West as well as South, has been selected in party convention at Chicago to head the electoral vote for the presidency in ten of our States which are as much under his feet as Turkey is under the Sultan or Poland under the Czar of Russia. But, as if only to add insult to the injury of this military outrage upon popular government in these ten States, either by act of Congress or by these Congress-soldier-made State constitutions, at least two hundred and fifty thousand whites have been disfranchised, while seven hundred and fifty thousand negroes, inexperienced in all law-making, and more ignorant than our children, have been enfranchised in their stead, and have thus been created absolute masters and sovereigns over the whole white population of the South.

Because of all this, and in opposition to all this, we, Representatives of the people from the free States, in behalf of our constituents and of thousands and tens of thousands of others who would be here represented if the popular power without could

now constitutionally act here within, earnestly and solemnly protest against this violence upon our Constitution and upon our people, and do hereby counsel and advise all friends of popular government to submit to this force and fraud only until at the ballot-box, operating through the elections, this great wrong can be put right. There is no law in the land supreme over the constitutional law. There is no government but constitutional government; and hence all bayonet-made, all Congress-imposed constitutions are of no weight, authority, or sanction, save that enforced by arms, an element of power unknown to Americans in peace, and never recognized but as it acts in and under the supreme civil law, the Constitution, and the statutes enacted in pursuance thereof. We protest, then, in behalf of the free people of the North and the West, against the right of this military oligarchy established in Arkansas, or elsewhere in the now reenslaved States of the South, to impose upon us, through Congress, taxes or customs or other laws to maintain this oligarchy or its Freedmen's Bureau. We protest against going into the now proposed copartnership of military dictators and negroes in the administration of this Government. We demand, in the name of the fathers of the Constitution and for the sake of posterity, not its reconstruction, but the restoration of that sacred instrument which has been to us all a pillar of fire from 1787 on to its present overthrow; and in all solemnity before God and man, under a full sense of the responsibility of all we utter, we do hereby affix our names to this protest against the admission of these three persons claiming to be members of Congress from Arkansas.

James Brooks, James B. Beck, P. Van Trump, Chas. A. Eldridge, Samuel J. Randall, W. Mungen, Stephen Taber, Asa P. Grover, L. S. Trimble, Geo. M. Adams, A. J. Glossbrenner, Stevenson Archer, John A. Nicholson, John Morrissey, Thos. Laurens Jones, W. E. Niblack, Julius Hotchkiss, William H. Barnum, John W. Chanler, S. B. Axtell, S. S. Marshall, W. S. Holman, Chas. Haight, Chas. Sitgreaves, J. Proctor Knott, J. S. Golladay, J. M. Humphrey, Fernando Wood, J. Lawrence Getz, F. Stone, M. C. Kerr, John Fox, Jas. A. Johnson, John V. L. Pruyn, W. E. Robinson, B. M. Boyer, Geo. W. Woodward, Chas. E. Phelps, A. G. Burn, D. M. Van Auker, J. R. McCormick, Demas Barnes, James M. Cavanaugh, Lewis W. Ross, H. McCulloch.

In the House, on May 14th, the bill to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, and Alabama to representation in Congress being under consideration, Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "What is the particular question we are considering? Five or six States have had submitted to them the question of forming constitutions for their own government. They have voluntarily formed such constitutions, under the direction of the Government of the United States. They have sent those constitutions here, backed, in every instance, even in that of Alabama, by a majority of all the voters within the State. And when I say 'all the voters' I mean all the voters, black and white, whether they come from New York or South Carolina or elsewhere. They have sent us their constitutions. Those constitutions have been printed and laid before us. We have looked at them; we have pronounced them republican in form; and all we propose to require is that they shall remain so forever. Subject to this requirement, we are willing to admit them into the Union.

"I know that, by delaying thus far the ad-

mission of these States, a great object has been gained. Some gentlemen on the other side were fearful that some of the Senators from those States would be admitted before we had ousted the first military despot of that region. There is not much danger now; and those gentlemen might afford to let these States come in. They know, I suppose, whether that gentleman is to remain longer in the White House; I do not. But, at any rate, we can admit no Senators in time to operate upon that question.

"The gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) has moved an amendment against which I most earnestly protest. He proposes, against the recommendation of the committee, to leave each of these States free, after its admission, to amend the provisions with reference to the elective franchise, as it may deem proper, with regard to its own citizens. All of those States have now adopted the principle of universal suffrage. This country has adopted that principle so far as it has spoken of late. What we desire is, to secure in these States the maintenance of this principle which they have adopted, so that every person of requisite age within those States shall be entitled to vote. The very amendment which the gentleman from Ohio proposes is what the protestants from South Carolina, who appeared before us, asked should be inserted in the bill. And they did not hesitate to give as their reason, that, if they should be allowed to amend their constitution in this respect, after the State had been admitted they could adopt a property qualification which would exclude from the elective franchise all the poor men; and when I asked them distinctly whether such a provision would not be intended to reach the negroes, they had too much manliness to deny it. If the amendment proposed by the gentleman from Ohio should be adopted, they could adopt a property qualification, applicable to all classes alike, which would reach down to just about the black line, depriving the negroes of the privilege of voting and again subjecting them to oppression. It would not be long before, by means of vagrant laws and other laws of similar character, the colored race would be again reduced to bondage even worse than the patriarchal.

"The amendment of the gentleman from Ohio would be taken advantage of to inflict wrong upon the colored race, just as the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery has been evaded by taking advantage of the clause, 'except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted.' In Florida, as I learn from two gentlemen connected with the Freedmen's Bureau, a law has been enacted providing that persons convicted of assault and battery may be sold for twenty years into bondage. If a white man runs against a negro on the pavement, it is called an assault and battery, and the white man takes the negro into the court-house and in fifteen minutes has him convicted and sentenced to bondage for twenty

years. These two gentlemen told me that they had witnessed the sentence of six negroes under just such circumstances. The negroes were sold into slavery for twenty years because white men had jostled them, or, as was said there, they had jostled white men. So, if we leave the door open, these colored people may all be made slaves again. I do not propose to leave any such door open."

The question recurred first on the amendment of Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, as follows:

Add to the end of the first section as follows:

That so much of the seventeenth section of the fifth article of the constitution of the State of Georgia as gives authority to the Legislature or courts to repudiate debts contracted prior to the 1st day of June, 1865, and similar provisions in the other constitutions mentioned in this bill, shall be null and void as against all men who were loyal during the whole time of the rebellion, and who, during that time, supported the Union, and they shall have the same rights in the courts and elsewhere as if no rebellion had existed.

The question was taken; and it was decided as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, James M. Ashley, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Blair, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Farnsworth, Fields, Gravelly, Harding, Higby, Hill, Holman, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hunter, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Kitchen, Koontz, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Loan, Loughridge, Marvin, McCarthy, McClurg, Miller, Morrell, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Perham, Peters, Plants, Polesley, Price, Raum, Robertson, Sawyer, Shanks, Smith, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Taffe, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upton, Van Wyck, Ward, Welker, William Williams, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, and Woodward—78.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Delos R. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Banks, Bingham, Boutwell, Boyer, Cullom, Ela, Eldridge, Eliot, Ferriss, Ferry, Garfield, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Ingersoll, Johnson, Judd, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Lafin, Lincoln, Logan, Mallory, McCormick, Moore, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Paine, Pile, Pruyn, Randall, Ross, Schenck, Sitgreaves, Aaron F. Stevens, Taylor, Van Auken, Burt Van Horn, Van Trump, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, and William B. Washburn—50.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Baldwin, Barnes, Barnum, Beck, Blaine, Brooks, Burr, Butler, Cake, Cary, Chanler, Churchill, Cook, Cornell, Covode, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Finney, Fox, Griswold, Haight, Halsey, Hawkins, Hotchkiss, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Jenckes, Jones, Lynch, Marshall, Maynard, McCullough, Mercor, Moorhead, Morrissey, Mullins, Phelps, Pike, Poland, Pomeroy, Robinson, Scofield, Selye, Shellabarger, Spalding, Starkweather, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Aernam, Robert T. Van Horn, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, and Wood—61.

So the amendment was adopted.

The question next recurred on Mr. Bingham's amendment as modified by Mr. Benjamin, as follows:

Strike out the following:

That the constitutions of said States shall never be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen or

class of citizens of the United States of the right to vote who are now entitled to vote by said constitutions respectively, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted; and no person shall ever be held to service or labor as a punishment for crime in said States, except by public officers charged with the custody of convicts by the laws thereof.

And in lieu thereof insert the following:

That the constitutions of said States shall never be amended or changed so as to discriminate in favor of or against any citizen or class of citizens of the United States in the right to vote who are now entitled to vote by said constitutions respectively, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted; and no person shall ever be held to service or labor as a punishment for crime in said States, except by public officers charged with the custody of convicts by the laws thereof.

The House divided; and there were—yeas 57, nays 46. So the amendment was adopted.

The bill was ordered to be engrossed and read a third time; and, being engrossed, it was accordingly read the third time.

The question was taken; and it was decided as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Cake, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Courn, Covode, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Gravely, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jencks, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Laffin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Logan, Loughridge, Mallory, Marvin, McCarthy, McClurg, Miller, Moore, Morrell, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Polsley, Price, Raum, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Smith, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, William Williams, James F. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, and Windom—109.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Baker, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Eldridge, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Holman, Hotchkiss, Humphrey, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Loan, Marshall, McCormick, Morgan, Munger, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Sitzgreaves, Stone, Van Aiken, Van Trump, Thomas Williams, and Woodward—35.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Baldwin, Barnes, Barnum, Blaine, Cary, Chanler, Churchill, Cook, Cornell, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Finney, Fox, Griswold, Haight, Halsey, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburt, Jones, Koontz, Lynch, Maynard, McCullough, Mercier, Moorhead, Morrissey, Mullins, Poland, Pomeroy, Selye, Shellabarger, Spalding, Starkweather, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Aernam, Robert T. Van Horn, Cadwalader C. Washburn, John T. Wilson, Wood, and Woodward—45.

The bill was reported to the Senate, with amendments excluding Alabama and adding Florida.

On June 9th, Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "I rise, Mr. President, to express the hope that we shall not exclude Alabama from

the benefits of admission with these other States. It seems to me that if there is any one of these States which ought to be welcomed here it is the State of Alabama. That State prepared its constitution earlier than any other State. The vote was taken at an unpropitious season of the year, at a time when storms and floods swept the State. A larger percentage of registered electors voted for that constitution than for any one of the constitutions of these States, with the exception of South Carolina; forty-four per cent. of the voters of Alabama voted for the constitution; in Georgia forty-three per cent. voted for the constitution, and in Arkansas thirty-eight per cent. voted for the constitution. In Alabama there was a vote of seventy thousand given for the constitution, and thirteen thousand of the votes registered were in counties where no votes at all were taken, including one county where nearly three thousand votes were taken and destroyed. I saw, when we adopted the provision requiring a majority of the registered voters to vote on the constitution, it would cause the failure of these States, and, if we had adhered to it in these six other States only, I think we would have adopted the constitution. If that law had not existed, and the people had been summoned to vote for and against the ratification of the constitution, I have not the shadow of a doubt that the State of Alabama would have adopted her constitution by from thirty to fifty thousand majority.

"I do not think we ought to take advantage of our own mistake, not to say blunder. Nobody is harmed by the admission of the State. Admit the State with the others; let the State government be organized; let the people be protected; let the State begin a career of peace and prosperity and advancement."

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "The only subject to which I wish to address myself is the question of the admission of Alabama. I am convinced that in Alabama the people are more in a condition to maintain a State government than they are in any other of the Southern States, without exception. The constitution of Alabama, as presented to us, is very similar in form to the constitutions of the other States. Their proceedings have been as regular, and, perhaps, more regular, than those of any other State. They have complied with every stipulation in the law except one, and the question now is, whether, on account of their inability to comply with that stipulation, they shall be excluded from restoration to the Union. If that inability grew out of a want of loyalty to the Government, or any cause within their power of correction, I would hold them to strict compliance with the law; but the official papers here on our table show that they did all that was possible for them to do to comply with the law, that they were deterred by physical causes totally beyond their power to overcome, and that they did more and made a greater effort to comply with the

acts of Congress than any State among the Southern States."

The motion of Mr. Wilson was agreed to—
yeas 22, nays 21.

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Chandler, Conness, Corbett, Ferry, Fowler, Harlan, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Nye, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—22.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Cole, Conkling, Davis, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Hendricks, Howard, Howe, Johnson, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Trumbull, Vickers, and Yates—21.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Cragin, Dixon, Drake, Grimes, Henderson, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Ross, and Sprague—11.

On June 10th, Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, moved to amend the amendment reported by the committee, by striking out the following words :

And the State of Georgia shall only be entitled and admitted to representation upon this further fundamental condition ; that the first and third subdivisions of section seventeen of the fifth article of the constitution of said State, except the proviso to the first subdivision, shall be null and void, and that the General Assembly of said State, by solemn public act, shall declare the assent of the State to the foregoing fundamental condition.

The amendment was rejected by the following vote :

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Ferry, Howe, Ramsey, Sherman, Thayer, Williams, and Wilson—8.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Hendricks, Howard, Johnson, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Saulsbury, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Wade, Willey, and Yates—35.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cattell, Dixon, Doolittle, Fowler, Grimes, Henderson, Norton, Pomeroy, Sprague, and Stewart—11.

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, moved to amend the first section of the bill, by inserting the following :

That so much of the seventeenth section of the fifth article of the constitution of the State of Georgia as suspends the collection of debts contracted prior to the 1st day of June, 1865, shall be void as against all persons who were loyal during the late rebellion, and who, during that time, supported the Union.

This amendment was rejected.

Mr. Williams also moved to amend, by inserting the following in the third section :

And thereupon the officers of each State, duly elected and qualified under the constitution thereof, shall be inaugurated without delay ; but no person prohibited from holding office under the United States, or under any State, by section three of the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, known as article fourteen, shall be deemed eligible to any office in either of said States.

The first clause of the amendment, extending to the word "delay," was agreed to, as follows :

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Howard, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Stewart,

Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Wade, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—23.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Cole, Conkling, Davis, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Hendricks, McCreery, Morgan, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Saulsbury, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, and Willey—18.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Cattell, Dixon, Doolittle, Ferry, Fessenden, Grimes, Henderson, Howe, Johnson, Norton, Sherman, and Sprague—13.

The remainder was agreed to by the following vote :

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Harlan, Howard, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—26.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Conkling, Davis, Edmunds, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Hendricks, McCreery, Morgan, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Saulsbury, Trumbull, and Vickers—15.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Cattell, Dixon, Doolittle, Ferry, Fessenden, Grimes, Henderson, Howe, Johnson, Norton, Sherman, and Sprague—13.

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, moved to amend, by striking out "Alabama," which was disagreed to by the following vote :

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Conkling, Davis, Edmunds, Frelinghuysen, Hendricks, Howe, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Trumbull, Vickers, and Yates—16.

NAYS—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Harlan, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Nye, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Cattell, Cole, Dixon, Doolittle, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Henderson, Howard, Johnson, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, and Sprague—14.

The amendment of the Committee of the Whole was now concurred in. This was, to strike out the whole of the House bill after the enacting clause, and insert the following :

That each of the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, shall be entitled and admitted to representation in Congress as a State of the Union when the Legislatures of such States shall have duly ratified the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and known as article fourteen, upon the following fundamental condition : that the constitution of neither of said States shall ever be so amended or changed as to deprive any citizen, or class of citizens, of the United States of the right to vote in said State, who are entitled to vote by the constitution thereof, herein recognized, except as a punishment for such crimes as are now felonies at common law, whereof they shall have been duly convicted under laws equally applicable to all the inhabitants of said State : *Provided*, That any alteration of said constitution may be made with regard to the time and place of residence of voters. And the State of Georgia shall only be entitled and admitted to representation upon this further fundamental condition : that the first and third subdivisions of section seventeen of the fifth article of the constitution of said State, except the proviso to the first subdivision, shall be null and void, and that the General Assembly of said State, by solemn public act, shall declare the assent of the State to the foregoing fundamental condition.

Sec. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That if the day fixed for the first meeting of the Legislature of either

of said States, by the constitution or ordinance thereof, shall have passed, or have so nearly arrived before the passage of this act, that there shall not be time for the Legislature to assemble at the period fixed, such Legislature shall convene at the end of twenty days from the time this act takes effect, unless the Governor-elect shall sooner convene the same.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the first section of this act shall take effect as to each State, except Georgia, when such State shall by its Legislature duly ratify article fourteen of the amendments to the Constitution of the United States, proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and as to the State of Georgia, when it shall in addition give the assent of said State to the fundamental condition hereinbefore imposed upon the same; and thereupon the officers of each State, elected and qualified under the constitution thereof, shall be inaugurated without delay; but no person prohibited from holding office under the United States, or under any State, by section three of the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, known as article fourteen, shall be deemed eligible to any office in either of said States, unless relieved from disability, as provided in said amendment; and it is hereby made the duty of the President, within ten days after receiving official information of the ratification of said amendment by the Legislature of either of said States, to issue a proclamation announcing that fact.

The preamble was then adopted, as follows :

Whereas, the people of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, have, in pursuance of the provisions of an act entitled "An act for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and the acts supplementary thereto, framed constitutions of State government which are republican, and have adopted said constitutions by large majorities of the votes cast at the elections held for the ratification or rejection of the same.

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, proposed to add to the amendment, adopted on his motion, the following words: "unless relieved from disability as provided in said amendment," meaning the fourteenth article, which was agreed to.

Mr. Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, said: "We have come to the end of this debate, and I understand that this bill is to be passed, to be sanctioned, at least by a vote of the Senate, and to be sent to the House of Representatives for its concurrence in the amendments which we have adopted. Now, what is this bill? A few words upon that, and I shall close. It is a bill to admit these States to a renewed representation. We have already admitted two of the original eleven engaged in the rebellion. Tennessee was admitted soon after the termination of the great struggle, and recently we have passed a bill for the renewal of representation to Arkansas. Six are now to be added, and I believe there are three with reference to which no action has yet been taken in Congress, but in regard to which action may be expected hereafter.

"What is this bill? It is to sanction a reorganization of the Southern States, or of a majority of them, upon two principles: first, that the entire adult negro population shall vote not only at the first election which shall give the new political institutions of the State their form, but in all subsequent elections so long as the constitution of the State remains un-

changed; and to render this principle permanent and to secure it against any change of public opinion, you incorporate in your law what you call 'fundamental conditions.' You are not content to exercise your powers for the present time alone. You now command the field of action. You hold a vote in the two Houses of Congress which renders you, so far as the enactment of laws in this Government is concerned, supreme. For the time being your will dictates law to the United States. But you are not satisfied with this. You propose to take from the men of future times the power and authority to change your work, at all events, in those States of the South which are concerned in your present legislation. You propose to reach out your hands, from these Halls in which you sit as the Representatives of the people and of the States, into the States of the South, and to stamp upon the constitutions of those States, upon their local frames of government, an impress of your will which shall remain unchangeable in all future time by any voluntary action of the political communities in which these constitutions are established. And why do you do this? You do this, sir, in order to secure to the colored adult men of the South, not the right of suffrage for the moment, nor as an experiment of their capacity in free government, but to secure it to them against the shifting and changing opinions of future times, against the experience of future times, against any possibility that it shall be narrowed and made to conform to the experience and necessities of those States as they may be developed hereafter. This is very extraordinary legislation, the like of it unknown at least in our own history, and I do not know that any example to warrant it is known in the history of any free State.

But what else do you attempt to secure by this and other bills and by prior laws? Apparently apprehensive that your new political bodies so established in the Southern States will receive direction, will be to a great extent controlled by the intelligent population that are resident there of your own race, you have proceeded from time to time to disfranchise them to a great extent, and now by this bill make firm and effectual that disfranchisement which is most proscriptive and intolerant. Such is the character of this measure considered in connection with the measures which have preceded it, and of which it is the culmination.

"Now, sir, can any one doubt your object? Perhaps you have not avowed it to yourselves. You may have shrunk back from the self-acknowledgment of the truth. But what is the truth? It is that to a great extent all this has been done and this crowning measure is to be passed, in order that you may retain that power in the Government of the United States which you now possess, in order that that which you have grasped by the consent of the people and under peculiar circumstances in our political

history, you shall hold firm in the future; that your power shall not be torn from you by public disapprobation; that, by majority votes in those States which you represent, you shall not be removed from that position of authority and of dominating influence which you hold in the Government of the United States. Is not that your purpose? Does it not inspire your conduct? Does it not lie behind all these your acts and speak them into being? Does it not infuse into your conduct that energy and zeal by which it is characterized? Does it not touch the tongue of the Senator from Massachusetts as with a coal of fire? Does it not keep us here at an untimely hour of the night to press through its last stages this bill?

"I hold, and at least one-half of the population of the States represented in Congress hold, that your body of reconstruction laws are invalid; that they are without warrant of authority in the fundamental law. You have taken from the Supreme Court the power to pass judgment upon them. You have withdrawn a case which would have elicited the opinion of that court suddenly from its jurisdiction, and prevented a decision upon the validity of your laws.

"Mr. President, what are we to expect in the future? Will this work of yours stand? You say yourselves it will not stand investigation in court and a judicial judgment. You have said so by your conduct. You know that at least half of the people represented in Congress are firmly and strongly against it, for they have said so within the last twelve months in most emphatic language. You cannot question the fact. How is your work to stand in the future, the work of which this bill is supposed to be the guarantee of security and endurance?"

The bill was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Wade, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, and Vickers—5.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cattell, Corbitt, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Henderson, Hendricks, Johnson, Morton, Norton, Saulsbury, Sprague, Van Winkle, and Willey—18.

The title of the bill was amended to read, "A bill to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, to representation in Congress."

In the House, on June 12th, the Committee on Reconstruction reported in favor of concurring in the amendments of the Senate. The recommendation was agreed to, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Butler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cornell, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Delano, Dixon, Dodge,

Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Gravelly, Griswold, Hailey, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Ingersoll, Judd, Julian, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Laffin, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, Maynard, McClurg, Mercier, Miller, Moore, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, O'Neill, Paine, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Polsley, Pomeroy, Price, Raum, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Selye, Shellabarger, Spalding, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, William Williams, John T. Wilson, and Windom—111.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Eldridge, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Holman, Hotchkiss, Marshall, McCormick, McCullough, Morrissey, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Randall, Robinson, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Anken, Van Trump, and Woodward—28.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Anderson, Arnell, Baker, Baldwin, Barnum, Beck, Boutwell, Cake, Cary, Chanler, Farnsworth, Finney, Fox, Haight, Hill, Hooper, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Hunter, Jenckes, Johnson, Jones, Kelley, Kerr, Knott, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, McCarthy, Moorhead, Mungen, Nunn, Orth, Perham, Poland, Pruyn, Ross, Shanks, Sitgreaves, Smith, Thaddeus Stevens, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Wood, and Woodbridge—50.

In the House, on March 18th, Mr. Broomall, of Pennsylvania, moved to reconsider the vote referring to the Judiciary Committee the bill to guarantee to the several States of the Union a republican form of government. The bill stated that the form of government of several of the States of the Union was not republican in this particular: that by the constitutions and laws of such States political rights were made to depend upon parentage and race, and were hereditary in certain families, to the exclusion of others equally citizens of the United States; and that it was the constitutional duty of the United States to guarantee to every State a republican form of government.

The first section provided that all provisions and enactments in state constitutions and laws which make distinctions in political or civil rights among citizens of the United States, or deny such rights to any such citizens on account of parentage, race, lineage, or color, shall be, and are hereby declared to be, void and of no effect.

The second section provided that if any person should prevent any qualified citizen of the United States from exercising the right of suffrage at any election in any State, under the pretence that such citizen was disqualified by the constitution and laws of such State on account of his parentage, race, lineage, or color, such person should be deemed guilty of misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof in the proper court, should be sentenced to pay a fine, not exceeding \$5,000, or to undergo imprisonment, not exceeding five years, or both, at the discretion of the court.

Mr. Broomall, of Pennsylvania, said: "The bill under consideration sets out that in certain States of the Union the elective franchise is limited to certain families or races of men, to the exclusion of other families and races equally composed of citizens of the United States. This fact will not be denied, and the only question to be decided is, whether, in this particular, the form of government in those States is republican. If my definition and argument be correct, that question is of easy solution. For the families and races excluded there is neither direct nor indirect representation. In them no sovereignty exists. The government, therefore, is that of a class, and not of the entire citizens. It has all the characteristics of an aristocracy.

"It makes no difference in its favor that the ruling class constitute the majority of the citizens. On the other hand, the case of the class excluded is the harder from the fact that it is the minority. If the body of the citizens were excluded, they might by combinations force a kind of justice from their rulers. But, the condition of a disfranchised minority is hopeless indeed. Even the resource of revolution is denied to them.

"If the majority may lawfully disfranchise the minority on account of race or lineage, then may the citizens of South Carolina of African descent limit the elective franchise to themselves to the exclusion of their white fellow-citizens. If in the form of government now being constituted there such a limitation should be placed, who in this Hall or in the country would maintain that the government is republican? Not a single vote could be obtained in either House of Congress for the admission of a State with such a constitution. Now, if it is not republican in South Carolina, where black men are in the majority, to limit the suffrage to black men, with what consistency shall we maintain that it is republican in Ohio, where white men are in the majority, to limit the suffrage to white men? Let us beware how we advocate the doctrine that the minority may be lawfully disfranchised on account of lineage, lest that doctrine be turned against ourselves, and lest for very shame we be obliged to submit.

"If it be said that the case I am apprehending cannot arise, that such a constitution presented by South Carolina and persisted in would insure and perpetuate her exclusion, I reply that the danger is not to be apprehended in that shape. South Carolina will present no such constitution; she will first secure her admission. But State constitutions are subject to change by a majority of the citizens, under certain forms and regulations. The spirit of rivalry existing between the blacks and Democrats, the war of races which forms so prominent a part of the political creed of our opponents, is very likely, if persisted in, to produce its fruits of retaliation. Thus far the blacks, where in the majority, have behaved with a wonderful degree of forbearance; but who shall

answer for its continuance under continual provocation? It will be from the exercise of virtue more than human, if the black majority of South Carolina do not imitate the white majority elsewhere, and after admission do not change the constitution by inserting the word 'black,' as a qualification for voting, to correspond with the word 'white' in the constitutions of other States. We have no right to expect that they will be better than we are, after all their degradation, after all the oppression they have undergone at our hands. I should be ashamed of the selfishness of my race if I did not believe such an event very likely to occur. Let us be forewarned!

"If it be objected to the bill that it proposes to regulate the right of suffrage in the States by congressional action, and that that entire subject is left by the terms of the Constitution to the States themselves, I answer, nothing is left to the States themselves by the terms of the Constitution except subject to the right and duty of the United States to guarantee them a republican form of government. It follows, then, that wherever the want of a republican form appears there we must legislate. If a State should make her offices hereditary, we would be obliged to legislate upon the term and tenure of State offices. If she should shut her courts against every man who could not trace his descent from Adam, or some other ancient celebrity, we would be obliged to legislate upon the duties of her judges and the rights of suitors in her courts. In like manner if she limit the right of suffrage to a favored part of her citizens and their lineal heirs forever, we can do nothing else than legislate upon the question of State suffrage. I repeat, no power whatever is reserved to the States except subject to the right and duty of the United States to guarantee them a republican form of government.

"The cause of universal suffrage is the cause of the great laboring masses of the community. Wherever suffrage is restricted the restriction falls upon them. Nowhere are the poor and the ignorant gifted with political rights and the wealthy and the learned denied them."

Mr. Woodward, of Pennsylvania, said: "My objection, sir, to this bill is that it proposes a subversion of the fundamental law of every State that does not tolerate negro suffrage. As Pennsylvania, by her constitution, expressly excludes negro suffrage, this bill, brought forward by a Representative of Pennsylvania, and, for aught I know, a son of Pennsylvania, proposes to subvert the constitution of Pennsylvania. Such is the effect of the bill; and the only reason I fear its passage is, that it is supported by precisely the line of argument which I have heard urged in favor of other measures which have been passed.

"The bill begins by reciting what I must say is not true. In using this language I, of course, mean nothing offensive. I say the statement of the bill is an historical mistake.

"The State of Pennsylvania has had a republican form of government from the year 1776, during all of which time it has excluded negro suffrage, and during a part of which time it had negro slavery, because it did not formally abolish slavery till 1790; and it had slavery long after the act of abolition was passed, for it was a gradual abolition. That was a republican form of government.

"And now, sir, I will tell the gentleman another legal historical fact, which is worthy of his attention, that, from the very formation of the confederacy after the Declaration of Independence, the right of suffrage was the conceded right of the States, over which the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution of the United States had no power whatever. I say he will find it written in the chronicles, when he comes to read them aright, that from the Declaration of Independence down to the date of this bill, suffrage, whether white or black, has been a State power with which the Federal Government has nothing under the heavens to do.

"His bill proposes that the Federal Government shall overturn the suffrage in the States and force negro suffrage upon them. The Federal Government has no suffrage to bestow on anybody, black or white. It never had, and it never will have, unless you revolutionize the Government and make it something the fathers did not make it. It never had the control of suffrage, and yet my innocent young student does not seem to be aware of it. He proposes that the Federal Government shall go into the States and dictate who shall be voters. It must have been understood by my friend that he sits in this House by virtue of State suffrage, regulated, conferred, and protected by the State of Pennsylvania, and not by the General Government at all. There is not a man among you who does not sit here by suffrage regulated by the States, and that, too, provided for in the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution declares:

The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

"Yet what does their Representative propose by this bill? After reciting that we have no republican government in Pennsylvania, he then goes on in the second section as follows:

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall prevent any qualified citizen of the United States from exercising the right of suffrage at any election in any State under the pretence that such citizen is disqualified by the constitution and laws of such State on account of his parentage, race, lineage, or color, such person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof in the proper court, shall be sentenced to pay a fine not exceeding \$5,000, or to undergo imprisonment not exceeding five years, or both, at the discretion of the court.

"That is a provision which is proposed to be

enacted by the Federal Government, which never had any suffrage to confer, by a Representative who sits in this House at this moment by virtue of State suffrage, and who, but for that State suffrage, would not have been here, perhaps, to make it. I have heard some strange things since I have had the honor to sit here; but I declare to you I never heard anything more strange than this. We are told that it is all a mistake to suppose we have been living under a republican government; that the States had the right to regulate suffrage, that you had the right to send members of Congress here to enlighten the nation. We are told that it is all a mistake, and any man hereafter who shall say otherwise is to be subjected to the penalty of \$5,000.

"Mr. Speaker, I maintain that suffrage, be it universal or limited, is a State affair, and not the affair of the Federal Government."

Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, said: "This, Mr. Speaker, is a grave question of argument; it is not a question for demagogues. The world is going on in its progress of human government, and is every day advancing in the great science which is to make man happy or make him miserable. We are either to relapse into a state of barbarism where that infamous doctrine that one man can own another is to be reestablished, or we are to establish the doctrine where every man governs himself and has rights which are inalienable. Among those inalienable rights, I start by saying, is the right of universal suffrage, which no man will dare, after this generation shall have passed away, to dispute. We are not now merely expounding a government; we are building one. We are making a nation. We are correcting the injustice, the errors, the follies which were heaped upon other times by necessity. From the dark ages up, mankind have been ground down by despots and by tyrants whom they could not in any way control. They were unable to form governments such as ought to control the human race and enable us to govern ourselves. Europe, Asia, every country in the world, till within the last century, has been thus held in chains which they could not break, in chains and withes which the world could not snap in its then condition. But a period arrived when the Almighty Governor of the universe placed within the power of our fathers both the knowledge and finally the power to break those chains and give the world an opportunity, if it would, to be free. When the dawn of the Revolution came it broke upon this world as a new, a mighty, a glorious revelation. That which never before had opened the eyes of mankind, and given them a clear insight into the rights of the human race, opened the eyes of our great and glorious fathers and taught them precisely what we have to carry out, and when we have carried it out human government will become perfect and tyrants everywhere must tremble, and demagogues who talk to us about differ-

ence of races must be ashamed and skulk from the face of the world.

"Now, what was that great right that they discovered? It was that 'all men are born equal.' The black man who brushes the boots of my respected friend from the Luzerne district (Mr. Woodward) is, according to that doctrine, as much entitled to every right and every privilege of a free man and a citizen as that gentleman or myself. And whenever he, or I, or any one else, undertakes to make a distinction between the black race and our own, because of the color of the skin or the formation of the body, he forgets his God, and his God will forget him.

"In other words, we now propose to go to universal and impartial suffrage as the only foundation upon which the Government can stand. You must build all your science of government upon that foundation. When you attempt to depart from it you cease to be men and become tyrants, deserving the execration of the human race. There is no other way than by universal suffrage that you and I and every man can protect himself against the injustice and inhumanity and wrongs that would otherwise be inflicted upon us.

"We have reached a point in the history of this nation when we can adopt that great and glorious principle. We have just builded a nation in whose institutions we can incorporate that principle. And my effort shall be to prove to this House, not simply that we have just reached that point, but that we have reached it by means of the Constitution, not by violating it, although our forefathers, who proclaimed that principle and would have adopted it, could not do so without violating the compact which they themselves had made, and which would have destroyed the great Government they were then building and were bound to defend. We have reached that period which our fathers did not reach and could not reach, when, in speaking of universal suffrage, we must speak of it not as a boon, but as an inalienable right, which no man dare take away, and which no man can rightfully surrender. His God has forbidden it; the science of government has forbidden it.

"Henceforth let us understand that universal suffrage, operating in favor of every man who is to be governed by the votes cast, is one of those doctrines planted deep as the foundations upon which our fathers laid the immortal work of universal liberty, which work of theirs will last just so long as that immortal doctrine shall last, and no longer.

"Whatever construction shall be given to the Constitution in its present condition by this Congress and those nearest, the great events which have modified it will be likely to be accepted through future time as its true meaning. It is important, therefore, that the most beneficent interpretation should be given to it, and that it should be most liberally construed, so as to secure all human rights in the changed

condition of our country and of that instrument which, while it, as to the old States, may not be radically changed, is not so inflexible as to be incapable of accommodating itself to the changing necessities of humanity.

"Before the Constitution was amended I could not agree with some of my learned friends that Congress could intermeddle with State laws relative to the elective franchise in the United States. The circumstance of slavery seemed, while it was submitted to, to prevent it. After the amendment abolishing slavery I still doubted, and proposed a constitutional remedy on the 5th of December, 1865, in the following words:

All national laws shall be equally applicable to every citizen, and no discrimination shall be made on account of race and color.

"Since the adoption of the fourteenth amendment, however, I have no doubt of our full power to regulate the elective franchise, so far as it regards the whole nation, in every State of the Union, which, when tried, I hope, will be so formed as to be beneficial to the nation, just to every citizen, and carry out the great designs of the framers of the Government, according to their views expressed in the Declaration of Independence.

"It cannot fail to be beneficial and convenient, when we consider the trouble and inconvenience which a citizen of one State encounters when he travels temporarily into another. Instead of being a brother at home, he is now an alien in his native land. While he participates in all the burdens and anxieties of government, he is forbidden, if a non-resident, to take part in selecting the magistrate who is to rule his destinies for the next four years.

"In this there is no principle of republican justice. The Constitution of 1789 did not carry out the principles of government which were intended by the fathers when in 1776 they laid the foundations of the Government on which this nation was built. Then they had been inspired with such a light from on high as never man was inspired with before in the great work of providing freedom for the human race through a government in which no oppression could find a resting-place.

"They contemplated the erection of a vast empire over the whole continent, which in its national character should be governed by laws of a supreme, unvarying character. While municipal institutions with self-control might be granted for convenience, it was never intended that one half of this nation should be governed by one set of laws and the other half by another and conflicting set on the same subject.

"The laws which were then intended to be universal must now be made universal. The principles which were intended to govern the whole American nationality must now be made to cover and control the whole national action throughout this grand empire. Towns, corporations, and municipalities may be allowed

their separate organizations not inconsistent therewith, but must not incorporate any principles in conflict with those great rights, privileges, and immunities. What are those rights, privileges, and immunities? Without excluding others, three are specifically enumerated—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. These are universal and inalienable. It follows that every thing necessary for their establishment and defence is within those rights. You grant a lot or easement in the midst of your estate; you thereby grant the right of way to it by ingress and egress. Disarm a community and you rob them of the means of defending life. Take away their weapons of defence, and you take away the inalienable right of defending liberty. This brings us now directly to the argument by which we prove that the elective franchise is a right of the Declaration, and not merely a privilege, and is one of the rights and immunities pronounced by that instrument to be 'inalienable.'

"If, as our fathers declared, 'all just government is derived from the assent of the governed;' if in federal republics that assent can be ascertained and established only through the ballot, it follows, that to take away that means of communication is to take away from the citizen his great weapon of defence and reduce him to helpless bondage. It deprives him of an inalienable right. This clearly proves that the elective franchise ranks with 'life' and 'liberty' in its sacred, inalienable character. But, while the Declaration clearly proves what the intention then was, the action of the Convention in framing the Constitution of the United States, it seems to me, bartered away for the time being some of those inalienable rights, and, instigated by the hellish institution of slavery, suspended one of the muniments of liberty. Having thus shown that the elective franchise is one of the inalienable rights of man, without which his liberty cannot be defended, and that it was suspended by the arbitrary Constitution of 1789, let us see if that suspension has been removed, so as to leave our hands unrestrained in restoring its full vigor while still acting under the Constitution. That right appertains to every citizen. But while this suspension existed the natural love of despotism induced communities to hold that each State might fix the qualifications, rights, and deprivations of its own citizens.

"The fourteenth amendment, now so happily adopted, settles the whole question and places every American citizen on a perfect equality, so far as merely national rights and questions are concerned."

Mr. Spalding, of Ohio, said: "Mr. Speaker, I do not wish to occupy much of the time of the House; but I desire to remark that only last October I was called upon as a citizen of Ohio to vote upon a proposition to amend the constitution of that State by inserting a provision giving the right of suffrage to the free

black man equally with the white man. I not only voted cheerfully for that proposition, but I used all my influence with my fellow-citizens in my section of the State to induce them to ingraft that provision upon our State constitution. It was unsuccessful. We were in advance of the sentiment of our people; they voted down the proposition by forty thousand majority. Now, I would like to see the member of Congress from the State of Ohio who would have the boldness to vote for the passage of this bill, which, in my judgment, cuts directly across the Constitution of the United States, and, in fact, derides the action of the people of my State in refusing to insert in their constitution of State government a provision granting this general right of suffrage to the blacks as well as the whites.

"Sir, I believe the day may come when our Constitution, the great charter of our liberties, shall be so amended that all free people may vote. God hasten the day when that right may be so extended! But, sir, so long as the Constitution remains as it is, I will sooner suffer my right arm to drop from its socket than vote for any such bill as that now before us. And, in saying this, I am bold to affirm that I speak the sentiments of a large majority of my colleagues on this floor, irrespective of party. I should regard the passage of this bill at this hour as the death-knell of our hopes as a political party in the approaching Presidential canvass."

Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, said: "Mr. Speaker, I have no hope that this bill will be adopted by this Congress. I will gladly give it my vote when brought to that test, and in doing so will, in my judgment, act strictly within the letter and intent of the Constitution, and but exercise a power which the framers of the Constitution and the members of the State conventions that accepted it knew they had embodied in it.

"The gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Spalding) hastened to announce, as did my colleague from the Washington district (Mr. Lawrence, of Pennsylvania), that the question of colored suffrage is not a party question. I admit and deplore the fact that it is not, for the Republican party is founded upon the theory of the equality of man before the law, and the fact that the consent of the governed is the only legitimate basis for government. Those are accepted party doctrines, and I take it for granted that those members of the Republican party who deny the colored citizens' right to vote, like the leaders of the Democratic party, deny the humanity and the immortality of the great mass of mankind, for the majority of the human race are of those shades of complexion and that character of blood to which, while asserting the equal rights of man, they deny equality before the laws.

"I regret that the Republican party has not risen to the height of applying its principles as a test to all questions, and carrying them into

execution to their last result. There is no difference between my colleague and myself as to its halting on the question of suffrage."

Mr. Kerr, of Indiana, said: "I hold that the bill now under consideration cannot have any shadow of legal authorization under the Constitution of the United States as it stands to-day. I agree with the distinguished gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Spalding), that it runs directly across the Constitution. But it is the fixed and cherished policy of the majority in this House to change the Federal Constitution. It is their deliberate purpose, to-morrow, or next week, or a month hence, or as soon as they can, to make the Federal Constitution a different instrument from what it now is. And then, under the somewhat latitudinarian expressions contained in the proposed fourteenth article of amendments to the Constitution, not only will this bill, but almost every other kind that the party majority here can desire, be introduced into this House and enacted into a law."

No decisive action was taken on this bill, at this session, by either House.

In the Senate, on December 4th, Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, from the Judiciary Committee, reported a bill declaring what shall constitute a quorum of the Supreme Court, and asked for its present consideration.

The bill was read twice and considered as in Committee of the Whole, by unanimous consent. It provided that any number of the justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, not less than five, and being a majority of the court, shall constitute a quorum.

Mr. Trumbull said: "I will state the reason for the bill. The court formerly consisted of ten members, and at that time the law required six to constitute a quorum. As the law now stands the court is to be reduced to seven, as vacancies occur; it is already reduced to eight; and the justices of the court, I am informed, find a difficulty in making up the quorum of six; and it will be still more difficult when there are but seven on the bench. One or two of the judges at this time are unwell, and of the whole number, eight, it requires six to constitute a quorum. This bill provides that five shall constitute a quorum, there being now but eight judges, and that it shall also require that number even when the court is reduced to seven."

The bill was reported to the Senate without amendment.

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, said: "It is very desirable it should pass. The court was very near being without a quorum to-day, and the probability is, in the present condition of things, that it may be often without a quorum during the session."

The bill was ordered to be engrossed for a third reading; was read the third time, and passed.

In the House, on January 13th, Mr. Wilson,

of Iowa, from the Committee on the Judiciary, reported back the Senate bill to constitute a quorum in the Supreme Court, with an amendment, as follows:

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That no cause pending before the Supreme Court of the United States, which involves the action or effect of any law of the United States, shall be decided adversely to the validity of such law without the concurrence of two-thirds of all the members of said court in the decision upon the several points in which said law or any part thereof may be deemed invalid.

Mr. Williams, of Pennsylvania, offered the following as a substitute for the amendment reported by the committee:

That in all cases of writs of error from and appeals to the Supreme Court of the United States, where is drawn in question the validity of a statute of or an authority exercised by the United States, or the construction of any clause of the Constitution of the United States, or the validity of a statute of or an authority exercised under any State, on the ground of repugnance to the Constitution or laws of the United States, the hearing shall be had only before a full bench of the judges of said court, and no judgment shall be rendered or decision made against the validity of any statute or of any authority exercised by the United States, except with the concurrence of all the judges of said court.

He said: "The amendment which I offer requires unanimity on the part of the Supreme Court. The amendment of the committee stops at two-thirds.

"My own judgment is that there is no reason that will apply, no argument that can be offered in favor of the amendment of the committee, which does not apply with equal force to the amendment submitted by myself. Still, I was not prepared to meet this question now. I did not feel that the bill itself, as prepared by myself, was sufficient in its details to meet the exigencies of the case. There is nothing in it to provide for the contingencies that may arise in the decision of causes in the circuit court. It wants further arrangement. It wants to be perfected. It wants full consideration. If I may be allowed to say it, this is a big question. I do not think that the passage of the bill can be facilitated by forcing it through here. Gentlemen seem to be of the opinion that delay would not answer. My opinion is different. I do not think it will pass any sooner by being forced through here to-day or to-morrow. It seems to me that, if it is well argued here, the principle might be so well vindicated as to satisfy, perhaps, the other branch of the Legislature.

"But there is an apprehension that the country will suffer by any delay. It is said that there is a case now depending in the Supreme Court of the United States upon which this question may be ruled to-day or to-morrow. Suppose such be the fact—I do not know that there is any such case—but suppose that such be the fact, that such a case is now depending there, and a decision is made by the court, what harm can it effect? Instead of harm, I think it will do good, because it will awaken

both Houses of Congress to the necessity of some such provision as this, intended, as it is, to defend the legislative power, which is the true sovereign power of the nation. Suppose the Supreme Court do make the decision apprehended, what will be the result? It will be the law in that individual case and no more. And a bill passed by the two Houses, upon full consideration, well matured as it ought to be, and which I take it this is not, can be enacted in time to prevent any further mischief to the country, if any mischief can be inflicted now by a decision of that sort."

Mr. Pruyn, of New York, said: "We have here to-day propositions of a most extraordinary character. First, we have had a proposition to strip ten States of every remaining evidence of their sovereignty, and the Executive of his constitutional power; and now we are startled by another measure calculated virtually to rob the Supreme Court of the United States of the authority which has given it influence, dignity, and strength before the country and before the world, and which has been conceded to that tribunal from the inauguration of the Government to the present time; and this measure is proposed, as the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Williams) has admitted, in view of the fact that that court may possibly make a decision which will come in conflict with the views and opinions of a majority of the members of this House. I am sure that this open, bold, daring avowal will strike the country with surprise; and I am glad to find that even the gentleman from Pennsylvania falters when he approaches this point, and wishes to have the measure considered with more care and more deliberation than the majority of this House seem disposed to give to it. I cordially agree with him, if any thing is to be done, if any outrage of this kind is to be perpetrated, it should be done at least with that regard to decency of form and time and action which will give its authors at least some pretence for inflicting it upon the country; and I trust, sir, without entering into any extended debate in reference to this matter, because it has come upon me most unexpectedly, that the suggestion of the gentleman from Pennsylvania, (Mr. Williams) to postpone this discussion to a future time, will receive the sanction of the House."

Mr. Spalding, of Ohio, said: "The question with me is, is action of this sort on the part of Congress by itself constitutional? That is, have we a right under the Constitution to provide that, in adjudicating upon constitutional questions, two-thirds of the Supreme Court shall unite in their opinion before an act shall be pronounced unconstitutional? If we have not the constitutional power thus to legislate, our action will be futile, because this same tribunal will scan it closely and pass upon it, and they may pronounce it unconstitutional. Even though it has the concurrence of both branches of Congress and the approval

of the President, the court can still declare it unconstitutional.

"Now, Mr. Speaker, I do not propose to take up much time in discussing this question; but I say that, if I were qualified for a seat upon the supreme bench of the United States, and had by any possibility arrived at that honor, nothing would gratify me more than the passage by Congress of the measure that is here introduced to-day by the chairman of the Judiciary Committee. I do not believe, now, at this moment, that any judge of that high tribunal would object to a requisition on the part of Congress that, in order to declare a naet of Congress unconstitutional, it shall require two-thirds of their number to pass upon the question. Why, it relieves them from very great responsibilities. It makes the decision more satisfactory to themselves and far more satisfactory to those whom the decision affects. It is not to be made by a single voice when the court consists of seven, three on one side and three on the other, and one man turns the scale. But it requires the united opinion of two-thirds of all the members of the Supreme Court to pronounce an act of Congress unconstitutional.

"Now, sir, I object to the amendment which requires that every judge shall assent to the decision, because I think that is requiring too much. It will not do to assume that the bench of judges of our country are perfect, any more than that the Senate and the House of Representatives of Congress are perfect. I grant you that there is less likelihood of their giving way to passion and caprice, because they are selected for their wisdom and experience and supposed stability."

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, moved to amend the amendment of the committee by adding thereto the following:

Provided, however, That if any circuit or district court of the United States shall adjudge any act of Congress to be unconstitutional or invalid, the judgment, before any further proceedings shall be had upon it, shall be certified up to the Supreme Court of the United States and shall be considered therein; and, if, upon the consideration thereof, two-thirds of all the members of the Supreme Court shall not affirm said judgment below, the same shall be declared and held reversed.

Mr. Woodward, of Pennsylvania, said: "The part of the bill to which I object is that part which requires two-thirds of the court, and the amendment the unanimous opinion of the judges, to declare an act of Congress unconstitutional. The amendment, as I once heard it read, requires the unanimous vote of the court, but the bill itself, as moved by the gentleman from Iowa, requires two-thirds. It is to that part of the bill I am here to object. The gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) may be very adroit in substituting another point, diverting our attention to that, but I am determined to keep my eyes steadily upon what I conceive to be the real objection to this bill. I say, in reply to the amendment and in reply

to the bill itself, so far as a two-thirds vote is concerned, it is an attempt on the part of the legislative department to dictate to the judicial department as to the manner in which they shall exercise their judicial power. That you cannot do. It is as gross an attempt as if the judiciary should dictate to the legislative department how it shall exercise its powers. It is not a question of quorum, it is a question of judicial power. You say it shall not be exercised in the manner in which it is exercised. The Constitution says that it shall be exercised by that body according to its responsibility to the people.

"Now, sir, I maintain, if the majority of the Supreme Court is competent to decide a question of property, a question of liberty, a question of life, it is competent to decide a constitutional question; and it possesses the right to decide it upon the same principles or tenure it decides the others. It holds power in both cases by virtue of the fundamental law of the land, and therefore Congress can neither add to nor subtract from it.

"This is my principal objection to the bill and amendment. Another less important objection is, that it will be found impracticable. I venture to affirm, if the House passes this bill or this amendment, or both the bill with the amendment, it will be found not only difficult but in some cases impossible for the court to mature its judgments on the principles of this bill. Suppose, sir, there are seven judges and seven sections of an act of Assembly or act of Congress—for State as well as Federal law may come before it—and one judge thinks it is unconstitutional for what is contained in one section, another judge for what is contained in another section; you may, if you please, suppose every judge shall declare that law to be unconstitutional for separate and distinct reasons; that for his own reasons he holds the law unconstitutional and for the reasons of the other judges he holds it to be constitutional, under this bill how is that court to decide that question? Is that law unconstitutional under the judgment of that court?"

Mr. Hubbard, of Connecticut, said: "The bill as it was reported requires, as I understand, a majority of two-thirds. The amendment offered by the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Williams) requires that there shall be unanimity of the bench. I agree with the gentleman who offered that amendment, that, if the bill reported by the committee can be justified, the amendment offered by himself can be justified on just the same grounds.

"Now, how is the Supreme Court constituted? It consists of those judges, and those only, who may be appointed by law to sit on that bench. How many are necessary to render judgment? That question is easily answered. A majority only, by the well-settled principle of the common law, is necessary to action in all public bodies, judicial or otherwise. In a private tribunal, as a board of arbitrators, for

instance, unanimity is required; but in a board composed of public officers a majority only is requisite. Now, when the Constitution provided a Supreme Court, the common law provided that a majority may pronounce the judgment of that court. If this be not so, then I ask, may not this Congress take away from the citizen the right of a jury trial? The Constitution provides that every citizen shall have this right. What constitutes a jury? Can this Congress determine that five, six, eight, or ten, or any number less or more than twelve, shall constitute a jury? By no manner of means. Why? Because the term jury had a common-law meaning when the Constitution was framed and adopted. And as the term jury had a definite common-law meaning which required unanimity in its decision, so the phrase Supreme Court had involved in it a common-law signification and rule which prescribed that as a law of the body a majority only was necessary to an award of judgment. Such being the fact, this Congress cannot alter the rule applicable to the court unless it can alter the rule applicable to the verdict of a jury. I deny, therefore, that the legislative power can determine what number is necessary to render judgment in a case before the Supreme Court.

"And this, I submit, has been the construction that has been put upon this question from the beginning. Among all the acts that have been referred to by the gentlemen who represent the other side of this question, there is not one to be found which is any thing else than a mere declaration of the common law requiring a mere majority to render a judgment of the court. There is not an act to be found that requires more than a majority. And those acts which require majorities are simply declaratory of the common law. I deny, therefore, that this Congress has any authority to say what shall constitute a quorum of the Supreme Court.

"But more than that, I submit that it would be both impolitic and inexpedient, even if this Congress were omnipotent in this regard, to attempt to enact such a rule as is embodied in either the bill reported by the committee or the amendment offered by the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Williams). It is perfectly well known that it is intended to reach a particular case; and this bill, without being printed, without allowing members of the House an opportunity of ever seeing it, but only of catching it by the ear as it fell from the Clerk, in hot, in indecent haste, is submitted to the House for action, and each one of us is required to pass upon it at the tap of the drum. Why this impetuous haste? Because it happens to be rumored—I know not whether truly or not—that the Supreme Court by a majority, perhaps by a large majority, are adverse to a particular measure upon which the majority of this Congress are disposed to stake their political life. Because they have learned in advance that the judicial mind of the Supreme Court condemns

the act they propose to muzzle, ay, sir, to muzzle the Supreme Court. While that court, from 1789 to the year of grace in which I am now speaking, has been ruling all questions, constitutional and otherwise, by the simple law of a majority which governs all judicial tribunals which are not the creatures of statute law; while it has been ruling all sorts of questions relating to property, relating to life, relating to liberty, relating to the Constitution by the simple law of majority, this Congress now, for purposes which, I submit, are neither honorable nor praiseworthy, proposes to muzzle the Supreme Court to the end that that court may not interfere with the will of this Congress with respect to the reconstruction measures."

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, said: "Mr. Speaker, I believe the first section of this bill has not been challenged by any gentleman who has addressed the House in opposition to this bill. That being the case, the whole principle of the bill is conceded by them. The first section provides that five judges shall constitute a quorum of the Supreme Court. Has any gentleman challenged that as being in conflict with the Constitution of the United States? If so, I have been unable to detect it in the confusion which has attended this debate.

"And does any gentleman upon the opposite side of the House challenge the constitutionality of the present law determining the number of justices who shall constitute a quorum of the Supreme Court? I have heard no such thing. And yet what is a quorum of the Supreme Court at this time? It is declared by law to consist of six judges. How many judges are there now on the Supreme Bench? Eight. So that the present statute violates the principle for which the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Woodward) contends, the common-law rule, that a majority shall constitute a quorum. The law as it now exists, making six judges a quorum in a Supreme Court of eight judges, violates that rule. Who questions its constitutionality?

"The gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Woodward) says that we cannot interfere with the judicial power; that we cannot pass any law that shall interfere with that power in any way. The gentleman from Connecticut (Mr. Hubbard) says that the Supreme Court is not the creature of Congress, but it is the creature of the Constitution of the United States. Well, sir, what kind of a creature is it, as declared by the Constitution?

The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish.

"Can we determine how many judges shall constitute the Supreme Court? The gentleman says that court is a creature of the Constitution. The Constitution declares there shall be a judicial department, and in that judicial department there shall be a Supreme Court. But it leaves entirely to Congress to determine

the number of judges which shall constitute the court. This of itself controls in no inconsiderable degree the question of how many members of the court shall constitute a quorum."

Mr. Hubbard, of Connecticut: "The Constitution of the United States provides that the judges of the Supreme Court shall be nominated and appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; so that the persons who are to go into that court as judges are not subject to Congress."

Mr. Wilson, of Iowa: "That is all very true, that the persons who are to go into that court as judges shall be selected in a certain way, and that way we cannot interfere with. But will the gentleman say that we cannot determine that the Supreme Court shall consist of one hundred judges, or that it shall consist of only five judges? And if that power is given to us, do we not control the quorum by the exercise of the power to determine how many judges shall be upon the Supreme Bench? If the majority rule is insisted upon and you have one hundred judges, the quorum will consist of fifty-one judges; if, on the other hand, we provide that five judges shall constitute the Supreme Court, the quorum would be composed of three judges.

"Then, as by the action of Congress, by the legislative department of the Government, the number constituting a quorum is changed; by fixing the number of judges we have the whole power so far as that question is concerned undoubtedly, for what we may do indirectly we may do directly in this respect, and I have never heard it questioned before, nor do I believe it has been since the organization of the Government down to this day. Acts have been passed from time to time by Congress, changing the number of judges on the Supreme Bench, and in all such instances the law has declared what shall constitute a quorum of the court.

"Now, sir, if we are to be deprived of this power by the common-law rule as to what should constitute a quorum, and again, by the principle contended for by the gentleman from Pennsylvania (Mr. Woodward), that a quorum constitutes the court, and with which we cannot interfere in any way, by direction or indirect, and that the court thus organized is bound as a court to decide every question presented to it to decide, I want him to harmonize this doctrine with that other principle which he affirms, that a majority of a quorum may exercise this judicial power and decide any question presented to the court. He says a majority constitutes a quorum; that with that we cannot interfere; that the quorum constitutes the court; that it is the duty of the court to decide. How can this be unless a number equal to a quorum concur in the opinion announced? If a quorum is the court, then the quorum is the unit? How can that be divided and a judgment rendered by a part of this unit? How, under the doctrine for which he con-

tends, can any decision be made by a bare majority of a quorum when the quorum is the unit in the constitution of the court? Does not this doctrine necessarily lead to the conclusion that no decision can be made by the court in which there is not a concurrence of the judges equal in number to a clear majority of the court? The principle contended for by the gentleman would render null and void a large number of decisions made by the Supreme Court of the United States, for very many of them have been made by a bare majority of a quorum. This doctrine is far more revolutionary than is any thing contained in this bill or the amendments which have been proposed to it."

The question was taken on Mr. Williams's amendment, and it was rejected,—yeas 25, nays 124.

The question was then taken on the amendment of Mr. Wilson, and it was adopted—yeas 111, nays 38.

The amendment of the committee was then agreed to, and the bill passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Garfield, Gravely, Griswold, Harding, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburt, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Laflin, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Mallory, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, Meurer, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Pomeroy, Price, Raun, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Aaron F. Stevens, Stokes, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and Woodbridge—116.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Barnum, Beck, Brooks, Burr, Chanler, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Goladady, Grover, Haight, Hawkins, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, McCormick, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stone, Taber, Lawrence, S. Trimble, Van Auken, Wood, and Woodward—39.

NOR VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Axtell, Barnes, Blaine, Boyer, Butler, Cary, Cook, Cornell, Eckley, Eldridge, Fields, Finney, Halsey, Asahel W. Hubbard, Jones, George V. Lawrence, Lynch, McCullough, Morgan, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Selye, Shellabarger, Starkweather, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Taft, Burt Van Horn, Van Trump, Van Wyck, and William B. Washburn—33.

In the Senate this bill was referred to the Judiciary Committee, and not further considered.

In the Senate, on March 11th, a bill to amend the act of 1789 was taken up, and passed.

It provided that final judgments in any circuit court of the United States, in any civil

action against a collector or other officer of the revenue, for any act done by him in the performance of his official duty, or for the recovery of any money exacted by or paid to him, which should have been paid into the Treasury of the United States, might, at the instance of either party, be reëxamined and reversed or affirmed, in the Supreme Court of the United States, upon writ of error, without regard to the sum or value in controversy in such action.

In the House, on March 12th, the bill was amended by adding the following section, and passed:

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That so much of the act approved February 5, 1867, entitled "An act to amend an act to establish the judicial courts of the United States, approved September 24, 1789," as authorizes an appeal from the judgment of the circuit court to the Supreme Court of the United States, or the exercise of any such jurisdiction by said Supreme Court on appeals which have been or may hereafter be taken, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

On the same day, the Senate concurred in the amendment, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, and Williams—32.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, and Vickers—6.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Johnson, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Sherman, Thayer, Wilson, and Yates—16.

On March 25th, the President returned the bill, with his objections, as follows:

To the Senate of the United States:

I have considered, with such care as the pressure of other duties has permitted, a bill entitled "An act to amend an act entitled 'An act to amend the Judiciary Act passed the 24th of September, 1789.'" Not being able to approve all its provisions, I herewith return it to the Senate, in which House it originated, with a brief statement of my objections.

The first section of the bill meets my approbation, as, for the purpose of protecting the rights of property from the erroneous decisions of inferior judicial tribunals, it provides means for obtaining uniformity by appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States in cases which have now become very numerous and of much public interest, and in which such remedy is not now allowed. The second section, however, takes away the right of appeal to that court in cases which involve the life and liberty of the citizen, and leaves them exposed to the judgment of numerous inferior tribunals. It is apparent that the two sections were conceived in a very different spirit, and I regret that my objection to one imposes upon me the necessity of withholding my sanction from the other.

I cannot give my assent to a measure which proposes to deprive any person, "restrained of his or her liberty in violation of the Constitution, or of any treaty or law of the United States," from the right of appeal to the highest judicial authority known to our Government. To "secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity" is one of the declared objects of the Federal Constitution. To assure these, guarantees are provided in the same instrument, as well against "unreasonable searches and seizures" as against the suspension of the priv-

ilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*, unless when, in cases of "rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it." It was, doubtless, to afford the people the means of protecting and enforcing these inestimable privileges that the jurisdiction which this bill proposes to take away was conferred upon the Supreme Court of the Union. The act conferring that jurisdiction was approved on the 5th day of February, 1867, with a full knowledge of the motives that prompted its passage, and because it was believed to be necessary and right. Nothing has since occurred to disapprove the wisdom and justness of the measure; and to modify it as now proposed would be to lessen the protection of the citizen from the exercise of arbitrary power and to weaken the safeguards of life and liberty, which can never be made too secure against illegal encroachments.

The bill not only prohibits the adjudication by the Supreme Court of cases in which appeals may hereafter be taken, but interdicts its jurisdiction on appeals which have already been made to that high judicial body. If, therefore, it should become a law, it will, by its retroactive operation, wrest from the citizen a remedy he enjoyed at the time of his appeal. It will thus operate most harshly upon those who believe that justice has been denied them in the inferior courts.

The legislation proposed in the second section, it seems to me, is not in harmony with the spirit and intention of the Constitution. It cannot fail to affect most injuriously the just equipoise of our system of Government; for it establishes a precedent which, if followed, may eventually sweep away every check on arbitrary and unconstitutional legislation. Thus far during the existence of the Government the Supreme Court of the United States has been viewed by the people as the true expounder of their Constitution, and in the most violent party conflicts its judgments and decrees have always been sought and deferred to with confidence and respect. In public estimation it combines judicial wisdom and impartiality in a greater degree than any other authority known to the Constitution; and any act which may be construed into or mistaken for an attempt to prevent or evade its decisions, on a question which affects the liberty of the citizens and agitates the country, cannot fail to be attended with unpropitious consequences. It will be justly held by a large portion of the people as an admission of the unconstitutionality of the act on which its judgment may be forbidden or forestalled, and may interfere with that willing acquiescence in its provisions which is necessary for the harmonious and efficient execution of any law.

For these reasons, thus briefly and imperfectly stated, and for others, of which want of time forbids the enumeration, I deem it my duty to withhold my assent from this bill, and to return it for the reconsideration of Congress.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 25, 1868.

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, the objections made by the President of the United States, in his message, to this bill, are based upon the second section. That section alone does not explain or enable us to understand its force and meaning. It is as follows:

That so much of the act approved February 5, 1867, entitled "An act to amend an act to establish the judicial courts of the United States," approved September 24, 1789, as authorizes an appeal from the judgment of the circuit court to the Supreme Court of the United States, or the exercise of any such jurisdiction by said Supreme Court on appeals which have been made or may hereafter be taken, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

"The section of the law which is thus re-

pealed is in part as follows. In the first place, the act of February 5, 1867, provides:

That the several courts of the United States, and the several justices and judges of such courts, within their respective jurisdictions, in addition to the authority already conferred by law, shall have power to grant writs of *habeas corpus* in all cases where any person may be restrained of his or her liberty in violation of the Constitution, or of any treaty or law of the United States.

"Then, toward the close of the section, it provides that—

From the final decision of any judge, justice, or court, inferior to the circuit court, an appeal may be taken to the circuit court of the United States for the district in which said cause is heard, and from the judgment of said circuit court to the Supreme Court of the United States, on such terms and under such regulations and orders, as well for the custody and appearance of the person alleged to be restrained of his or her liberty, as for sending up to the appellate tribunal a transcript of the petition, writ of *habeas corpus*, return thereto, and other proceedings, as may be prescribed by the Supreme Court, or, in default of such, as the judge hearing said cause may prescribe.

"The effect of this legislation is to give any citizen of the country the right to the writ of *habeas corpus* to be issued by any of the courts of the United States within their jurisdiction or by any judge of such court in the following case; that is:

Where any person may be restrained of his or her liberty in violation of the Constitution, or of any treaty or law of the United States.

"And either party interested in such a case as that may have his appeal from the circuit court of the United States to the Supreme Court; and now the bill which the President sends back with his objections repeals that clause which allows a party in any case an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States, where his liberty is withheld from him in violation of the Constitution or any law or treaty of the United States. Without reference to any particular case, without reference to any purpose that is to be subserved, why take away from a party an appeal to the Supreme Court in a case like that? Independent of all temporary considerations, independent of all possible party views, independent of the effect upon any pending cause, why is it that a party may not have an appeal to the Supreme Court from the judgment of the circuit court when the question is whether he be restrained of his liberty in violation of the Constitution of the United States or of any law or treaty of the United States? And, sir, in the discussion of this question, I shall be very happy to hear Senators upon the other side give a reason why an appeal ought not in such a case to be allowed to the Supreme Court of the United States. In all civil suits that are tried before the circuit courts of the United States, where the controversy is in regard to property of the amount of \$2,000, either party has his appeal to the Supreme Court. The legislation of the country assumes that where the matter in controversy is of less

value than two thousand dollars the cases are too trivial to bring before that tribunal, but whenever the matter in controversy is of the value of \$2,000 or more, either party shall be allowed his appeal.

"Now, Mr. President, in a case where a man's liberty is involved, ay, sir, under existing laws where his life may be involved, and the question has been brought before a circuit court of the United States, and the decision has been adverse to him, you say that he shall not have his appeal to the Supreme Court. I wish to know why.

"But, Mr. President, waiving that for the present, I wish to call the attention of the Senate to the fact that if a foreigner comes before any judge of a court of the United States, or before any of the Federal courts, and shows to that judge or that court that he is wrongfully restrained of his liberty, and that such restraint of his liberty is in violation and in disregard of a 'right, title, authority, privilege, protection, or exemption' which he sets up and claims 'under any commission or order or sanction of any foreign state or sovereignty, the validity and effect whereof depend upon the laws of nations, or under color thereof,' and the judge or court decides against his case, he has an appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States. Notice the fact, Mr. President, that you give to the foreigner in protection of his liberty an appeal to the Supreme Court when he says that he is entitled to his liberty by virtue of some regulation, order, or authority of his foreign government under the laws of nations; but when a citizen of the country in that same court claims his liberty in express terms under the Constitution, or under any treaty or law of the United States, you say he shall not have an appeal to the Supreme Court. Can Senators reconcile such legislation with the rights which the citizens may claim, and with the duties which we owe to the citizens themselves?

"Mr. President, under the act of the 2d of March, 1867, and the acts amendatory thereof, it is possible for the citizen to be arrested, to be taken before a tribunal unknown to our Constitution and system of laws, a military commission, to be held in custody, to be tried, condemned, and confined in prison or put to death. If, during the progress of these proceedings, he appeals to the circuit court of the United States having jurisdiction in the State, and the court refuses to restore him to liberty, refuses to protect him in his endangered life, you say he cannot come to the Supreme Court with that case. A trial is being had for his life before a court that is unknown to the Constitution, not only a court unknown to the Constitution and the laws, but a court which the Supreme Court of the United States has decided cannot become known to the Constitution and the laws of the United States for the purpose of trying a citizen; and being brought before such a court he seeks the protection of

his liberty, the safety of his life, in the Federal courts; and being denied that protection in the circuit court, he seeks his appeal to the Supreme Court of the United States, and Congress says, 'You shall not have it.' Now, upon general principles, can Senators reconcile that to their sentiments of right, to the security which the Constitution and the laws ought to afford to every citizen?

"Will Senators be good enough to recollect of a single instance in the history of any free Government where, for proper purposes, the jurisdiction of an appellate court has been taken away from a cause after that jurisdiction had attached? I do not mean the criminal courts, where jurisdiction sometimes falls by the repeal of the law defining the crime, but I speak of an appellate court of important jurisdiction, before which a case has come, and the jurisdiction of which has attached under existing law. When, in the history of this Government or of any State of this Union, was that jurisdiction expressly taken away? I know of no such case. It is understood that, when the law gives a man a right to bring his case into a court, he shall have that cause heard; that the Legislature will not come in after he has brought his case according to law, and take away the right to prosecute the case to a final hearing.

"But it is done here; and why? It is to reach the McCordle case. I do not know very much of that cause; I had not the opportunity to hear very much of the able argument in the Supreme Court; but I understand the facts to be these: McCordle was the publisher of a newspaper in the State of Mississippi, and in the publication of his paper he felt authorized to make criticisms upon the policy Congress had established in his State, and he felt authorized to make criticisms upon the conduct of the military officers who were carrying out this congressional policy in Mississippi, and the military officers caused him to be arrested and to be brought before a military commission to be put upon trial. At that stage of the case he appealed to the circuit court of the United States for that State for the writ of *habeas corpus*. The writ was issued, and when the officer returned to the court that this man was held in custody because he had published these articles in his newspaper, the circuit court held that return to be sufficient, and that the party should be remanded to the custody of the military officers. From that decision McCordle appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. Sir, why should he not be heard in that court? Had not the Supreme Court of the United States, with great unanimity, decided that a military commission could not try a citizen in a time of peace for an ordinary civil offence; that the Constitution had guaranteed to the citizen a trial before a jury, with full opportunities for defence? That was the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, and McCordle, when he was sent back by the cir-

cuit court to the dungeons of the military prison, prayed his appeal to the Supreme Court that he might come under the protecting wing of that court in its decision that the civil authority should be preserved in this country. That is the case that came to the Supreme Court. I understood the Senator from Illinois (Mr. Trumbull) to say that that case did not come within the provision of the act of the 5th of February, 1867, but that the right to issue the writ might well rest upon the act of 1789, and I think he occupied the same position in support of his motion in the court. Let us see how it stands."

The President *pro tempore*: "The question is, 'Shall the bill pass, notwithstanding the objections of the President of the United States?'"

The question being taken by yeas and nays, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Cragin, Edmunds, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—33.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, and Saulsbury—9.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Conness, Corbett, Doolittle, Drake, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Johnson, Sherman, Sprague, and Vickers—12.

In the House, the veto message was considered, when Mr. Wilson, of Iowa, said: "Now, sir, the House of Representatives has not, in the passage of this bill, moved one step beyond the line of power recognized by the Supreme Court of the United States. In 5 Wallace I find a decision made in the case of Insurance Company *vs.* Ritchie, the opinion being delivered by the Chief Justice, all the judges concurring, in which this doctrine is held:

The case before us is a case under the act of 1864. It is a case of which, because of the fact that the appellants and appellees are citizens of the same State, we have no jurisdiction except under the act of 1833; and the act of 1866 declares that the act of 1833 shall not be construed so as to apply to such a case.

This is equivalent to a repeal of an act giving jurisdiction of a pending suit; it is an express prohibition of the exercise of the jurisdiction conferred by the act of 1833 in cases arising under the internal revenue laws.

It is clear that when the jurisdiction of a cause depends upon a statute the repeal of the statute takes away the jurisdiction; and it is equally clear that where a jurisdiction conferred by statute is prohibited by a subsequent statute the prohibition is so far a repeal of the statute conferring the jurisdiction.

"The principle here recognized, of the power of Congress to divest a court of jurisdiction, and thus arrest the progress of cases pending, supports fully our power to pass this bill; and no one has or will seriously question it. The jurisdiction given to the court by the act of February 5, 1867, is the law of the remedy in and for cases coming within its provisions. We established it and may demolish it; we

passed the act and may repeal it, or any part thereof. If the McCordle case falls, the country may have escaped the danger of another political decision by a majority of the Supreme Court. I do not know how this may be, but I do know that in all this thing we have followed and are following strictly our constitutional power. We have kept within its lines as defined by the Supreme Court. We are exercising no doubtful power whatever, and its exercise in this instance is for a rightful, just, and proper purpose. The passage of this bill will give relief to the court and advance the interests of many waiting suitors, whose causes have been delayed by the persistent efforts which have been made to induce the court to enter upon political questions involved in the reconstruction legislation of Congress. It springs from higher considerations than those of hostility toward the court.

"Mr. Speaker, the gentleman cannot hope that the majority of this House, possessing the legislative power of the Government with the majority in the Senate, will yield, on any misconstruction of law or any political subterfuge, the right to settle into a condition of peace and repose this country, reorganize the rebel States upon just, firm, and abiding foundations, and restore them to the Union."

The bill was then passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Boutwell, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Coburn, Cook, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dixon, Dodge, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Gravely, Halsey, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Lafin, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Mallory, Maynard, McClurg, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Pomeroy, Price, Raum, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Selye, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Twichell, Upson, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and Woodbridge—114.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Beck, Brooks, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, McCormick, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Pruyn, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auker, and Woodward—34.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Allison, Barnum, Blair, Boyer, Butler, Cobb, Cornell, Donnelly, Ela, Finney, Garfield, Griswold, Grover, Haight, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Asahel W. Hubbard, Jones, George V. Lawrence, Lynch, Marvin, McCarthy, McCulloch, Morgan, Morrissey, Nunn, Phelps, Randall, Robertson, Robinson, Shellabarger, Starkweather, Stewart, Stokes, Trowbridge, Van Aernam, Van Trump, Henry D. Washburn, William Williams, and Wood—41.

The Speaker: "Two-thirds having voted in the affirmative, and it having been certified to

the House that the Senate, on a similar reconsideration, have, by a two-thirds vote, agreed to the passage of the bill, I do, by the authority of the Constitution of the United States, declare that, notwithstanding the objections of the President, the bill (S. No. 213) to amend an act entitled 'An act to amend the Judiciary Act, passed the 24th of September, 1789,' has become a law."

In the House, on July 11th, Mr. Boutwell, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported back a joint resolution from the Senate, which as amended was as follows:

That none of the States whose inhabitants were lately in rebellion shall be entitled to representation in the Electoral College for the choice of President or Vice-President of the United States, nor shall any electoral vote be received or counted from any of such States, unless, at the time prescribed by law for the choice of electors, the people of such States, pursuant to the acts of Congress in that behalf, shall have, since the 4th day of March, 1867, adopted a constitution of State government, under which a State government shall have been organized and shall be in operation, nor unless such election of electors shall have been held under the authority of such constitution and government; and such States shall have also become entitled to representation in Congress, pursuant to the acts of Congress in that behalf:

Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to apply to any State which was represented in Congress on the 4th of March, 1867.

The resolution was adopted—yeas 112, nays 21.

The Senate approved of the amendment, and the resolution was sent to the President, who, on July 20th, returned it with the following message:

To the Senate of the United States:

I have given to the joint resolution, entitled "A resolution excluding from the Electoral College votes of States lately in rebellion, which shall not have been reorganized," as careful examination as I have been able to bestow upon the subject during the few days that have intervened since the measure was submitted for my approval.

Feeling constrained to withhold my assent, I herewith return the resolution to the Senate, in which House it originated, with a brief statement of the reasons which have induced my action.

This joint resolution is based upon the assumption that some of the States whose inhabitants were lately in rebellion are not now entitled to representation in Congress and to participate in the election of President and Vice-President of the United States.

Having heretofore had occasion to give, in detail, my reasons for dissenting from this view, it is not necessary at this time to repeat them. It is sufficient to state that I continue strong in my conviction that the acts of secession, by which a number of the States sought to dissolve their connection with the other States and to subvert the Union, being unauthorized by the Constitution, and in direct violation thereof, were, from the beginning, absolutely null and void. It follows necessarily that, when the rebellion terminated, the several States which had attempted to secede continued to be States in the Union, and all that was required to enable them to resume their relations to the Union was, that they should adopt the measures necessary to their practical restoration as States. Such measures were adopted, and the legitimate result was, that those States, having conformed to all the requirements of the Constitution, resumed their

former relations, and became entitled to the exercise of all the rights guaranteed to them by its provisions.

The joint resolution under consideration, however, seems to assume that, by the surrectionary acts of their respective inhabitants, those States forfeited their rights as such, and can never again exercise them except upon readmission into the Union on the terms prescribed by Congress. If this position be correct, it follows that they were taken out of the Union by virtue of their acts of secession, and hence that the war waged upon them was illegal and unconstitutional. We would thus be placed in this inconsistent attitude, that while the war was commenced and carried on upon the distinct ground that the Southern States, being component parts of the Union, were in rebellion against the lawful authority of the United States, upon its termination we resort to a policy of reconstruction which assumes that it was not in fact a rebellion, but that the war was waged for the conquest of territories assumed to be outside of the constitutional Union.

The mode and manner of receiving and counting the electoral votes for President and Vice-President of the United States are in plain and simple terms prescribed by the Constitution. That instrument imperatively requires that the President of the Senate "shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted." Congress has, therefore, no power under the Constitution to receive the electoral votes or reject them. The whole power is exhausted when, in the presence of the two Houses, the votes are counted and the result declared. In this respect the power and duty of the President of the Senate are, under the Constitution, purely ministerial. When, therefore, the joint resolution declares that no electoral votes shall be received or counted from States that since the 4th of March, 1867, have not "adopted a constitution of State government under which a State government shall have been organized," a power is assumed which is nowhere delegated to Congress, unless upon the assumption that the State governments organized prior to the 4th of March, 1867, were illegal and void.

The joint resolution, by implication at least, concedes that these States were States by virtue of their organization prior to the 4th of March, 1867, but denies to them the right to vote in the election of President and Vice-President of the United States. It follows either that this assumption of power is wholly unauthorized by the Constitution, or that the States so excluded from voting were out of the Union by reason of the rebellion, and have never been legitimately restored. Being fully satisfied that they were never out of the Union, and that their relations thereto have been legally and constitutionally restored, I am forced to the conclusion that the joint resolution which deprives them of the right to have their vote for President and Vice-President received and counted is in conflict with the Constitution, and that Congress has no more power to reject their votes than those of the States which have been uniformly loyal to the Federal Union.

It is worthy of remark that if the States whose inhabitants were recently in rebellion were legally and constitutionally organized and restored to their rights prior to the 4th of March, 1867, as I am satisfied they were, the only legitimate authority under which the election for President and Vice-President can be held therein must be derived from the governments instituted before that period.

It clearly follows that all the State governments organized in those States under acts of Congress for that purpose, and under military control, are illegitimate and of no validity whatever; and, in that view, the votes cast in those States for President and Vice-President, in pursuance of acts passed since the 4th of March, 1867, and in obedience to the so-called reconstruction acts of Congress, cannot be legally received and counted; while the only votes in those

States that can be legally cast and counted, will be those cast in pursuance of the laws in force in the several States prior to the legislation by Congress upon the subject of reconstruction.

I cannot refrain from directing your special attention, to the declaration contained in the joint resolution, that "none of the States whose inhabitants were lately in rebellion shall be entitled to representation in the Electoral College," etc.

If it is meant by this declaration that no State is to be allowed to vote for President and Vice-President, all of whose inhabitants were engaged in the late rebellion, it is apparent that no one of the States will be excluded from voting, since it is well known that in every Southern State there were many inhabitants who not only did not participate in the rebellion, but who actually took part in its suppression, or refrained from giving it any aid or countenance. I therefore conclude that the true meaning of the joint resolution is, that no State, a portion of whose inhabitants were engaged in the rebellion, shall be permitted to participate in the presidential election, except upon the terms and conditions therein prescribed.

Assuming this to be the true construction of the resolution, the inquiry becomes pertinent, may those Northern States, a portion of whose inhabitants were actually in the rebellion, be prevented at the discretion of Congress from having their electoral votes counted? It is well known that a portion of the inhabitants of New York and a portion of the inhabitants of Virginia were alike engaged in the rebellion, yet it is equally well known that Virginia, as well as New York, was at all times during the war recognized by the Federal Government as a State in the Union—so clearly, that upon the termination of hostilities it was not even deemed necessary for her restoration that a provisional Governor should be appointed. Yet, according to this joint resolution, the people of Virginia, unless they comply with the terms it prescribes, are denied the right of voting for President, while the people of New York, a portion of the inhabitants of which State were also in rebellion, are permitted to have their electoral votes counted without undergoing the process of reconstruction prescribed for Virginia. New York is no more a State than Virginia; the one is as much entitled to be represented in the Electoral College as the other. If Congress has the power to deprive Virginia of this right, it can exercise the same authority with respect to New York or any other of the States. Thus the result of the presidential election may be controlled and determined by Congress, and the people be deprived of their right under the Constitution to choose a President and Vice-President of the United States.

If Congress were to provide by law that the votes of none of the States should be received and counted if cast for a candidate who differed in political sentiment with a majority of the two Houses, such legislation would at once be condemned by the country as an unconstitutional and revolutionary usurpation of power. It would, however, be exceedingly difficult to find in the Constitution any more authority for the passage of the joint resolution under consideration than for an enactment looking directly to the rejection of all votes not in accordance with the political preferences of a majority of Congress. No power exists in the Constitution authorizing the joint resolution or the supposed law, the only difference being that one would be more palpably unconstitutional and revolutionary than the other. Both would rest upon the radical error that Congress has the power to prescribe terms and conditions to the right of the people of the States to cast their votes for President and Vice-President.

For the reasons thus indicated, I am constrained to return the joint resolution to the Senate for such further action thereon as Congress may deem necessary.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, July 20, 1868.

In the Senate, the bill was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conklin, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborne, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Rice, Ross, Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—45.

NAYS—Messrs. Buckalew, Davis, Doolittle, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Vickers, and Whyte—8.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Dixon, Fowler, Grimes, Norton, Pool, Ramsey, Saulsbury, and Thayer—9.

In the House, the resolution was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baldwin, Banks, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blackburn, Blair, Boles, Boutwell, Bowen, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Delano, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, French, Garfield, Goss, Griswold, Hamilton, Heaton, Higby, Hill, Hinds, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jencks, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kootz, Lafin, Lash, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Maynard, McCarthy, McClurg, McKee, Mercier, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Pomeroy, Raum, Robertson, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Thaddeus Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Sypher, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Vidal, Ward, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and Woodbridge—134.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Beck, Boyden, Boyer, Brooks, Cary, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Holman, Hotchkiss, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, McCullough, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Randall, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stone, Taber, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Aukun, Wood, and Woodward—36.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Baker, Barnum, Beaman, Blaine, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Chanler, Cornell, Deweese, Dockery, Dodge, Finney, Gravely, Halsey, Harding, Hawkins, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Julian, Kitehen, George V. Lawrence, Mann, Marvin, McCormick, Morrissey, Mungen, Newcomb, Newsham, Price, Pruyn, Robinson, Roots, Selye, Shellabarger, Aaron F. Stevens, John Trimble, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Trump, and Cadwalader C. Washburn—40.

The Speaker: "On the question, 'Will the House, on reconsideration, agree to the passage of the joint resolution?' the yeas are 134, and the nays 36. Two-thirds having voted in the affirmative, and it having been certified from the Senate of the United States that upon a similar vote upon reconsideration two-thirds of that body have agreed to the passage of the joint resolution, I do, by the authority of the Constitution of the United States, declare that

the joint resolution, excluding from the Electoral College votes of States lately in rebellion, which shall not have been reorganized, has become a law, notwithstanding the objections of the President."

In the Senate, on January 31st, the resolution of the Legislature of Ohio, withdrawing its assent to the fourteenth article of amendment to the Constitution, was presented.

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "Mr. President, I cannot allow these resolutions to be entered upon the Journal of the Senate, without making some remarks upon them. They do not speak the voice of the people of Ohio. Of that I am entirely convinced. The people of Ohio, a little more than one year ago, passed on the amendment of the Constitution of the United States proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and adopted it by a popular majority of about forty-three thousand, electing fifteen Republican members of Congress out of nineteen. In the canvass there was a unanimity of sentiment in regard to the constitutional amendment that scarcely ever occurs on a political question. The people of Ohio have never reconsidered that judgment. The resolutions now read are the voice of a partisan majority in the General Assembly of Ohio, elected by a minority of the people of Ohio, on an issue totally different and disconnected from the constitutional amendment. Their proceeding is in violation of the expressed wish of the people of Ohio, who do not desire to rescind their assent to the amendment. These resolutions may not be a usurpation of authority, perhaps, but they are contrary to the only vote ever cast in Ohio when the subject was discussed or considered."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "The resolutions from the Legislature of Ohio are so important in character, and so without any precedent I believe in our history, that I think they justify remark even by a Senator who has not the honor of any special association with the State.

"It seems to me very clear that the authors of these resolutions have accomplished nothing except to exhibit their own blind prejudices. By the Constitution of the United States a State may give its assent to a constitutional amendment. There is no provision for any withdrawal of such assent when once given. The assent of the State once given is final. A State, I do not hesitate to say, can no more withdraw such assent than it can withdraw from the Union; and on the latter proposition I believe there is now a universal accord. But happily, sir, the extraordinary effort of an accidental Legislature is absolutely impotent. The amendment in question is already a part of the Constitution of the United States, and in full vigor, even without the assent of Ohio."

Mr. Johnson, of Maryland, said: "Mr. President, if the honorable member from Massa-

chusetts is right in saying that the amendment has been adopted by the necessary number of States, it will, of course, result in the proposition that no one State which has assented to it can withdraw that assent. The honorable member is not now to be for the first time informed that that is a question about which there are differences of opinion; and whether the opinion which he pronounces is right or wrong depends upon the proposition which has been more or less discussed in the present debate whether the ten Southern States are not now States, and have not been States, throughout the war. If they are States within the meaning of the Constitution, then the amendment has not been adopted.

"Now, upon the other question, supposing the amendment not to have been adopted, I state, subject to be corrected if I am in error, what my present impression is. The Constitution provides that propositions for amendments of it may be submitted to the States, and that when they are assented to by three-fourths of the States they shall become a part of the Constitution. Now, whether, before the assent of three-fourths, it is not in the power of any one of the States or all of the States assenting to withdraw that assent, is a question upon which I am not to be understood as now expressing any decided opinion; but my impression is that they can withdraw; for, if not, it would remain forever binding upon the States assenting, and when the proposition should be renewed at any subsequent period, or when the States who had not assented, eight or ten or fifteen years after the time, when there was an absence of that assent necessary to give validity to the amendment, they would have no right to reconsider their action.

"As I say, that is my first impression. Now, I look upon what the States do preliminary to a decision of a majority which, when made, makes the amendment proposed a part of the Constitution, as a mere promise or undertaking that each will assent when the others are ready to assent, but that the day after the assent is given, or at any period subsequent to the giving of the assent, if the State assenting thinks that it has made a mistake, and that the Constitution should not be amended in the way proposed, it may withdraw its assent."

The resolution was referred to the Judiciary Committee.

In the House, on March 30th, Mr. Washburne, of Illinois, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the resolution of the Legislature of the State of New Jersey, purporting to withdraw the assent of said State to the constitutional amendment known as the fourteenth amendment, be returned by the Speaker of the House to the gentleman who presented it, for the reason that the same is disrespectful to the House and scandalous in character, and that its title only shall be referred to in the Journal of the House and in the Congressional Globe.

The rules were suspended, yeas 80, nays 17, and the resolution was adopted.

In the Senate, on July 21st, the following resolution was adopted without a count:

Whereas, the Legislatures of the States of Connecticut, Tennessee, New Jersey, Oregon, Vermont, West Virginia, Kansas, Missouri, Indiana, Ohio, Illinois, Minnesota, New York, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Michigan, Nevada, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Nebraska, Maine, Iowa, Arkansas, Florida, North Carolina, Alabama, South Carolina, and Louisiana, being three-fourths and more of the several States of the Union, have ratified the fourteenth article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States duly proposed by two-thirds of each House of the Thirty-ninth Congress: Therefore,

Be it resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That said fourteenth article is hereby declared to be a part of the Constitution of the United States, and it shall be duly promulgated as such by the Secretary of State.

On the same day it passed the House—yeas 126, nays 35.

The amendment was also adopted on the same day by the Legislature of Georgia, by thirty-four majority on joint ballot.

The following announcement was made by the Secretary of State, on July 20th, relative to the same amendment:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, SECRETARY OF STATE OF THE UNITED STATES—TO ALL TO WHOM THESE PRESENTS MAY COME, GREETING:

Whereas, the Congress of the United States, on or about the sixteenth day of June, in the year one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight, passed a resolution which is in the words and figures following, to wit:

Joint Resolution proposing an Amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be valid as part of the Constitution, namely:

ARTICLE 14—SEC. 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SEC. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed; but when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State (being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States), or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in said State.

SEC. 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector, or President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; but Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disabilities.

SEC. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States authorized by law, including debts incurred for pay-

ment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned; but neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SEC. 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article.

SCHUYLER COLFAX,

Speaker of the House of Representatives.

LAFAYETTE S. FOSTER,

President of the Senate *pro tempore*.

Attest—EDWARD McPHERSON, Clerk of the House of Representatives.

J. W. FORNEY, Secretary of the Senate.

And *whereas*, by the second section of the act of Congress, approved the 20th of April, 1818, entitled "An act to provide for the publication of the laws of the United States, and for other purposes," it is made the duty of the Secretary of State forthwith to cause any amendment to the Constitution of the United States which has been adopted according to the provisions of the said Constitution, to be published in the newspapers authorized to promulgate the laws, with his certificate specifying the States by which the same may have been adopted, and that the same has become valid to all intents and purposes as a part of the Constitution of the United States;

And *whereas* neither the act just quoted nor any other law expressly or by conclusive implication authorizes the Secretary of State to determine and decide doubtful questions as to the authenticity of the organization of State Legislatures or as to the power of any State Legislature to recall a previous act or resolution of ratification of any amendments proposed to the Constitution;

And *whereas* it appears from official documents on file in this department that the amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed as aforesaid has been ratified by the Legislatures of the States of Connecticut, New Hampshire, Tennessee, New Jersey, Oregon, Vermont, New York, Ohio, Illinois, West Virginia, Kansas, Maine, Nevada, Missouri, Indiana, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Massachusetts, Nebraska, and Iowa;

And *whereas* it further appears from documents on file in this department that the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proposed as aforesaid, has also been ratified by the newly-constituted and newly-established bodies, avowing themselves to be and acting as the Legislatures respectively of the States of Arkansas, Florida, North Carolina, Louisiana, South Carolina, and Alabama;

And *whereas* it further appears from official documents on file in this department that the Legislatures of two of the States first above enumerated, to wit, Ohio and New Jersey, have since passed resolutions respectively withdrawing the consent of each of said States to the aforesaid amendment;

And *whereas* it is deemed a matter of doubt and uncertainty whether such resolutions are not irregular and invalid, and therefore ineffectual for withdrawing the consent of the said two States, or either of them, to the aforesaid amendment;

And *whereas* the whole number of States in the United States is thirty-seven, to wit: New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Texas, Iowa, Wisconsin, Minnesota, California, Oregon, Kansas, West Virginia, Nevada, and Nebraska;

And *whereas*, the twenty-three States first herein-before named whose Legislatures have ratified the said proposed amendment, and the six States next thereafter named as having ratified the said proposed amendment by newly constituted and established

legislative bodies, together constitute three-fourths of the whole number of States in the United States:

Now, therefore, be it known that I, William H. Seward, Secretary of State of the United States, by virtue and in pursuance of the second section of the act of Congress approved the twentieth day of April, eighteen hundred and eighteen, hereinbefore cited, do hereby certify that if the resolutions of the Legislatures of Ohio and New Jersey, ratifying the aforesaid amendment, are to be deemed as remaining of full force and effect, notwithstanding the subsequent resolutions of the Legislatures of these States which purport to withdraw the consent of said States from such ratification, then the aforesaid amendment has been ratified in the manner hereinbefore mentioned and so has become valid to all intents and purposes as a part of the Constitution of the United States.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the Department of State to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this twentieth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight and of the independence of the United States of America the ninety-third.

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

Mr. Schenck, of Ohio, from the Committee of Ways and Means, reported a bill to repeal the tax on cotton. He said: "Sir, I will but say, in reference to this tax on cotton, every one knows and understands it to have been an exceptional tax and a departure from the ordinary principle which prevails in our legislation in the United States, not to impose a burden upon an agricultural product. The tax, on the part of those who voted for it, of whom I was one, under the original proposition was considered justified in some degree, perhaps as a war measure, or rather as a measure following upon the heel of the war and relating to matters which had been affected by the disturbance of the country. It was also supported on the ground that there was but little revenue to be derived from the Southern part of the country except through a tax of this kind. And it was justified generally by the anomalous condition of all that was then existing and in a measure exists up to this time in that part of the country. The time has now arrived, I believe, in the general judgment of the country, and certainly in the unanimous judgment of the Ways and Means Committee, to remove that tax. And it will be observed that we propose to remove it prospectively. If this matter had come up for consideration as long ago as September last, when the cotton crop of the present year was just coming into market, and when it had not passed from the hands of the grower, it is not impossible that the committee might have recommended to the House to make the law take immediate effect upon its passage; but the condition of things has very much changed since that date.

Mr. Brooks, of New York, said: "In the main I perfectly concur in the remarks of the chairman of the committee; that is, I insist upon our retracing our steps, because this matter of the taxation of cotton to the extent of \$20,000,000 per annum is a bounty to that ex-

tent for the products of Great Britain in her India possessions and the products of Egypt and Brazil. Indeed, the percentage or premium which we give to the foreign cotton by our tax is computed by the Treasury agent, Mr. Wells, to be over fifty per cent., while by cotton brokers and commercial men it is computed to amount to seventy-five per cent. Hence, admitting this tax to have been a mistake, in which all agree, the only difference is when we shall correct the mistake. In regard to that I differ from the honorable chairman of the committee.

"Now is the accepted time, and now is the day, in my opinion, while in the opinion of the majority of the committee this doing right is to be postponed till the crop of another year, and there is to be a continuance of this wrong for a year from now."

Mr. Niblack, of Indiana, said: "I have always been opposed to it for the reason that influences the gentleman from Ohio. In the first place, it was an exceptional tax, so conceded; in the next place I thought it unjust and impolitic. So long as cotton commanded a high price, this tax was not so much felt. It was not a matter of so much consequence to the producer when this tax was put on as it has assumed to be during the present depressed condition of the cotton interest. Still, it was an impolitic measure. Being opposed, therefore, to this tax from the beginning, my first impulse was to agree to something like the proposition of the gentleman from New York (Mr. Brooks), to take off the tax at once. On examining the question, however, I came to the conclusion that we could not do so justly without refunding to those who have already paid taxes upon the present year's crop. Upon inquiry at the Treasury Department, and at the office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, I ascertained further that this act could never be carried out without great trouble and considerable cost, and even then perhaps not very satisfactorily. I also ascertained, upon inquiry of those who are more familiar with the subject of cotton-growing than I am, that by this time the greater portion of the small producers, the poor men who are engaged in growing cotton, have already parted with their crop and paid the tax on it, or at least have sold it at a price corresponding to the addition of the tax. In that view of the case, to adopt the proposition of the gentleman from New York (Mr. Brooks), it seems to me, would have the effect to take from these people the amount they have already paid in taxes. It would be a discrimination against men who are least able to submit to the loss."

Mr. Griswold, of New York, said: "Mr. Speaker, I rise to submit a few remarks on the question now before the House, mainly because of the position I occupied at the time the tax was imposed. When the House considered and decided that matter, I differed with the members of the Committee of Ways and Means in

regard to the policy of imposing a tax upon cotton. It will be remembered, sir, at that time cotton was bringing in market from forty to fifty cents per pound, and had brought that price for at least a year prior to that time. It will be remembered further that it had then the command of the English market; that American cotton was consumed in England to an extent of not less than eighty per cent. of the whole consumption in Great Britain. It was regarded at that time, under all these circumstances, as an interest which could well stand the imposition of a tax of two and a half or three cents per pound. I took the ground upon the floor, differing from the distinguished gentleman from Massachusetts, and from what I considered the best authority, I claimed at a shilling sterling the American cotton would control the market in England and be the cotton of cheap consumption. Now, Mr. Speaker, the condition of things has changed entirely. Cotton, instead of being an exception to the products of the soil which could stand taxation, is really the one exception against imposition; that is to say, there is no product of the soil which to-day will not bear a direct tax better than the article of cotton. And now, sir, instead of supplying eighty per cent. of the whole consumption in England, it has been reduced to forty per cent. According to the able report of Mr. Wells, the special commissioner, it was reduced eight per cent. in 1864. It is evident, at the present rate, cotton cannot be produced except at a loss, and considering that fact and the fact of the importance of that product to this country, there can be no difference in this House, I think, as to the policy of removing that tax. I beg to assure my colleague (Mr. Brooks) that the motive at the time was not to punish the South. Congress was then engaged in searching out avenues by which it could fill its Treasury. As I said before, at the price cotton then brought it could well bear a tax of two and a half cents per pound. I believe there was no member of the Thirty-eighth or Thirty-ninth Congress who was animated at all by a desire to punish the South in imposing that tax."

Mr. McCarthy, of New York, said: "The retention of this tax does in a measure protect the wool-growers; and, while furnishing \$20,000,000 of revenue to the Government, also adds so much to the cost of manufacturing in Europe, and operates as a protection here at home. I am not prepared to criticise the motives of those who advocate this measure; but an examination will prove that it will benefit not so much the cotton-grower as the dealer, the shipper, and the British manufacturer. How far these interests are to have special favors time may tell. Before this \$20,000,000 of revenue is taken off, I want to know how it is to be replaced. Is the remission of this tax to impose additional burdens upon other interests that are equally a necessity and are equally suffering (to which I object), or is

the deficiency of revenue to be made up by economy and retrenchment? Common justice demands that all the necessary interests of our country should share the burdens of taxation equally. I claim that the Committee of Ways and Means should hold this question in abeyance until they can show how this deficit of \$20,000,000 is to be made good."

After a brief debate the bill was ordered to be engrossed, read the third time, and passed, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Adams, Allison, Ames, Anderson, Archer, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Barnes, Barnum, Beaman, Beck, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Boyer, Bromwell, Brooks, Broomall, Buckland, Burr, Cake, Cary, Chanler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Cullom, Dawes, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Eldridge, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Getz, Glossbrenner, Gravelly, Griswold, Grover, Haight, Halsey, Hamilton, Hawkins, Hill, Holman, Hooper, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Chester D. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Hunter, Ingersoll, Johnson, Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Koontz, Lafin, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Logan, Loughridge, Mallory, Marshall, Marvin, Maynard, McClurg, McCullough, Moore, Moorhead, Morgan, Morrell, Mullins, Mungen, Myers, Newcomb, Niblack, Nicholson, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Payne, Perham, Peters, Phelps, Pile, Plants, Polsley, Price, Prunyn, Randall, Robertson, Robinson, Ross, Sawyer, Schenck, Shanks, Sitgreaves, Smith, Spalding, Stewart, Stokes, Stone, Taber, Taylor, Thomas, Trimble, Trowbridge, Upson, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Trump, Van Wyck, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and Woodward—146.

NAYS—Messrs. Benjamin, Benton, Butler, Cornell, Covode, Ela, Ferriss, Harding, Higby, Jenckes, Kelsey, Lynch, McCarthy, Miller, Pike, Poland, Starkweather, Aaron F. Stevens, Thaddeus Stevens, and Ward—20.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Axtell, Banks, Dixon, Finney, Fox, Asahel W. Hubbard, Kitchen, Loan, Mercier, Morrissey, Pomeroy, Raum, Scofield, Selye, Shelabarger, Taffe, Twichell, Burt Van Horn, Wood, and Woodbridge—20.

In the Senate, on December 13th, the bill was taken up.

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "It is scarcely necessary for me to explain the necessity or the reasons for this bill, because those reasons are matters of public notoriety known to most Senators. We have an official report from the special commissioner of revenue, Mr. Wells, strongly urging it, and setting forth very cogently the reasons why the tax should be repealed. He recommends its repeal not only for the next year, but for the present year. The bill comes to us from the House of Representatives in its present form, and does not affect the tax on cotton grown during the present year, but only applies to the future crop. As preparations are now being made all over the South for the next year's crop, it is important that the action of Congress on this subject should be definitely fixed before any adjournment for the holidays. It is urged by

many persons in the South, some of whom are here, that the planters should know now, before the holidays, whether or not it is advisable for them to proceed to raise cotton next year or other crops, as during the holidays, or at the beginning of the new year, they make their contracts with their hands with a view to the labor to be employed during the year. I hope, therefore, the subject will be acted upon.

"If Senators desire any further information, I have official documents here, and quite a number of letters on the subject, showing the absolute importance of repealing this tax. The price of cotton has now gone so low, that it is said that even without the tax it will not pay the expense of raising it. I have letters from gentlemen for whom I can vouch, who removed from the State of Ohio and went South, and who have done all they could to develop that region of country by the raising of cotton, who say, that at present prices there is an actual loss of money with the utmost care on their part, and if they are compelled to pay the tax, even for the present year, they will be ruined in some cases. As, however, the House bill does not propose to relieve them from the tax for the present year, the Committee on Finance thought it was scarcely worth while to propose to amend the proposition, as there would probably be great division of opinion upon it here, and there had been a vote already taken on it in the other House. The committee, therefore, reported the bill without amendment."

Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, said: "In this instance I do not coincide with the action either of the House of Representatives or of the Finance Committee. I think it would be much wiser, and it would be a greater relief to the South, to take the tax off manufactured cotton rather than off the raw material. There are quite a number of facts and statistics which, without occupying a great deal of time, I should like to submit to the Senate when the bill comes up for action."

Mr. Pomeroy, of Kansas, said: "I am confident, as I have always been, that this tax discourages production. I have many acquaintances in the South, and I am sure that you cannot get Northern men to go down there and raise cotton while this tax is imposed, and if they cannot raise it I do not suppose any will be raised. I am anxious to come to a vote and strike off the tax. I think, however, it might act injuriously to strike it off from the present crop, because that has got out of the hands of the producers to a great extent, and is in the hands, if not of speculators, of merchants who did not produce it. They have bought it with the tax paid, and I do not think we should interfere with their arrangements. I do not like laws that are retrospective. Let this repeal be prospective and apply only to the crop raised hereafter. If applying it to this year's crop would relieve the producers, I

should not object; but it is beyond that now, it is too late for them; we cannot relieve them. We cannot relieve the men who raised the cotton and lost money in doing it. It has got into other hands."

On December 20th the bill was further considered.

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "This is not, and cannot be considered, a political question, and it ought not to be affected by political considerations. We claim to be Senators of the United States of America, and we are bound to do that which we would do if all these States were represented by two Senators each on this floor. Would they possibly elect a Senator from any of these Southern States, whether white or black, loyal or rebel, who would not demand as the first act of his official life the repeal of this obnoxious cotton tax? We know that they would demand it, and we should feel a sense of justice that would impel us to grant, at least to a reasonable extent, some relief from this oppressive tax. There is no doubt that if these States were represented here by twenty Senators, this question could not rest in doubt for a moment. The House of Representatives felt the weight of this subject upon them, and promptly, by a very large vote—"

Mr. Morton: "And without debate."

Mr. Sherman: "And without debate felt bound to relieve this suffering interest by prompt and decided action. The same feeling prevailed in the Committee on Finance. We had representations made to us which, if I should read them to this Senate, would move them; it would be impossible for them not to feel the force of these statements as to the condition of the people of the Southern States. Look at it. Now, when their staple is brought into market, one-fourth of all their production is taken by the tax-gatherer; and not only that, but there are very severe and onerous regulations which require them to bring their cotton to one place in a congressional district, making difficulties and delay, and then one-fourth of their product is taken to pay the tax when the other three-fourths will not pay more than one-half of the expense of raising the raw cotton. This was not foreseen when we laid this tax. I voted for the first cotton tax. Then it was a tax of five per cent. Last year the Senate, by a very decided vote, reduced the tax to one cent a pound; and, probably, if it had been left at that there would have been no serious complaint, no demand for immediate action, and we should have collected the one cent per pound without great suffering in the South. But when we impose a tax of two and a half cents per pound, thus taking from the producer of the cotton one-fourth of all his labor, and leaving the rest, totally insufficient to furnish him the necessities of life, I say it makes a case of oppression which the Senate of the United States ought promptly to relieve."

Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, said: "There is

one point which has been referred to in the course of this debate, to which I desire to allude, and that is in regard to the injustice of allowing a drawback on the manufacture of cotton. If we could manufacture the whole of this cotton in this country, as it seems to me we could by the continuance of that policy, would there be any man in the United States unwilling to yield up the amount of the entire tax for the sake of the great gains, and profits, and benefits resulting to this country in employing so large a share of labor in turning that cotton into manufactures, and sending it abroad doubled in value? Is there any objection to doubling the value of the exports of the South? Why should we be unwilling to allow these people an opportunity to double their exports? I think it can be done. We allow the drawback on the manufactured article in order to find a foreign market and to keep our people at work. Do we not allow it in all other instances of manufacture? If foreigners thereby get our cotton manufactures at cheaper rates than our own people, do they not get whiskey, tobacco, and petroleum, also cheaper?

"We had up early a kindred subject, about which, I think, we made a sad mistake, and that was the subject of petroleum. We first levied a duty on the crude petroleum and then on the refined; and we allowed a drawback in both instances. In my judgment it was a great mistake. We have a monopoly of that article. If we had levied a duty upon the crude article, and also on the manufactured, and allowed a drawback on the manufactured article the same as we do upon cotton, we should have largely increased our revenues; and we should have benefited our own country, because we should have allowed our own people to refine all that is now consumed abroad, and the quantity is immense."

Mr. Conkling, of New York, moved to amend, so that the bill should read as follows:

That all raw cotton grown in the United States during the year 1868 shall be exempt from internal tax.

This was agreed to—yeas 24, nays 20.

On motion of Mr. Drake, of Missouri, the following amendment was concurred in:

But nothing herein contained shall be construed to require any additional provisions of law in order to authorize the levy and collection of said tax upon all such cotton grown therein after the said year.

On motion of Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, the following amendment was concurred in:

Provided, That the duty on raw cotton imported from foreign countries on and after April 1, 1868, and until April 1, 1869, shall be suspended.

The bill was then passed, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Buckalew, Cattell, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Henderson, Johnson, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Saulsbury, Sherman, Van Winkle, Williams, and Wilson—25.

NAYS—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Harlan, How-

ard, Howe, Morrill of Vermont, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Stewart, Thayer, Tipton, and Wade—12.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Conkling, Conness, Drake, Ferry, Fessenden, Guthrie, Hendricks, Morton, Nye, Sprague, Sumner, Trumbull, Willey, and Yates—16.

The House having refused to assent to the amendments of the Senate, and the latter having declined to recede, a committee of conference was appointed on January 20th.

In the Senate, on January 22d, Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, from the committee of conference on the cotton-tax bill, reported that they were unable to agree. He said: "The House of Representatives have asked for another committee of conference. The Senate conferees were not prepared to abandon the position taken by the Senate; and now, in order to relieve us from the difficulty in which we are placed, I will move that the Senate agree to the further conference asked by the House of Representatives, and that the Senate conferees be instructed to recede from the Senate amendments, with some provision allowing imported cotton to be admitted duty free. I will make this motion with a view to relieve the difficulty that exists between the two Houses on the cotton-tax bill. It should be remembered by Senators that the House passed a bill repealing or suspending indefinitely the cotton tax. The Senate amended the bill so as to suspend the tax for a year simply. The House conferees, in the free conference which we had, refused to agree to that amendment, and as things now stand the bill will be lost unless some arrangement is made by which a concurrence may be brought about. For the purpose of doing that I move that we agree to the new conference, and that the second committee of conference on the part of the Senate be instructed to recede from the Senate amendments, with some provision, which the House, I understand, are willing to agree to, that imported cotton shall be admitted duty free, so as to restore the state of the law to the precise condition it was before the war. I make that motion."

Mr. Conkling, of New York, said: I think it fair, before the Senate votes upon this proposition, that it should know one fact in reference to the management of the question in the conference committee. I will venture to state so much of what transpired in committee as this: the managers on the part of the Senate did not stand simply upon the vote of the Senate in what they proposed, but the sense of the managers on the part of the House was taken upon a proposition suspending the tax, in accordance with the vote of the Senate, for a year, and reducing it largely for the future if it should continue. That proposition was rejected, and the managers on the part of the House stood simply, first and last, upon the bill as passed by the House. As the honorable Senator from Ohio (Mr. Sherman) has said, there was no contrariety of opinion in reference to the provision of the Senate amend-

ments touching the import duty upon foreign cotton; but, as to the subject-matter which the conference really met to dispose of, there was no proposition on the part of the managers of the House, except that we should accept the House bill precisely as it stood. In that view of the case, and regardless of the private convictions of the managers on the part of the Senate, it was thought that we were not at liberty to part with the whole question, and sacrifice the position which had been taken by the Senate twice, upon a vote by the yeas and nays, by a decided majority; and, indeed, a third time, by ordering the conference."

The motion was agreed to.

On the 23d the committee of conference reported, and recommended that the Senate recede from their amendment to the bill, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows: Add to the bill the words, "And cotton, imported from foreign countries, on and after July 1, 1868, shall be exempt from duty."

The report was concurred in by the Senate, but rejected by the House.

The Senate, on January 28th, resolved to insist, and agreed to a further conference, to which the House also agreed. On January 30th, the committee made the same report as the previous one, excepting the date of importation, which was changed to November 1st.

The report was concurred in by the Senate and House.

Many measures of less importance than those discussed in the preceding pages, received the attention of Congress, among which were some that became laws.

The reduction of the currency, by retiring or cancelling United States notes, was suspended.

Eight hours was declared to constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics, in the employ of the Government. By an opinion of Attorney-General Evarts, subsequently expressed, a correspondent reduction of wages was not inconsistent with the provision of the act.

In case of a vacancy in the office of Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, the senior Associate Justice is directed to discharge the duties until the vacancy is filled.

The Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau was requested, on January 1, 1869, to cause the Bureau to be withdrawn from the several States within which it has acted. The educational department of the Bureau, and the collection and payment of money due to soldiers, was continued.

The right of expatriation was declared, and that all naturalized citizens while in foreign states shall receive from the Federal Government the same protection of person and property that is accorded to native-born citizens in like situations and circumstances; and that, when any citizen of the United States has been unjustly deprived of his liberty by any foreign government, it shall be the duty of the President to demand of that government the reasons

for such imprisonment; and, if it appears to be wrongful and in violation of the rights of American citizenship, the President shall demand the release of such citizen, and, if the release is unreasonably delayed or refused, it shall be the duty of the President to use such means, not amounting to acts of war, as he may think necessary to obtain such release.

It was provided that, whenever any person engaged in the late resistance to the authority of the United States, from whom all legal disabilities had been removed by an act of Congress, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, should be elected to any office under the Federal Government, he should take the following oath, or affirmation:

"I, A. B., do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion; and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter. So help me God."

The session of Congress was concluded in August, so far as relates to the transaction of business, and that body adjourned subject to a call of a special committee, to meet, if it appeared to such committee to be expedient, either in September or November; otherwise the adjournment was to continue until the day of a new session in December. No subsequent session was held.

CONNECTICUT. The movement of political parties preparatory to the State election, which is held early in April, commenced soon after the beginning of the year.

The Republican State Convention assembled in Hartford on January 15th, and nominated Marshall Jewell for Governor, and adopted the following series of resolutions:

Resolved, That it is the highest duty of our Government to maintain the integrity of the Union, and to protect to the fullest extent the rights of the citizen; and we do cordially approve the determination of Congress so to guard the interests of the nation in the reconstruction of the States recently in rebellion, as to secure permanent union and enduring peace on the basis of justice, freedom, and equal rights to every citizen of the Republic.

Resolved, That in all public expenditures, both State and national, the most rigid economy should be observed, and that, in collecting the necessary revenue to meet the current expenses of the Government, the industry of the country, engaged in producing staple and necessary commodities, should be left unembarrassed, and all industrial products of prime necessity should, as far as practicable, be exempt, and all taxes should be levied on luxuries and other sources less burdensome to the people: and all the burdens and taxes, both State and national, should be so adjusted as to bear equally and justly on all.

Resolved, That the national faith, pledged for the redemption of the public debt, must be kept inviolate, and we denounce repudiation in every form; and declare that the national debt, created to save the nation, must be fully paid in good faith and according to its tenor.

Resolved, That our Government, recognizing no distinction between native-born and adopted citizens, should demand of other nations the immediate and unconditional release of all citizens of the United States illegally held in military service, or in custody for pretended political offences not committed on their soil; and it is the duty of the Government to enforce that demand, if necessary, with all the power of the nation.

Resolved, That the thanks of the American people are due to the Union soldiers who perilled their lives in defence of their country and in vindication of the honor of its flag; that the nation owes to them, and to the widows and orphan children of those who fell in battle, adequate aid and protection, and that the memories of those who have fallen in its defence shall be held in grateful and everlasting remembrance.

Resolved, That, on behalf of the loyal people of Connecticut, we do hereby present as our and their first choice for next President of the United States, General Ulysses S. Grant; that we recognize in him not only the gallant soldier, who led our armies to victory and maintained the Union in its integrity, but also the wise statesman, true to the interests of the people, daily striving to reduce the public expenditure, more solicitous for the permanent prosperity of the country than for personal or party success, while at the same time he stands pledged, by his recorded sentiments and historic deeds, to secure and maintain on enduring foundations the principles of the loyal men of the nation who sustained the Government and honor of our flag against treason and armed rebellion.

The Democratic State Convention assembled at New Haven on January 29th, and nominated James E. English for Governor; Ephraim H. Hyde, for Lieut.-Governor; Leverett E. Pease, for Secretary of State; Edward S. Mosely, Treasurer; and Jesse Olney, Comptroller.

The following resolutions were then adopted as expressive of the views of the party:

Resolved, That the present so-called Congress, consisting for the most part of men who have perverted the very objects of a Federal Legislature, by refusing representation to ten of the States of the Union, is, by reason of its existence in its present form, a revolutionary body, whose usurpation challenges the opposition of every constitution-loving citizen.

Resolved, That this assemblage have usurped the authority of the Executive, and so have broken down the balance of power established by the fathers. They are now planning to rob the Judiciary of its powers, in order that it may be prevented from deciding in favor of the Constitution; they have deprived the legislative body of its own integrity, by so reducing its numbers as to enable the usurping remainder to carry out their destructive plans; they have denied the sovereign power of all the States, by placing a portion of them under military despotism; they have erected a number of new offices and sent to a portion of the republic a swarm of officers to harass the people, and they are now loading with taxes the citizens of the North for the purpose of enslaving their brethren of the South; they have in many instances abolished the right of trial by jury and the right of *habeas corpus*, and by military force have overthrown the civil power and deprived our people of their liberties; they have made war on the Constitution, on every department of the Government, on the States, and on the people, and have enslaved the white man in order to give the ballot to the negro.

Resolved, That the continued and increasing wickedness and usurpation of this fractional Congress have aroused a popular indignation so just, so deep, and so universal, that the doom of the tyrants is already written, and the prophecy of their destruction is sure to be accomplished at the ballot-box.

Resolved, That the unconstitutional legislation which we denounce, while it is established for the

presumed benefit of the negro, is deranging business, paralyzing industry, ruining the merchant and the manufacturer, and depriving the laborer of employment.

Resolved, That we are in favor of redeeming all our pecuniary obligations and of paying the public debt in the manner provided by law, and that we therefore feel the necessity of reducing a system of taxation more onerous than that of England or France, and organized in part for the destruction of State sovereignty. The Democratic party are not in favor of repudiating either the debt or the Constitution of the country, and would therefore reduce the taxes as well as restore the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That the Democratic party are the friends of equal taxation, and will use all constitutional means to accomplish this desirable result.

Resolved, That the rights of our naturalized citizens, while sojourning in foreign countries, should be defended and maintained against every violation with all the power of the Federal Government; and that, in the language of Governor English, "the Government should indicate in unmistakable terms its purpose to respect the rights of all citizens alike."

Resolved, That we are opposed to forcing negro suffrage on other States, or to establishing it in our own. We are opposed to the first, because we have no right to interfere with the domestic affairs of other sovereignties; we are opposed to the second, because the introduction of this inferior element would only lead to demoralization.

Resolved, That all experience has shown the evil consequences and the futility of passing laws to abolish the social habits of the people; that such laws violate the liberty of private judgment, are essentially tyrannical, impossible to execute, and, so far as they are attempted to be enforced, increase the very evil they pretend to remove.

Resolved, That, for his various vetoes and messages protesting against the illegal acts of a dismembered Congress, and nobly sustaining the organic law of the Republic, Andrew Johnson both merits and receives the sincere thanks of the American people.

Resolved, That in this crisis of the country, when all true patriots should unite their votes and influence, we cordially invite all conservative men to act with us in upholding the rights of the States and the integrity of the Republic.

The election was held on the first Monday in April, with the following result: The whole vote for Governor was 99,325, of which James E. English received 50,541, and Marshall Jewell 48,777. The majority for English was 1,765. The Legislature, which was elected at the same time, was composed of 12 Republicans and 9 Democrats in the Senate, and 129 Republicans and 118 Democrats in the House.

The conventions for the nomination of presidential electors were subsequently held, and at the election in November the Republicans had a majority of votes. The whole vote given was 98,241, of which the Republican electors received 50,641, and the Democratic electors 47,600—Republican majority, 3,041.

The interest in the public schools of the State has been rapidly increasing, as indicated by the amount contributed to their support. This had increased, during the year previous, from \$704,986 to \$983,806, being more than a quarter of a million of dollars. During the past three years, the amount raised in the State for school purposes has more than doubled. In consequence of the action of the Legislature in withholding any funds from the

Normal School, it was suspended during the year. Nearly every State in the Union has established one or more of these schools, and no State, except Rhode Island, had previously abandoned them. The State Board of Education requested the Legislature, if it continued indisposed to maintain the Normal School, to authorize them to establish a Training School for teachers at New Britain. Instead of the former three years' course, they proposed that there should be two or three terms in each year, of three or four months each; and that the course of instruction in each term should be complete in itself, and yet so varied that those who choose to attend the school for two, three, or more terms, may do so profitably, without a mere repetition of the studies of previous terms. A school thus conducted, while it would not give as complete and thorough instruction as the Normal School, would extend its advantages to a larger number of persons; for many, who could not afford to attend the school for two or three years, would gladly do so for a few months or terms. The plan adopted in the State of Vermont is also recommended. This consists in establishing, in some existing academy or high school in each congressional district in the State, a normal department, which is under the control and management of the Board of Education.

The number of towns in the State is 163; each of which made its return for the school year closing previous to the session of the Legislature. The number of school districts is 1,590; the number of public schools is 1,645. The number of children, between four and sixteen years of age, on January 1, 1867, was 120,884; do. on January 1, 1868—123,650; increase during the year, 2,766. The whole number of scholars registered in winter was 80,148, and the average attendance 57,117. The whole number registered in summer was 73,863, and the average attendance 52,299. The number of scholars, over sixteen years, in public schools is 2,181. The capital of the School Fund of the State is \$2,044,035, and the revenue distributed to the towns during the year was \$136,015; which is a dividend of \$1.10 per child. The amount raised by town-tax for schools was \$149,680. The amount raised by district tax for schools was \$466,931. The total amount expended for teachers' wages was \$557,193.

It appears, by the report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, that absenteeism and truancy prevail to an alarming extent. The average attendance in summer is 68,585 less than the whole number of children enumerated, and in winter 63,767 less. The percentage of average attendance in summer is 43½, and in winter only 47½. Less than one-half the children of the State are found on an average in the public schools. In summer there are 47,019 children not registered in the public schools, and in winter 40,736. After a liberal allowance for the patronage of private schools, it is

declared that thousands are growing up in ignorance, or trained in the street-school for vagrancy and vice. The law of the State to prevent this evil is regarded as excellent, and prescribes as follows:

Each town shall make all needful provisions and arrangements concerning habitual truants, and also concerning children wandering about in the streets or public places of any city, or town, having no lawful occupation, or business, nor attending school, and growing up in ignorance, between the ages of seven and sixteen years; and shall also make such by-laws, respecting such children, as shall be most conducive to their welfare, and the good order of such city or town; and suitable penalties shall be annexed to such by-laws, not exceeding twenty dollars for any one breach; but said by-laws shall be approved by the Superior Court sitting in any county in the State.

Any minor, convicted of being an habitual truant, or any child, convicted of wandering about in the streets, or public places, of any city, or town, having no lawful business, nor attending school, and growing up in ignorance, between the ages of seven and sixteen years, may, at the discretion of the justice or the court having jurisdiction of the case, instead of the fine mentioned in the preceding section, be committed to any such institution of instruction, house of reformation, or suitable situation, as may be provided for the purpose by such city or town, under the authority of the preceding sections, for such time, not exceeding two years, as such justice or court may determine.

The several cities and towns shall appoint, at the annual meetings of such towns, or annually, by the mayor and aldermen of such cities, three or more persons, who alone shall be authorized to prosecute for violation of such by-laws.

The debt of the State, after deducting the amount of the sinking funds, bank stock, and cash in hand, was, on March 31st, \$7,324,136. The receipts from all sources during the year were \$2,711,236, and the expenditures \$2,496,895, making, with the amount on hand of the previous year, a balance of \$713,455.

But little change has taken place in the charitable institutions of the State during the year. At the Insane Retreat there were, during the year, admitted 72 males and 101 females; of these there were discharged as recovered, 72; much improved, 36; improved, 28; not improved, 14; died, 17; total discharged during the year, 167. The number remaining the 31st March was 123 males and 123 females.

At the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, the number of patients during the year was 266, of whom 155 were males and 111 females. The expenditure of the year was \$104,566.

The State Reform School, located at West Meriden, had, on March 31, 1867, the number of 264 pupils; during the year, 145 were received and 143 discharged. The expenditures were \$65,297. There is also a school for imbeciles, containing 40 pupils, which received an appropriation from the State of \$3,000.

The State Prison contained 207 convicts at the close of the previous year; 81 were received during the year, and 97 discharged; the number remaining at the close was 191. The expenditures were \$23,460, and the receipts \$25,166.

COOKE, Rev. HENRY, D. D., LL. D., an Irish Presbyterian clergyman, polemic and author, born at Grilagh, near Maghera, Ireland, May 11, 1788; died at Belfast, Ireland, December 13, 1868. His father was a small farmer, and unable to do much for the education of his son, but the early promise of the lad attracted the attention of the Presbyterian ministers of the vicinity, and through their assistance he was fitted for Glasgow University at an early age, and entered, in his fifteenth year, a tall, raw-boned youth. He was obliged to support himself by teaching as a private tutor during his university course, and hence did not take any of the honors, though he maintained a respectable scholarship. In 1808 he was ordained and settled at Duneane, near Toome, and, a little more than two years later (in January, 1811), was called to the large and wealthy congregation of Donegore, county of Antrim. Here he soon became distinguished alike for his eloquence and his decided orthodoxy. In 1814 he preached a very able discourse, which was immediately published, in aid of the funds of the Belfast House of Industry. In 1818 he was called to the still larger congregation of Killyleagh in County Down, where he soon became involved in a controversy with the Arians, first with an English Unitarian minister, Rev. J. Smithurst, with whom he held numerous *viva voce* discussions, ending with the complete discomfiture of his antagonist, and then with Rev. Henry Montgomery, a member of his own synod, who avowed Arian sentiments and sustained them with a remarkable eloquence, great rhetorical power, and an imposing personal presence, which was well calculated to awe any man who controverted his views. The controversy between Montgomery and Cooke commenced in 1827, and was followed up for two years, the antagonists being in most respects well matched, though in logical acumen, in ready repartee, and power of invective, Dr. Cooke was the abler of the two. The discussion ended in Montgomery's defeat and withdrawal from the synod. At its close Dr. Cooke was called to the May Street congregation, Belfast, with which he spent nearly forty years of his life. He was at this time in the full prime of manhood, with a reputation for ability as a controversialist, and brilliant eloquence as a preacher, second to that of no man in the Presbyterian Church in Ireland. The times were such as demanded a bold leader, of great argumentative powers, and Dr. Cooke was too thoroughly a man of war from his youth to hesitate for a moment in the advocacy of measures which he believed to be right. In the National Board of Education controversy, from 1831 to 1840, he took an active part, advocating the acceptance of the proposals of the Government, when it could be done without any surrender of Presbyterian principle. His conservatism, or, as we should say, toryism, at this time alienated some of his previous friends, but he was not the man to abandon

for any cause a position which he had once deliberately taken. The discussion of voluntarism, prompted by the action of the seceders from the Scottish Kirk, and stimulated to greater intensity subsequently by the organization of the Free Church of Scotland, was another topic which called forth all his eloquence, logic, sarcasm, and invective. He opposed the voluntary system with the utmost vehemence; and the maintenance of the Irish Presbyterian Church in its condition of semi-dependence upon the Government and its continued reception of the *regium donum* was due in a great measure to his efforts. In 1841 he entered the lists with Daniel O'Connell, having challenged him to a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of Repeal of the Union to Ireland. Dr. Cooke's address to the people of Belfast, in reply to O'Connell's sophistries, was terrible in its satirical power, its scathing invective, and its bold defiance of the great repealer. In 1844 he was involved in a controversy in his own synod in regard to the location of the Magee College, for which a large bequest had been left. In the end this resulted in the erection of a collegiate institution at Derry on the Magee foundation, and the establishment of the Irish General Assembly's College at Belfast. In this latter college, in 1847, Dr. Cooke was appointed to the chair of Sacred Rhetoric and Catechetics. On receiving this appointment he resigned the pastorate of the May Street congregation, but at the urgent request of the people continued as their perpetual supply till March, 1868. His powers as a preacher did not fail till a few months before his death, and his audiences continued to listen with evident interest to his discourses till the close of his life. He was three times moderator of the General Assembly of the Irish Presbyterian Church, and was universally regarded as the ablest of her presiding officers, during the present century. His principal published works are his controversial discussions, some occasional discourses and addresses, and an edition of Brown's "Self-interpreting Bible," with copious annotations.

COQUEREL, ATHANASE LAURENT CHARLES, a clergyman of the French Protestant Reformed Church, a politician and an author, born in Paris, August 27, 1795; died in that city, January 10, 1868. He was connected with England and English literature, through his aunt, Miss Helen Maria Williams, a well-known writer, who undertook the charge of his early education. After completing his academical and theological studies at the reformed institution at Montauban, he was ordained in 1816, and was offered the incumbency of the Anglican Church in the Island of Jersey, but declined it, because he could not subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles. He then went to Holland, and was first appointed pastor to the French Church in Amsterdam, and subsequently preached to the Calvinistic churches in Leyden and Utrecht. In 1830 he returned

to France, with a high reputation for eloquence, being invited to Paris by the celebrated naturalist Baron Cuvier, who was also connected with the Reformed Church. In 1833, he became a member of the Protestant Consistory, but soon found himself involved in a controversy with the leaders of the Reformed Church, who, from the liberal opinions which he put forth, accused him of having abandoned their cardinal doctrines of exclusive faith and predestination. A division ensued, and M. Coquerel became the acknowledged leader of the Liberal or Rationalistic section, as M. Guizot was of the Orthodox Calvinists. The controversy between these two sections was maintained, with increasing divergence of views, until the death of the Rationalistic leader. Of late years the number of adherents to his views had considerably multiplied, and his son, M. Athanase Coquerel, Jr., who, like his father, is a clergyman of the French Reformed Church, has become a leader of the Rationalists, going to much greater lengths in his departures from orthodoxy than his father. In the revolution of 1848, M. Coquerel came forward as a candidate for election to the National Assembly, and was chosen; receiving 109,934 votes, as a moderate republican. The Abbé Lamennais and the great Dominican friar-preacher Father Lacordaire were among his colleagues. He was one of the commission to frame the new Republican constitution, supported the administration of General Cavaignac and Prince Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, and advocate the abolition of capital punishment. As a whole, how-

ever, his legislative career, which continued till the *coup d'état* in December, 1851, did not enhance his reputation. He returned to his pulpit services, where his really extraordinary power as an orator always insured him a large audience. M. Coquerel was a somewhat voluminous author. In 1831, appeared his first work, "The Protestant." This was followed in 1834 by "The Free Inquiry." He also published "Sacred Biography," "Analysis of the Bible," "Answer to Strauss's Life of Jesus," "Modern Orthodoxy," "Experimental Christianity," and eight volumes of sermons. M. Coquerel was amiable, tolerant, kind-hearted, and charitable, and greatly esteemed by all who had the pleasure of intimate acquaintance with him.

COTTON. The cotton crop of the United States for the last year (ending September 1st) was 2,430,893 bales, an increase of 478,905 over the preceding year. The quantity produced or exported for the last three years in each State was as follows (the crop of Mississippi being included in Louisiana and Alabama):

STATES.	1866.	1867.	1868.
Louisiana.....	711,629	702,181	579,231
Alabama.....	429,102	239,516	366,195
Texas.....	174,985	185,919	114,666
Florida.....	149,139	58,349	84,639
Georgia.....	263,373	255,965	495,005
South Carolina....	112,273	162,247	240,225
North Carolina....	64,559	38,522	38,587
Virginia.....	37,531	123,627	187,437
Tennessee.....	211,885	185,712	374,860
Total crop....	2154,476	1951,988	2,430,893

EXPORTS OF COTTON TO FOREIGN PORTS FROM SEPTEMBER 1, 1867, TO AUGUST 31, 1868.

EXPORTED FROM	To Great Britain.	To France.	To North of Europe.	To other Foreign Ports.	Total.
New Orleans, La..... bales..	327,689	147,120	50,235	56,433	581,477
Mobile, Ala.....	211,154	10,432	7,794	7,121	236,511
Galveston, Tex.....	40,782	1,625	20,020	6,168	68,595
Apalachicola, Flor.....	9	9
Savannah, Ga.....	240,505	9,904	9,195	259,604
Charleston, S. C.....	89,651	2,936	3,710	9,526	105,813
Norfolk, Va.....	8,215	8,215
Wilmington, N. C.....
New York.....	291,663	25,498	50,935	5,414	373,510
Baltimore.....	13,888	2,921	16,309
Philadelphia.....	1,440	1,440
Boston and Portland (Portland, 2,892 to Great Britain).....	4,100	232	1	4,333
Grand Total, 1867-'68.....	1,228,596	197,515	145,042	84,663	1,655,816
Total 1866-'67.....	1,216,262	198,147	95,342	47,303	1,557,054
Increase.....	12,334	49,700	37,360	98,762
Decrease.....	632

The quantity of old cotton remaining in the country, September 1, 1868, not brought to the shipping ports or interior towns, was unusually small, say only 15,000 to 20,000 bales, against 30,000 to 40,000 same time last year. The stocks in the interior towns, September 1, 1868, not counted in the receipts, were 3,897 bales, against 5,703 same time last year. We append approximate growths of previous years.

Year.	Bales.	Year.	Bales.
1868.....	2,577,000	1858.....	3,247,000
1867.....	1,650,000	1857.....	3,014,000
1866.....	500,000	1856.....	3,385,000
1865.....	200,000	1855.....	3,186,000
1864.....	500,000	1854.....	3,000,000
1863.....	1,500,000	1853.....	3,360,000
1862.....	4,800,000	1852.....	3,100,000
1861.....	3,866,000	1851.....	2,450,000
1860.....	4,805,800	1850.....	2,212,000
1859.....	4,017,000	1849.....	2,450,000

The consumption of cotton by American mills for a series of years is indicated by the following summary:

YEAR.	Bales, North of Va.	Elsewhere.	Total.
1867-68.....	799,817	168,843	968,165
1866-67.....	697,367	156,672	854,039
1865-66.....	604,085	127,640	731,725
1862-65.....	Not ascertained.		
1860-61.....	650,357	193,383	843,740
1859-60.....	786,521	185,522	972,043
1858-59.....	760,218	167,433	927,651
1857-58.....	452,185	143,377	595,562
1856-57.....	665,718	154,218	819,936
1855-56.....	633,027	137,712	770,739
1854-55.....	571,117	135,295	706,412
1853-54.....	592,284	144,952	737,236
1852-53.....	654,393	153,232	808,725
1851-52.....	588,322	111,281	699,603
1850-51.....	386,429	99,185	485,614
1849-50.....	476,486	127,012	613,498
1848-49.....	503,143	139,342	642,485
1847-48.....	523,892	92,152	616,044

We give below an estimate of the amount of cotton taken for home use (including burnt, etc.) in the country, not included in the receipts at the ports. Thus—

CONSUMPTION.	1866.	1867.	1868.
North Carolina.... bales	23,000	36,000	40,000
South Carolina.... "	16,000	28,000	30,000
Georgia..... "	22,000	36,000	42,000
Alabama..... "	9,000	14,000	16,000
Tennessee..... "	10,000	16,000	18,000
On the Ohio, etc.. "	35,000		*
Total to Sept. 1st....	175,000	128,000	146,000

The prices of middlings Cotton for five years, the first week in each month.

MONTH.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
January.....	75	70	51½	29	16
February.....	72	70	48	28	19½
March.....	66	30	44	23	22
April.....	72	30	39½	22	27
May.....	96	34	34	22	32½
June.....	112	32	35½	21	31
July.....	145	37	36	22	31½
August.....	165	35	36	23	30½
September.....	100	37½	33	22	30½
October.....	100	48	42	22	27
November.....	110	41	39	19	25½
December.....	100	42	33½	15½	25½

CRANWORTH, ROBERT MONSEY ROLFE, Lord, LL.D., an English jurist, twice Lord High Chancellor of England, born in Cranworth, Norfolk, England, December 18, 1790; died in London, July 24, 1868. He was the son of Rev. Edmund Rolfe, and grandson of Rev. Robert Rolfe, both Norfolk clergymen. His father was a cousin of Lord Nelson. He was educated at Winchester, and Trinity College, Cambridge, and took a moderately high stand in classics. Being elected to a fellowship in Downing College soon after taking his first degree, he was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1816. He chose the equity side of the courts of Westminster, and rose stead-

ily, though not rapidly in reputation, till he had acquired a large practice and the name of being one of the best equity lawyers in the Chancery Courts. He was not elected to Parliament till 1832, when he took his seat for Penrhyn in the moderate Liberal interest. He continued in Parliament for that borough till 1837, being also Solicitor-General in Lord Melbourne's two administrations. He was made baron in the Court of Exchequer in 1839, and, though brought up at the Equity Bar, gave the greatest satisfaction as an honest, painstaking, upright, conscientious, common-law judge. In 1850 he was made Vice-Chancellor, and a year later one of the Lords Justices of Appeal in Chancery. He exhibited the remarkable versatility of his mind in the readiness with which he reverted to his equity training after twelve years' service as a judge in the common-law courts. On the formation of Lord Aberdeen's coalition Cabinet in December, 1852, he became Lord High Chancellor, and retained the position under Lord Palmerston's administration. He occupied the woosack again in 1865-'66 from Lord Westbury's resignation until the return of the Tory party to power under Lord Derby, when he retired finally from public life.

CRAWFORD, JOHN, F. R. S., F. R. G. S., a British Oriental scholar, geographer, and ethnologist, born in Edinburgh, in 1783; died in London, May 11, 1868. He was educated in the University of Edinburgh, studied medicine under the great physicians of that day, and at the age of twenty years sailed for India, and devoted himself to the acquisition of the Oriental languages. His attainments commended him to Lord Minto, the Governor-General of India, and, when his lordship set out on his expedition for the conquest of Java, he took the young physician with him, and appointed him successively to fill diplomatic offices, both with relation to the Dutch and the native princes. The knowledge acquired in this diplomatic career was subsequently embodied in his elaborate "History of the Indian Archipelago," published in 1820. He was subsequently appointed British commissioner at Singapore, and British envoy to Siam, Burmah, Pegu, and Cochin China. Of his residence at these courts he subsequently gave an account in some pleasant volumes, and, as a contribution of great value to philology and ethnology, he prepared an excellent grammar and dictionary of the Malay language, and a descriptive dictionary of Malayan dialects, and the languages of the Philippine Archipelago. After a long career as a diplomatist in the East, he retired on a liberal pension from the Indian Government, fifteen or twenty years since, and, taking up his residence in London, was active until the close of his life in the prosecution of geographical, ethnographical, and philological studies. He was constant in his attendance upon the scientific societies, and, though generally courteous

* Included in the consumption at the North.

in his manners, was positive and determined in his opinions, and always self-reliant and independent in his views.

CUSHMAN, Rev. ROBERT WOODWARD, D. D., a Baptist clergyman, teacher, and author, born in Woolwich, Me., April 10, 1800; died in South Reading, Mass., April 7, 1868. Left an orphan at an early age, his struggles with poverty in his childhood were very severe, but he was unflinching in his determination to acquire an education, and, with very slight assistance from others, qualified himself to enter Columbian College, Washington, D. C., at the age of twenty-one years, and graduated in 1825. In August, 1826, he was settled as pastor of the Baptist Church in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., but, after a three years' pastorate, his health requiring a milder climate, he removed to Philadelphia, and established the Cushman Collegiate Institute, a female seminary of high grade in that city, which he managed with great success for twelve years. In 1841 he accepted a call from the Bowdoin Square Baptist Church, Boston, to become their pastor, and was eminently successful in that relation for six years, when he again sought a milder climate, and established a female seminary in Washington, D. C., which, like his former enterprise, was prosperous from the beginning. After a few years he returned to Boston and supplied the First Baptist Church in Charlestown for several years, though he was never formally installed as their pastor. He had during most of this period the charge of a female seminary in Boston, which he managed with his accustomed success. He also at this period, as well as previously, contributed freely to the periodical press, and published several small works. One of these, "A Pure Christianity the World's only Hope," has passed through numerous editions. He was a chaste and elegant writer, his style being formed on the best models, and while he avoided carefully all meretricious ornament, his language was always graceful and dignified. His health having become impaired, he retired from active life in 1863, and in the quiet of his beautiful home at Village Side, South Reading, spent the evening of his days.

CUSTOMS (ZOLL) PARLIAMENT OF GERMANY. By virtue of the treaty concluded by the members of the German Zollverein on the 4th of June, 1867, the customs legislation was thenceforth to belong to the Federal Council of the North-German Confederation, to which the South-German States should send thirteen plenipotentiaries, and to a Customs (Zoll) Parliament, composed of 297 members of the North-German Reichstag, and of 86 deputies from the Southern States, chosen according to the electoral law of the North-German Confederation, as follows: by Bavaria, 48; Wurtemberg, 18; Baden, 14; Hesse-Darmstadt, 6.

The results of the elections in the South-German States greatly disappointed the hopes of the National Liberals, the party in favor of

the unification of Germany under the lead of Prussia, who had confidently expected that their representatives in the Reichstag would gain such large accessions by the elections in the Southern States as to give them a good working majority in the Customs Parliament. Their plan, in that event, was, that the Customs Parliament, immediately after its organization, should transform itself from a *Zoll*-Parliament into a *Voll*-Parliament, that is to say, not confine itself to the subject of taxation and duties, but extend its deliberations to politics and the unity principle. Toward the close of the year 1867, however, the adversaries of German unity under the lead of Prussia in the Southern States—the Particularists, Great-Germans, Ultramontanes, and Radical Democrats—succeeded in effecting a fusion in opposition to the National Liberals, and, after a campaign of unparalleled excitement in the political history of Germany, inflicted upon the latter a defeat, which, as the sequel proved, was sufficiently decisive to thwart the plans of the National Liberals.

The elections for the Customs (Zoll) Parliament took place in Bavaria on the 23d of January, 1868, and resulted in the success of 24 National Liberals and 24 Particularists; in Baden, where the elections were held on March 3d, the National Liberals elected eight members, and the Particularists six; in Hesse-Darmstadt, each of the two parties elected, on the 2d of April, three members; and in Wurtemberg the Particularists defeated, on the 5th of April, the National Liberals in every district in the kingdom. On the opening of the Parliament the distribution of parties was as follows: South-German Particularists, 50; South-German National Liberals, 35; North-German Conservatives, 79; Liberal (or Free) Conservatives, 47; National Liberals, 76; Centre, 30; Left, 16; Particularists (Hanoverians, Saxons, etc.), 37.

The Customs Parliament was opened by the King of Prussia, in Berlin, on the 27th of April, with a speech from the throne, in which "he first called upon the delegates to carry their minds back forty years to the early history of the Zollverein. The need of the German people for freedom of commercial intercourse among themselves had gradually, by the force of the national idea expressing that want, extended the Zollverein from a small beginning over the major portion of Germany; thereby creating unity of interests, victoriously surmounting heavy trials, and taking up a satisfactory position in the commerce of the world. Since the commencement of the reorganization that had been undertaken, the existing arrangement had yet appeared insufficient for the rapid development of commerce in all directions. The well-justified demand of the people for an effective share in the legislation upon the politico-economical changes of the country required the formation of a representative assembly for the Zollverein. The deliberations would range

over nearly all the subjects alluded to in the treaty, concluded in the summer of 1867, the extension of which to Mecklenburg and Lubeck was near at hand. The first subject to come under consideration would be the settlement of the relations of commercial intercourse with an adjacent country, closely connected with Germany by similarity of race and a variety of material interests." After enumerating the various bills to be submitted to the Parliament, including a uniform tobacco tax and duty bill, and a treaty of commerce and navigation with Spain, the King concluded by saying: "The friendly relations which the German Governments maintain with all powers, the national prosperity, whose care unites here the representatives of the German races, together with the blessings of peace, for the protection of which the German States have entered into alliance, will remain secure, and with God's help we shall at all times be able to reckon upon the united power of the German people."

At the conclusion of this speech Count Bismarck, in the name of the governments constituting the Zollverein, declared the Customs Parliament opened. On the following day the Parliament elected as president Dr. Simson, the Speaker of the North-German Reichstag, who obtained all but thirty (blank) votes. Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst, Prime Minister of Bavaria, was elected first vice-president by 258 to 43 votes; and Duke Ujest was chosen, on the second ballot, second vice-president by 152 votes; the other candidates, Baron Roggenbach and Neurath, receiving respectively 137 and 7 votes.

In accordance with the parliamentary usages of Germany, the Parliament devoted its attention, in the first place, to the examination of the credentials of its members. On April 29th an excited debate took place in regard to a clause of the electoral laws of Bavaria, by which the right of suffrage was conferred upon "all Bavarian subjects, twenty-five years of age, and paying a direct tax," and which the National Liberals contended was in conflict with the electoral laws of the North-German Confederation, by which "every respectable citizen, twenty-five years of age," was to be an elector. Despite the protests of the Particularists, who asserted that a Customs Parliament was incompetent to act on such questions, the majority decided that the Bavarian Government should be instructed to remove the aforesaid clause from its electoral laws.

Still more exciting were the debates on the electoral laws of Wurtemberg, by which householders only were admitted to the ballot-box. The manœuvres by which the Wurtemberg ministers, it was asserted, had tried to exercise a pressure upon the electors, and secured the defeat of the National Liberal candidates in that kingdom, led to a most acrimonious debate, which terminated in the adoption (by 162 to 105 votes) of the resolution, moved by Count Bethusy-Huc, "that the Government of

the kingdom of Wurtemberg should be required to conform henceforth more strictly to the stipulations of the late Zollverein treaty."

On May 7th the National Liberals, emboldened by these apparent victories, determined to move an address in reply to the opening speech from the throne, pledging the Parliament in strong terms to the promotion of unity in Germany; assuring the King of Prussia "that a national representation of the whole of Germany, for which the nation had striven for several decades, and which all the German Governments, in times gone by already, had recognized as just and necessary, could not be withheld from the people for any length of time;" and urging him in the most impressive manner "by the united strength of the German nation, and in conjunction with his august allies, to finish the great national structure, the completion of which would secure to Germany safety, power, and peace in its relations with foreign states, and material prosperity and constitutional liberty at home."

They were strongly supported by the National Liberals from the South, and a majority of the Free Conservatives of the North. A motion to set aside the motion for an address, and to enter upon the simple order of the day, was made to decide the question whether the Parliament should extend its deliberations to national politics and the principle of German unity, or confine itself to the economical questions of the Zollverein. The motion was opposed by those in favor of union, and supported by all others. It was carried, after an exceedingly stormy debate, by a majority of one hundred and eighty-six against one hundred and fifty. Count Bismarck was present, but did not speak. Among the notable persons who voted "aye" on this important occasion, were Prince Albrecht of Prussia, the Prussian Ministers of Finance and the Interior, Baron von der Heydt, and Count Eulenburg, General von Moltke, and most of the Southern members, including the Bavarian Liberal Premier, Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst, and the Wurtemberg Premier and Minister of Finance, Baron von Varnbühler, and Herr von Mittnacht.

The Parliament then took up the treaty of commerce and navigation, which Prussia, in the name of the Zollverein, had concluded with Spain, and which was ratified, after a brief debate, on the 13th of May.

By far more important and animated was the discussion about the ratification of the commercial and customs treaty, concluded on March 9, 1868, between the Zollverein and the Government of Austria. On May 18th, when the final vote was to be taken, Messrs. Bamberger, Metz, and twenty-nine other Southern and Northern National Liberals, moved "that the Federal Council of the Zollverein should take the necessary steps to remedy the complaints to which the conflict between the reduction of the duties on foreign wines and the existing system of indirect taxation had given

rise in the grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt." Insignificant as this motion was, it afforded the Particularists another opportunity to deny the competency of the Customs Parliament in questions of this description, and led to a very bitter and prolonged struggle, which was rendered especially interesting by the elaborate speeches delivered by Count Bismarck, Völk, and other prominent members, on this occasion. Bamberger's motion was finally carried by an overwhelming majority, nearly all the Prussian Conservatives voting with the National Liberals. The commercial and customs treaty with Austria, by which the import duties between the two countries were materially reduced, was ratified by a still more decisive majority, only seventeen members, among them Maurice Mohl and other extreme protectionists, voting against it.

The Federal Council of the Zollverein proposed to the Customs Parliament to cover the deficit arising in the budget of the Zollverein in consequence of the ratification of the treaty with Austria, and which was estimated at about 1,500,000 thalers, by imposing a tax of twelve thalers per acre on domestic tobacco, raising the duty on imported tobacco from four to six thalers per cwt., and levying a duty of one-half thaler per cwt. on imported petroleum. The Prussian Minister of Finance, Baron von der Heydt, who was the author of these proposed reforms in the customs and revenue laws, informed the Customs Parliament, in order to overcome its opposition to the duty on petroleum, that it would yield, at the most, six hundred thousand thalers a year; but statistical reports, published at that very moment in the official Prussian *Staatsanzeiger*, showed plainly that the minister had underrated the quantity of petroleum imported into the territory of the Zollverein, and that a duty of one-half thaler per cwt. would have yielded, in the year 1867, upward of 800,000 thalers, and in the year 1868 at least one million thalers. For this reason, as well as for others of a constitutional and political character, the Parliament rejected the duty on petroleum, on the 20th of May, by a vote of one hundred and ninety against ninety-nine.

Not more successful was the proposition of the Federal Council in regard to the tax and duty on domestic and foreign tobacco. Instead of adopting the tax of twelve thalers per acre on domestic tobacco, the Parliament fixed it at six dollars, and refused to raise the duty on imported tobacco from four to six thalers.

In consequence of these defeats, Count Bismarck declared at the last sitting of the Parliament, on the 23d of May, that the Federal Council of the Zollverein had instructed him to withdraw the other propositions which the Council had made in regard to changes in the tariff of the Zollverein.

On the same day the Parliament was closed by the King of Prussia, who said in his speech, that "he hoped the results of the session would

strengthen the sentiments of mutual trust between the people of the various states of the Zollverein; destroy the prejudices which have existed in some portions of the country; and prove that the Germans, though apart in some interests, were one people in warm brotherly feeling." He predicted that the most desirable blending of the financial and economical interests, to which the Zollverein owed its rise and prosperity, would be brought about at the next session of the Customs Parliament by the united efforts of the allied governments and the Customs Parliament; and closed by saying that "the rights intrusted to him by Germany would be sacredly exercised as his highest rule of action."

As soon as the Zoll-Parliament had adjourned *sine die*, brilliant festivities took place in honor of the South-German representatives, in Berlin and other cities of Prussia. A large majority of the representatives made a pleasure-trip to the naval station of the North-German Confederation at Kiel; and they were received there, as well as in Hamburg and Altona, with great enthusiasm by the people and military and civil authorities.

A portion of the South-German deputies, mostly leading members of the Particularists from Bavaria and Wurtemberg, issued, on the 24th of May, a species of account of their stewardship in the shape of the following address to their constituents:

At the close of the first session of the Customs Parliament we consider it our duty to give an account of our acts, and to communicate our experiences.

Convinced that a perfect union would render it easier for us to adhere to the legal basis of the Customs Parliament as secured by treaty, and to hold thereupon the interests confided to our charge, we united as the South-German party, composed of the majority of the Bavarian, all the Wurtemberg, and a portion of the Baden members, and were joined by several other deputies from various parts of Germany.

Our organization succeeded in contributing materially to the rejection of the address, the discussion of which in the present critical position of affairs would not only have brought out still more strongly the contradictions existing in Germany, but would have changed the legal character of the Parliament at the first moment of its operations.

We further succeeded in reducing to a tolerably moderate amount the taxation demands put forward by the Federal Council, which appeared to us not sufficiently called for by temporary reductions in the revenue, so that, instead of 2,300,000 thalers in duties and taxes upon tobacco and petroleum, a tobacco duty of only 450,000 thalers has been agreed to. Our party voted unanimously against the petroleum tax, and against any duties being imposed upon tobacco.

The majority of the party supported the treaty of commerce with Austria, but the minority opposed it, because its tariff reductions also applied to non-German countries without corresponding concessions. We had no reason to oppose the commercial treaty with Spain, or the bills as to customs procedure.

Summoned at an historically important period to an assembly that represents in material interests a large portion of Germany, and is opposed to parties bent with more or less determination upon bringing the Southwest German countries into full State community with the North, we have considered it incumbent upon us, while closely inspecting governing per-

sons and relations, to examine the position of the South-German States toward Prussia and the Northern Confederation, and to communicate to our constituents the results of this examination. We have, however, again recognized that entrance into the North-German Confederation would promote neither the union of the collective nation, nor the constitutional liberty, nor the special interests of South-Germany, but that, on the contrary, in view of the North-German Constitution, the further preservation of the independence of the South-German States is in all respects advisable.

The overwhelming furtherance of military objects, especially in the Northern Confederation, restricts the promotion of moral and material interests, and, without financially relieving the Prussian people, leads to increased burdens upon its allies. As the necessary consequence of Prussia's traditional policy, this increase will be permanent.

By nearly all parties north of the Main line the subjection of the South-German States is looked upon simply as a question of time, and as an object of the mission of Prussia. That the ultimate absorption of the South in the Prussian union would be the consequence, is apparent to all who do not allow themselves to be deceived by the appearance of political forms of transition. The preponderance of the presiding power, increased by the annexations, affords no space for the justifiable maintenance of the smaller Federal States. In view of these circumstances, it is

essential to harmonize the active preservation of the independence of the South-German States with the sincere fulfilment of the national duties.

We only see the way to this twofold object in a decidedly liberal policy and in the firm association of the South-German States. We have gained the conviction that it is urgently requisite for these states, governments, and people, to emerge from drifting isolation, and to agree upon common action, especially as regards the military protection of the South, to make their influence felt by unanimous action within the sphere of the Zollverein, and to adopt a fertile initiative in institutions useful to the community. Existing treaties justify the pursuance of this course.

The union of the South Germans in common action offers no hostile opposition to any other part of the German nation. It will, on the contrary, operate conciliatorily between the great powers, will conduce to European peace and material interests, and render possible to the South-German States the energetic fulfilment of their treaty duties toward North Germany without exposing them to the danger of absorption in Prussia. Although, therefore, we may not recognize, in the close connection of the South-German States with each other, the ultimate satisfaction of material requirements, it yet appears at present the only path leading us, while avoiding seriously threatening dangers, to the final object of a free and united Germany.

D

DANA, SAMUEL LUTHER, M. D., LL. D., A. A. S., an American chemist, born in Amherst, N. H., July 11, 1795; died in Lowell, Mass., March 11, 1868. He was fitted for college at Phillips Academy, Exeter, N. H., and graduated from Harvard College in 1813. He was desirous of becoming a military engineer, and applied immediately after his graduation for an appointment to West Point, that he might prosecute engineering studies there; but, instead of obtaining his request, he was commissioned a lieutenant in the First Regiment U. S. Artillery, and served in New York and Virginia, till the close of the war. Soon after the peace, he resigned his commission, commenced the study of medicine, and received his medical diploma in 1818. From 1819 to 1826 he was a practising physician in Waltham, Mass., and was there brought into intimate relations with the early cotton manufacturers of the State, and having a strong predilection for physical science, in several departments of which he had already made considerable attainments, he was led to give his attention to practical chemistry, in connection with the manufacture and printing of cotton goods. He established on his own account at Waltham, about the year 1826, a chemical laboratory for the manufacture of sulphuric acid and bleaching-salts. This was subsequently merged in the Newton Chemical Company, of which he was chemist until 1834. In 1833, he visited England and spent some months there in chemical investigations. On his return he removed to Lowell, and became the chemist of the Merrimack Manufacturing Company, which position he held until his

death. His investigations on the subject of bleaching cotton, which led to what is known in the arts as the "American method of bleaching," attracted great attention in Europe. They were first published abroad in the Bulletin of the Industrial Society of Mülhausen, and the eminent chemist Persoz said of his process, that "it realized the perfection of chemical operations." He also made many important improvements in the printing of cottons, and the chemical processes involved in that work, which have given to the Merrimack prints the highest reputation of any printed goods in the country. He devoted much time to investigations in regard to the injurious influence of lead pipes for water for drinking and culinary purposes, and, besides an essay on the subject, translated and edited, with large additions, Tanquerel's "Treatise on Lead Diseases." He had also given much attention to Agricultural chemistry, and his "Farmers' Muck Manual," published in 1842, and his "Essay on Manures," issued in 1843, are still standard works on these subjects. Aside from these works, he had published as early as 1833 an exposition of the "Chemical Changes occurring in the Manufacture of Sulphuric Acid;" several papers in the *North American Review* and the *American Journal of Science*, and in 1818, in conjunction with his brother, James Freeman Dana, the "Mineralogy and Geology of Boston and its Vicinity." For fifteen years of the thirty-four in which he was employed in Lowell, he resided on his farm at Tyngsborough.

DELAWARE. This State financially is in a prosperous condition. The settled policy of

its Legislature has been to avoid a national debt. During the recent war, however, a debt was contracted to provide the number of men, demanded of the State by the Federal Government, without conscription. This debt consists of bonds authorized to be issued in 1864 and 1865, and amounts to \$1,110,000. The State is also liable for certain internal improvement bonds issued to railroad companies, amounting to \$346,000. The real and apparent indebtedness of the State thus amounts to \$1,456,000. The investments of the State, consisting of bank stock and loans to improvement corporations, amount to \$850,150, which, deducted from the debt, leaves \$605,850. The income derived from these investments has been appropriated in part to support the State government and in part to purposes of education. The amount thus applied to free schools during the year 1868-'69 was \$36,867. The amount of income from all sources for the support of the government was \$30,349, which, with the previous balance on hand, made an unappropriated surplus at the close of the year of \$37,796. It was anticipated that the Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Wilmington Railroad would resist the further payment of an annual tax to the State. The principal source of revenue in former years had been the tax on the banks. Upon the change from State to national banks, all but two had ceased to pay this tax. The tax on the railroads, although less than in previous years, was sufficient to pay the interest on the State debt. This decrease was ascribed to a diminution of passengers since the close of the war. It becomes, therefore, a financial question whether the State should not impose a small tax to provide against any contingencies that might affect her credit. This tax, it was suggested by the Governor, should include bonds and mortgages and machinery, and reach the national banks. The Legislature at the beginning of the year was Democratic, with the exception of two members of the Senate. Its acts were entirely of a local nature.

The State is strongly Democratic. At a convention held in June, to nominate delegates to the National Democratic Convention, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the elective franchise is a political privilege and not a natural right, and is to be granted or withheld by the several States to their respective inhabitants as in the free, sound judgment and discretion of each State shall be deemed best for the public interest and welfare.

Resolved, That we regard negro rule in this country, under its names of "impartial" or "universal suffrage," as the vital issue against which, as the champions of a constitutional government founded on the consent of free white men, we are ever arrayed—and that our delegates to the National Convention, to be held at New York, while left to their own sound discretion in selecting worthy candidates for the presidency and the vice-presidency, are hereby instructed to vote for no candidate who is not clearly and distinctly in favor of ruling this country by the virtue and intelligence of white men only.

At the convention of the Republican party, held on April 23d to nominate delegates to the National Republican Convention, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That we approve the plan adopted by Congress for the reorganization of the rebel States; that its vital principle of impartial suffrage is just as well as politic, and that in view of the action of Congress already had, as well as of natural justice, we express the hope that such an amendment of the Constitution of the United States will be made as will secure the application of the principle throughout the Republic.

Resolved, That we give our voice to and pledge our assistance in the maintenance of the national faith and credit, insisting that, in the payment of the debt, the spirit of *contract* shall be truly and honorably observed.

At the election for President, Seymour, Democrat, received 10,980 votes; and Grant, Republican, received 7,623: Democratic majority 3,357. The Legislature chosen at this election was entirely Democratic.

DENMARK, a kingdom in Europe. King, Christian IX., born on April 8, 1808; succeeded King Frederick VII. on November 15, 1863. Heir, Prince Frederick, born June 3, 1843; betrothed with Princess Louisa, of Sweden, on July 15, 1868. Area of Denmark Proper, 14,698 English square miles; of the dependencies Faroe, Iceland, Danish settlements in Greenland, the islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies, 40,214 square miles. Minister of the United States in Denmark, George H. Yeaman, appointed in 1865. The population of Denmark, according to the official census of 1860, was 1,608,095; in 1865, it was estimated at 1,717,802. The population of the Danish dependencies, in 1860, was 108,983. In the budget for the year 1868-'69 the revenue is estimated at 27,438,748 rix-dollars; the expenditures at 28,024,955. The public debt, on March 31, 1868, amounted to 132,685,400 rix-dollars. The army,* in 1868, was composed as follows:

	First Call (Line and Reserve).		Second Call.	
	Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.
Infantry...	730	26,750	235	9,896
Cavalry....	126	1,922
Artillery...	139	6,523	23	1,540
Engineers..	4	207
Total....	995	35,195	262	11,143

The fleet, at the close of 1867, consisted of 30 steamers, inclusive of 6 iron-clads, with an aggregate of 389 guns, one sailing-vessel, 22 gunboats, and 31 transports.

The movement of shipping in 1867 was as follows:

	Vessels.	Tons.
Domestic Navigation.....	41,592	251,142
Foreign Navigation.....	35,878	514,382

The number of foreign vessels taking part in the domestic navigation was 942, or 2.3 per

* See the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, for an account of the military law of 1867; the latest statistics of the value of imports and exports; and an account of the present constitution.

cent.; and of those taking part in the foreign navigation, 18,419, or 51.3 per cent.

The merchant navy, on March 31, 1867, consisted of 3,736 vessels, among which were 77 steamers, together of 86,230 lasts.

In January both Chambers of the Diet gave their assent to the treaty with the United States relative to the sale of two of the Danish islands in the West Indies.

On March 3d, the Minister of Public Worship, Bishop Kierkegaard, tendered his resignation, on the ground of ill-health.

On April 9th, a postal treaty was signed at Copenhagen, with the North-German Confederation.

On May 20th, the Danish Diet was prorogued, the president of the ministry reading the royal message.

In August, the balance of the 29,000,000 thalers, due by Prussia to Denmark, in accordance with the provisions of the treaty of peace concluded at Vienna, were paid over to the Danish plenipotentiary at Berlin. The state council's levy, five and a half millions of this amount, had previously been paid.

On October 5th, the King opened a new session of the Diet with a speech from the throne, in the course of which he thus referred to the most important events in the foreign and domestic relations of the kingdom:

The confidential negotiations with Prussia respecting the free vote in North Schleswig, provided for in the treaty of Prague, have hitherto been without result. Our views of what justice and the well-understood interests of both countries require in this matter are unaltered. We must regard it as our first duty to coöperate toward no arrangement which, while not satisfying the wants of the inhabitants, might lead to future difficulties for the Danish kingdom in its relations with a country with which we wish to remain upon a friendly footing. We are convinced that Prussia approves these motives, and we hope to succeed in attaining the long-expected settlement on the basis of the above considerations.

The treaty with the United States of America for the cession of the Danish West Indian Islands, which has been approved by the Diet, has not yet been finally sanctioned by the United States, in consequence of the state of political affairs in that country, and at the wish of the American Government the term for the ratification of the treaty has been prolonged for another year by the Danish plenipotentiary at Washington.

The internal condition of the country is satisfactory. Now that Prussia's monetary engagements toward us are settled, we propose to reduce the public debt by 10,000,000 rix-dollars. At the same time the public Treasury will be able to defray the expenditure for the large public works required for the development of the country. An important railway line has been opened in Jutland, and other works are approaching completion. Private enterprise is developing the rich resources of the country, and the indirect taxes are continually yielding a larger revenue, thus demonstrating increased prosperity, and we therefore fearlessly lay before you bills for adding to the public receipts in order to reorganize the army and the fleet, preferring to bear now the burden of this expenditure instead of resorting to new loans.

DENMARK, THE PRESS OF, IN 1868. On the 1st of March, 1868, there were published in the kingdom of Denmark seventy-four politi-

cal papers, twenty-four literary journals, nineteen papers devoted to scientific, agricultural, and mechanical subjects, seventeen sheets, containing only advertisements, and eleven monthly magazines and quarterly reviews. Of the political newspapers twenty-two were dailies, seven tri-weeklies, nine semi-weeklies, and thirty-six weeklies. Twelve new political journals were started in the course of the year 1868, of which five were dailies, and the rest weeklies. Five of the old papers suspended publication or were entirely discontinued. The aggregate circulation of the daily papers of Denmark, in the first three months of the year 1868, was on an average ninety-two thousand copies daily; of the tri-weekly and semi-weekly papers, in the same length of time, on an average nineteen thousand copies; and the aggregate circulation of the weekly papers was estimated at a little over fifty thousand copies.

The largest circulation, of any daily paper published in Denmark in 1868, was nine thousand copies; the circulation of four other dailies exceeded five thousand copies; seven other dailies had a circulation of upward of three thousand copies; and the rest of the Danish dailies printed less than one thousand copies daily. Fourteen of the daily papers of Denmark receive daily dispatches from all parts of Europe; the other dailies are furnished from Copenhagen with a brief telegraphic synopsis of the most important news of the day. The sums paid by the Copenhagen and provincial press to the Danish telegraph-offices, for regular and special dispatches in the year 1867, amounted to about seventy-five thousand rix-dollars—a considerable falling off, when compared with the amount paid for the same purpose in the year 1866, when the Copenhagen papers vied with one another in procuring early and detailed telegraphic intelligence from the seat of war in Germany and Italy. The lack of important and interesting events, the continued stringency of the money-market, and the stagnation of business, which caused an unusually large number of failures in Copenhagen in the year 1868, exercised a depressing influence upon the newspaper business in Denmark, and there was, in consequence, a considerable falling off in the receipts of even the most flourishing papers in the kingdom, both from subscriptions and advertisements. There were, however, several occasions on which the Copenhagen papers succeeded in disposing of very large extra editions, as, for instance, during the week of the memorable visit which the delegation of French journalists paid to the Danish capital, and which, owing to the hopes which the Danish people built on an alliance with France in regard to a prospective struggle with Prussia and the other states of the North-German Confederation, assumed the importance of a great national demonstration. On the second day after the arrival of the French guests at Copenhagen, the *Dagbladet*

sold thirty thousand copies—an event unparalleled in the Danish newspaper market, where no journal had ever before succeeded in reaching a circulation of over twenty thousand copies on days of critical importance and extraordinary excitement.

In giving an account of the newspapers of Denmark, we should divide them into two classes: the Copenhagen press and the country journals. There is a wide difference between these two classes. The Copenhagen press, as even its most implacable adversaries are obliged to admit, is worthy of the great and beautiful city, the Paris of the North, in which it is published; while the provincial press, especially that of Jütland, consists only of very small papers of limited circulation, very little reading-matter, mostly confined to extracts from the Copenhagen papers, and an occasional leader written with very little ability. But, while the unusually large number of accomplished journalists and feuilletonists, who live in Copenhagen, impart a remarkable degree of editorial and literary excellence to the journals of that city, which in that respect are certainly superior to most of their German contemporaries, and while the managers of these Copenhagen papers, with hardly an exception, display a marked spirit of enterprise, the limited extent of the kingdom and the illiterate character of the population of the rural districts set bounds to the success of the metropolitan press. Their circulation is mostly confined to Copenhagen and the island on which the capital is situated; and no Copenhagen daily sends more than three hundred copies to the other islands and Jütland. At the same time, the people of Copenhagen and of Denmark generally advertise comparatively but very little in their newspapers, and, inasmuch as the advertising rates, moreover, are very moderate in Denmark, few of even the most popular Copenhagen newspapers can boast of brilliant financial successes. One of the consequences of this peculiar state of affairs is, that the compensation paid even to the most eminent journalists of Copenhagen is considerably smaller than that obtained by their brethren in any of the adjoining states; and it is a noteworthy fact that some of the leading Danish feuilletonists receive larger sums for the copyrights of the German, English, and French translations of their writings than they obtain for the originals published in the literary columns of the Copenhagen newspapers.

The aggregate circulation of the nine daily papers published in Copenhagen was on the 1st of August, 1868, 59,000 copies, a figure which is frequently exceeded on days of considerable excitement. Their total receipts for advertisements during the year 1867 were slightly above 250,000 rix-dollars. Of the older dailies the *Dagbladet* has the largest circulation; but some of the cheap dailies which were started a few years ago, and are sold at the low price of one rix-bank-shilling a copy,

such as the *Telegraph* and the *Railroad Gazette*, have occasionally sold more copies than the *Dagbladet*.

As regards the press laws, the Danish press is almost as free as that of Great Britain. Prosecutions of editors and publishers for offences committed against the press laws are exceedingly rare, and in 1868 nothing of the kind took place, save the final disposal made of an old prosecution against a contributor of the *Dagbladet*, who had two years ago published in that paper a number of letters, which, in the opinion of the Government, preached treasonable doctrines. The courts, however, did not sustain the prosecution. The tone of the Danish press toward the royal Government is one of marked independence and determination. A majority of the Copenhagen journals are opposed to the domestic and foreign policy of the present Government, and they attack it nearly every day in articles the bold language of which would in every other country on the continent, except perhaps Belgium and Italy, lead to the suppression of the paper. Throughout the year 1868, the opposition journals in Denmark accused the Government of displaying a spirit of lukewarmness and pusillanimity in its negotiations with Prussia in regard to the retrocession of the Danish districts of North-Schleswig. In the summer of 1868 another cause of discontent added to the bitterness and indignation of the language used by the opposition organs. For some time past, it had been rumored that the royal Government intended to apply to the Danish Chambers for the adoption of a law subjecting the Danish press to certain restrictions. These rumors assumed a more definite character at the above-mentioned time, it being reported that the subject had been discussed at several sittings of the royal cabinet. The emphatic and defiant protests of a large majority of the Danish papers, sustained as they evidently were by public opinion, especially in the city of Copenhagen, induced the Government to abandon its purposes in this direction, its special organs in the press claiming that the proposed changes in the press laws had no other object than the adoption of certain regulations which would not have interfered at all with the liberty of the press.

The extension of the telegraph lines throughout the kingdom in the early part of 1868, and the reduction of the telegraph rates, and the favorable arrangements made with the continental telegraph bureaux; an unsuccessful attempt to form a Scandinavian press association, and a general strike on the part of the compositors and pressmen of Copenhagen, which fortunately terminated at an early day in an arrangement satisfactory to both printers and publishers, were the other noteworthy events in the history of the political press of Denmark during the year 1868.

Of the literary and scientific journals, magazines, and reviews of Denmark, it may be said

that their circulation is as limited as their reading-matter is excellent. The proudest names of Danish literature and science are represented in these periodicals, few of which have a circulation of over one thousand copies. Two new magazines and seven new literary papers were issued in Copenhagen during the year 1868; one of the older magazines and three literary papers were discontinued.

DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS. *Alabama Claims.*—

The question of the payment by Great Britain of the claims of American ship-owners for the depredations by vessels fitted out in England for the Confederates, and known by the general term of the *Alabama* claims, was revived in the House of Commons on March the 7th, 1868, by Mr. Shaw Lefevre. He made a long and eloquent speech on the subject, in which he urged the settlement of this vexed question on the plan proposed by the American Government. In calling for papers on the subject, and in moving the consideration of the question, he disclaimed any feeling of prejudice. All future negotiations, he said, would but add to complications already existing. He sketched the progress of the recent civil war in the United States to its happy termination. He said the fall of Fort Sumter evoked the famous proclamation of Mr. Lincoln. In less than a month after the appearance of that proclamation Great Britain had recognized the Southern insurgents as belligerents. They had no fleet, but they purchased ships in our ports. These ships, notwithstanding the vigorous measures of our Government to stop them, eluded our vigilance, and went to sea, and were hospitably received at British colonial ports. They captured and destroyed during the war more than two hundred American merchant-vessels. In less than two years the United States was literally driven from the seas, while the commerce of Great Britain was doubled. For this reason, the speaker thought we ought to treat these claims generously. They were first made in 1862, by the American minister, Mr. Adams.

After a warm eulogium on the course of Mr. Adams on this and other questions, Mr. Shaw Lefevre continued: The arbitration of the matter had been proposed by the American Government, but refused by Lord John Russell, who repelled the suggestion. Mr. Stanley might have taken the other course, as the Tories had changed on the question of household suffrage. The question of recognition by England was only as to her rights, if these were rights that might safely be referred. But Mr. Stanley had insisted that the responsibility of England was only a moral one in the *Alabama* case. The speaker thought the less said about morality on this question the better. He regarded the breaking out of a war between England and the United States as extremely unlikely; but thought, on the other hand, that all needless irritation should be shunned.

Lord Stanley then took the floor. He praised the pacific oration of Mr. Lefevre, and warmly complimented Mr. Adams for the conciliatory spirit he had displayed in the subject under discussion. He said we could not make indiscriminate concessions, but we could learn the right of the case. There never was a case where there was more need of understanding the points. Much allowance is to be made for the feeling of the United States. Great Britain, in the same case, with five hundred millions of debt contracted through a civil war in which a million of lives had been lost, might appreciate the matter better than mere lookers-on only. He thought England had been entirely neutral; but no neutrality would have pleased America. What the United States wanted was neutrality coupled with warm sympathy and support. The Queen was ready to arbitrate and submit all questions but the great point of recognizing the belligerent rights of the South. Nobody contends that at no time the South acquired them, and, if not, why deny the right of Great Britain to recognize them at the time she did? The Confederate ship *Alabama* did not sail from England until 1862, and the battle of Bull Run was fought in 1861. Admitting that it was wrong for Great Britain to recognize the South, would the United States Government say that its case against the *Alabama* had been altered had Great Britain made the declaration of neutrality six, rather than eleven months before she sailed? The speaker referred to the speeches of Daniel Webster in the United States Senate, on the subject of recognizing Hungary, in support of his argument. How could England refuse to recognize a war which Mr. Seward himself had announced to be a civil war nine, twelve, or sixteen days before the proclamation? Who could complain that England had recognized a civil war which the United States had admitted some weeks before? In conclusion, he thought a friendly arrangement of this difficulty was still practicable. He deprecated the debate. The friendly reception of Minister Thornton at Washington was a pledge of peace. The ministers were ready to leave the question to the entire world.

W. E. Forster, the member for Bradford, thought Mr. Seward's views of the question of the recognition of the *Alabama* claims deserved better treatment and more careful consideration, as being perhaps the view that was right and sensible. He complained of the abrupt disposition of the question which had been made when the universal wish of the United Kingdom was for its speedy settlement. He thought that if any impartial statesman had been sent to the United States as minister, the point in dispute might be readily adjusted.

John Stuart Mill, the member for Westminster, was the next speaker.

He regarded the present condition of the question as the result of a mutual mistake. The real question was, whether England was

bound to prevent such expeditions as that of the Alabama. He denied that the United States Government claimed, or could claim, that the recognition of the South was a violation of law, but only that it was an unfriendly, rash, and unprecedented act. The American Government only pressed the point for the purpose of showing that, but for the unfriendly action of England, the Alabama depredations would not have occurred. Mr. Mill thought that an arbiter between the two countries was needless, and that reparation was fairly due to the United States. He concluded by advising the appointment of a mixed commission for the purpose of the adjustment of the question.

W. E. Gladstone, member from South Lancashire, thanked Mr. Lefevre for his able speech, and Lord Stanley for his temperate reply. He (Gladstone) could not understand why the negotiation ended, nor could he agree with Mr. Mill that Lord Stanley had admitted that reparation was due, or that an arbiter would surely decide against England. For himself, he doubted if reparation for the Alabama depredations was due the United States. It was unquestionably right that the point should be referred to a commission; but, if the Government feared such a reference, it should settle the matter at once, or leave the decision with an umpire.

Mr. Gladstone inferred, however, from the closing sentences of Lord Stanley, that the communications between the two Governments had not closed, and that friendly feelings between the United States and England would be preserved. He concluded by saying, if his inference was correct, the whole country would support Lord Stanley in a just and honorable settlement of the case. The debate was closed with Mr. Gladstone's remarks.

On Mr. Reverdy Johnson succeeding Mr. Adams as minister to the court of St. James, he immediately opened negotiations with the Foreign Secretary in reference to the settlement of this question, which negotiations carried on with Lord Stanley and his successor, Lord Clarendon, resulted in the following text of a treaty to be submitted to their respective Governments:

Whereas, claims have been made at various times, since the adjournment of the convention between the United States and Great Britain of February 8, 1853, upon the Government of her Britannic Majesty on the part of citizens of the United States, and upon the Government of the United States by the subjects of her Britannic Majesty; and whereas some of said claims are still pending and remaining unsettled, the President of the United States of America, and her Majesty, the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being of opinion that a speedy and equitable settlement of all such claims will contribute much to the maintenance of the friendly feelings which exist between the two Governments, have resolved to make arrangements for that purpose by means of a convention, and have named their plenipotentiaries to confer and agree thereupon, that is to say: The President of the United States of America, Reverdy Johnson, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to her Brit-

annic Majesty, and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Lord Clarendon, etc., her Britannic Majesty's principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, who, after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, found in good and due form, have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The high contracting parties agree that all claims on the part of individuals, citizens of the United States, upon the Government of her Britannic Majesty, and all claims on the part of individuals, subjects of her Britannic Majesty, upon the Government of the United States, which may have been presented to either Government for its interposition with the other, since the exchange of ratifications at London, February 8, 1853, which yet remain unsettled, as well as any other such claims which may be presented within the time specified in article three, hereinafter, shall be referred to four commissioners to be appointed in the following manner, that is to say: two commissioners shall be named by the President of the United States, and confirmed by the Senate and by her Britannic Majesty. The aforesaid commissioners shall meet at the earliest period after they shall have been respectively named, and before entering on the discharge of their duties shall make a declaration under oath that they will impartially and carefully examine and decide, to the best of their judgment, and according to justice and equity, without fear, favor, or affection to their own country, upon all such claims as shall be laid before them on the part of the Governments of the United States and of her Britannic Majesty, respectively, and such declaration shall be entered on the record of their proceedings. The commissioners shall then, and before proceeding to any other business, name some third person to act as an arbitrator or umpire in any case or cases on which they may themselves differ in opinion. If they should not be able to agree upon the name of such third person, they shall each name a person, and in each and every case in which the commissioners may differ in opinion as to the decision which they ought to give, it shall be determined by lot which of the two persons so named shall be the arbitrator or umpire in that particular case. The person or persons so to be chosen to be arbitrator or umpire shall, before proceeding to act as such in any case, make and subscribe a solemn declaration in a form similar to that which shall already have been made and subscribed by the commissioners, which shall be entered on the record of their proceedings. In the event of the death, absence, or incapacity of such person or persons, or of his or their omitting or declining or ceasing to act as such arbitrator or umpire, another and different person shall be named as aforesaid, to act as such arbitrator or umpire in the place and stead of the person so originally named as aforesaid, and shall make and subscribe such declaration as aforesaid.

ART. 2. The commissioners shall then forthwith proceed to the investigation of the claims which shall be presented to their notice. They shall investigate and decide upon such claims, in such order, and in such manner, but upon such evidence or information only as shall be furnished by or on behalf of their respective Governments. They shall be bound to receive and peruse all written documents or statements which may be presented to them by or on behalf of their respective Governments in support of and in answer to any claim, and to hear, if required, one person on each side, on behalf of each Government, as counsel or agent for such Government, on each and every separate claim. Should they fail to agree in opinion upon any claim, they shall call to their assistance the arbitrator or umpire whom they may have agreed to name, or who may be determined by lot, as the case may be, and such arbitrator or umpire, after having examined the evidence adduced, for and against the claim, and after having heard, if required, one person on each side, as aforesaid, and

consulted with the commissioners, shall decide thereupon finally and without appeal. Nevertheless, if the commissioners, or any two of them, shall think it desirable that a sovereign, or head of a friendly state, should be an arbitrator or umpire in the case of any claim, the commissioners shall report to that effect to their respective Governments, who shall thereupon, within six months, agree upon some sovereign, or head of a friendly state, who shall be invited to decide the claim. In the event of a decision involving the question of compensation to be paid being arrived at by a special arbitrator or umpire, the amount of such compensation shall be referred back to the commissioners for adjudication, and in the event of their not being able to agree, it shall then be decided by the arbitrator or umpire appointed by them, or who shall have been determined by lot. It shall be competent for each Government to name one person to attend the commissioners as agent on its behalf, to present and support claims on its behalf, and to answer claims made upon it, and to represent it generally in all matters connected with the investigation and decision thereof. The President of the United States of America, and her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, solemnly and sincerely engage to consider the decision of the commissioners, or umpire, as the case may be, as absolutely final and conclusive upon each claim decided upon by them respectively; and, to give full effect to such decisions without any objection, evasion, or delay, whatsoever, it is agreed that no claim arising out of any transaction of a date prior to February 8, 1853, shall be admissible under this convention.

ART. 3. Every claim shall be presented to the commissioners within six months from the day of their first meeting, unless in any case where reasons for delay shall be established to the satisfaction of the commissioners, or of the arbitrator or umpire, in the event of the commissioners differing in opinion thereupon, and then, in any such case, the period for presenting the claim may be extended not exceeding three months longer. The commissioners shall be bound to examine and decide upon every claim within two years from the day of their first meeting, which meeting shall be held in the city of Washington.

ART. 4. All sums of money which may be awarded by the commissioners, or by the arbitrator or umpire, on account of any claim, shall be paid in coin or its equivalent by the one Government to the other, as the case may be, within eighteen months after the date of the decision, without interest.

ART. 5. The high contracting parties engage to consider the result of the proceedings at this commission as a full, perfect, and final settlement of every claim upon either Government arising out of any transaction of a date prior to the exchange of the ratifications of the present convention; and further engage that every such claim, whether or not the same may have been presented to the notice of, made, preferred, or laid before the said commission, shall, from and after the conclusion of the proceedings of the said commission, be considered and treated as finally settled, barred and thenceforth inadmissible.

ART. 6. The commissioners and the arbitrator or umpire shall keep an accurate record and correct minutes or notes of all their proceedings, with the dates thereof, and shall appoint and employ a clerk or other person to assist them in the transaction of the business which may come before them. A secretary and clerks are to be appointed conjointly. The whole expenses of the commission, including contingent expenses, shall be defrayed equally between the two Governments.

ART. 7. The present convention shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by her Britannic Majesty, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, as soon as may be within twelve months from the date hereof.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the fourteenth day of January, A. D. eighteen hundred and sixty-nine.

CLARENDON.
REVERDY JOHNSON.

China.—Mr. Burlingame, the representative of the United States in China, by letter of December 11, 1867, to Mr. Seward, informed him of his appointment by the Chinese Government as envoy to the treaty powers, and his acceptance of the position, and his intention to visit the United States with the embassy by the first opportunity. On arriving in Washington, the embassy was presented and received by President Johnson, who on the 9th of July transmitted to the Senate the text of a treaty (*see CHINA*).

This treaty was subsequently ratified by the Senate substantially as given on a preceding page.

Extradition.—The following important opinion, delivered by Judge Hall of the United States Circuit Court for the Northern District of New York on the *certiorari* and *habeas corpus* in the notorious extradition case of Charles H. Baker, which was argued by Messrs. Swartz and Benedict, counsel for the Queen, and by Messrs. Box and Parker for the prisoner, will be important to the legal profession:

Judge Hall says that a foreign conviction under the statutes of the State of New York does not render a witness incompetent, as the statute has no reference to a conviction under the laws of the State. The statutes of the State of New York provide that the Governor or Legislature may pardon a convict, and thus restore his competency. This could not be done in the case of a foreign conviction, however. "I am of the opinion that the same result would be reached, if the case was governed by the rules of evidence as they stood previous to the statutes of this State, as a foreign conviction in the year 1789 would not render such person incompetent."

The following important questions of law were fully argued, but the decision on the first point rendered a decision on them unnecessary, although the intimations of the Court were in their favor:

1. Bail could not be taken under the extradition treaty, because cases so arising are not offences against the United States, but simply under the treaty.

2. The question whether the United States Circuit Court has appellate jurisdiction from the decision of the United States Commissioner.

3. How far the Criminal Court could receive evidence in *certiorari* and *habeas corpus*.

Neutrality Laws.—The Government Commission, named by the British Cabinet to inquire into the workings of the neutrality laws and amendments proper to be made to enable the Government to fulfil all its international obligations, made their report.

The commission was composed of very eminent men, including two Lord Chancellors, several learned judges, and public men of high political standing of both of the great parties. Among them is Mr. Phillimore, the distinguished author of a work on public law, and Mr. Vernon Harcourt, the author of the well-known letters on this class of questions, printed over the signature of "Historicus." The commission was as able and independent as could be well made up from the two great parties.

The commission dealt with the subject in a very comprehensive spirit. They refused to be guided by any nice line of discriminations as to what constitutes exact duty under international law; but took as the basis of their recommendations the moral obligations of nations to maintain strict neutrality, and on that proceeded to make a code of municipal regulations which would effect that object, whether required or not by the strict letter of international law.

In this temper they recommended certain alterations in the law, and improvements in the forms of pleading on indictments under the neutrality law, to the end that a trial may be reached on the merits without delay.

Among the new provisions recommended are these:

A prohibition against the preparing or fitting out, from any British port, of any naval or military expedition against any state with which Great Britain is at peace, whether such state be at war with any other state or not.

Making it a misdemeanor—

1. To fit out, arm, dispatch, or cause to be dispatched, any vessel with intent, or knowledge, that it will be employed by any foreign power, in war against another, with which Great Britain is at peace; or

2. To build or equip within British jurisdiction any ship, with the intent that the same shall, after being fitted out and armed, "either within or without the British dominions," be employed in that way; or

3. Commence or attempt to do, or aid in doing, these acts.

There is a special section containing ten provisions for regulating and making efficient the powers of the executive and the courts.

It is also recommended that it be made a misdemeanor to engage any person to quit the country on any representation whatever, if it be the intent to employ him in foreign military service.

It is further recommended that all prizes of neutral vessels brought into British jurisdiction, if captured by any vessel in the employ of a belligerent, which has been built or sent out of England, in violation of the neutrality act, shall, on due proof, be returned to the owners from whom they were captured, and no vessel which has got out of British jurisdiction, against the neutrality laws, and becomes employed in the service of any belligerent government at war, shall be admitted into any British port thereafter.

Naturalization.—H. Kreissmann, United States consul at Berlin, writes as follows, under date of July 11th, to F. W. Seward, Assistant Secretary of State:

I beg to inform you that, in a circular dated July 6th, the Prussian Minister of the Interior instructs those government officials whom it concerns that by the conclusion of the treaty of February 22, 1868, between the United States and North Germany, it is intended, in accordance with article second of said treaty, that citizens of the North-German Union who have emigrated to the United States without permission of the proper authorities, and thereby committed an act punishable under the laws relating thereto, are not to be indicted, prosecuted, or punished for such criminal act on their return to their former homes, after an absence of five years, and that any judgment or punishment which may have been pronounced or decreed against such citizens, by reason of their emigration to the United States without permission, is not to be executed or enforced against them, provided the parties have acquired citizenship in the United States, in accordance with article one of the treaty in question. The circular of the minister accordingly directs the proper officials, throughout the kingdom, in no case to institute the proceedings for the trial and punishment, and to desist from any molestation whatever of any individual coming under the provisions of the treaty, if such individual furnish the proper proof of his having become a naturalized citizen of the United States, pursuant to article one of the treaty. The Minister of Justice has, moreover, called on the Courts of Justice throughout Prussia for official reports of all the cases in which judgments and sentences have been passed, and still stand in force, with the view of having all punishments, fines, and costs remitted by means of a royal pardon.

Negotiations, tending to the recognition of the rights of the naturalized citizens of the United States by their native governments, were carried on, and in some instances concluded favorably to such rights.

Paraguay.—A difficulty arose between the Paraguayan Government and Mr. Washburn, the United States minister, during the year. The trouble sprung out of the evacuation of Asuncion, and the declaration by the Paraguayan Government that it was a military point. The American legation alone was allowed to remain in Asuncion, and several persons, between the date of evacuation and June 16th, took up their abode in the American ministry. A correspondence arose between Benitez and Mr. Washburn as to the persons who were protected at the American embassy, the former charging some with crimes and others with communicating with the enemy, and demanding their surrender to the authorities. These allegations were denied by Mr. Washburn. A long and bitter correspondence ensued, resulting in the forcible seizure of some of the residents, and, as claimed by Mr. Washburn, attachés of the United States legation, by the Paraguayan authorities.

Matters were in such a condition, that Mr. Seward writes, under date of November 11th, to Secretary Welles: "I have thought it my duty to advise the President that the rear admiral should be instructed to proceed, with an adequate force, at once to Paraguay, and take

such measures as may be found necessary, to prevent violence to the lives and property of American citizens there, and, in the exercise of a sound discretion, to demand and obtain prompt redress for any extreme insult or violence that may have been arbitrarily committed against the flag of the United States or their citizens." In compliance with this request, the naval forces of the United States demanded and obtained an apology, and promise of reparation.

DOMINION OF CANADA. It is known that by an Act of the Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, passed in March, 1867, this Dominion was created, and that by royal proclamation, issued in the subsequent month of May, it was proclaimed to exist, and its operations directed to commence. This act abrogated the constitutions, respectively, of the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and enacted that thenceforth they should be "federally united into one Dominion under the crown of Great Britain and Ireland, with a constitution similar to that of the United Kingdom." Although the same preamble states that these Provinces had "expressed their desire" to be so united, it would be more strictly true to say that the measure originated in the political necessities of the Province of Canada. The maritime Provinces had desired a Confederacy apart from Canada, and had entered into consultation to that end; but the authorities of the latter Province seized upon the occasion to effect the larger Union, and thus escape from local embarrassments, which had become almost chronic, and the nature of which may be somewhat understood by an outsider when told that in twenty-three years there had been fourteen governments, giving an average duration of nineteen months; besides which was the frequent forcing out of individual members of the Cabinet to make way for others, who might possibly bring more strength, and the equally glaring scandals of keeping offices of the Executive vacant for months from sheer inability to fill them by men in popular favor, and having others occupied by ministers who could not obtain seats in Parliament. Let it not be understood, however, that good had not been effected under this *régime*. The Act of 1840, which united the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, was intended to correct long-standing abuses, and to introduce changes demanded by the advanced knowledge and love of freedom of the time; and, notwithstanding the mutations and errors referred to, these objects were, to a great extent, attained. The imprudent and not less imprudent Act of King George III., in reserving one-seventh of the lands of Upper Canada for the support and maintenance of the Protestant clergy "produced, as might have been foreseen, much bitter dissension," which was but little relieved by the several attempts made, under imperial dictation, to vary the bearings of the law; but by an act of the free

Parliament of Canada, passed in the session of 1856, the "clergy reserves" again became a portion of the public domain—due provision being made for the interests of clergymen to whom salaries and allowances had been made under the old law—the act also solemnly affirming that its provisions were intended "to remove all semblance of connection between church and state"—an all-important preparation for "a new nationality." In the period referred to, education was much improved and extended in the two Canadas. In the Upper Province the Toronto University, endowed from the public lands, but the benefits of which had been long monopolized by the Church of England, was remodelled by the legislature, and a remarkable impetus given to grammar and common school education. In Lower Canada much was also done, especially as regards elementary instruction, colleges and high schools having been from an early period in good standing. But the grand reform in favor of the latter Province was the abolition of the "feudal rights and duties" which had obtained since the first settlement of the country by the French, and "the substitution of a free tenure for that under which the property subject thereto hath heretofore been held." This change was effected at a cost of nearly four millions of dollars to the public chest, and is universally regarded as an act *par excellence* of liberal legislation. It is also said to be the only case in the history of the world, excepting the recent change in Russia, in which the feudal system was abolished without resort to violence. For the benefit of the United Provinces throughout, were established, since 1850, railways of an aggregate length of nearly two thousand miles. The principal of these is the Grand Trunk, extending over eleven hundred miles. Toward the construction of these several railways the Government contributed \$20,000,000, which expenditure, however, induced the investment in the same work of at least \$100,000,000 of English capital. The telegraph was introduced in 1847, and soon extended to all the principal places in the country. In 1853 the Montreal Ocean Steamship Company was formed, and in 1856 its regular mail service commenced. It was at first fortnightly, but in 1859 it was made weekly, and so continues. The capital of the company may be estimated at \$9,000,000. To an ordinary observer such regular progress as this outline indicates would seem to insure a continuance of the form of government under which it was effected, at least for years yet to come. But, with collective bodies as with the individual man, prosperity produces not so much contentment, or rest, as the desire for more—or, as we prefer to have it, *Excelsior* is the natural motto.

The Dominion of Canada, thus brought into existence, the creature of circumstances exposing it to early and probably hostile criticism, required skilful guidance, at least in the

start, and so far it may be said to be gradually advancing in strength and national importance. Constructed so as to admit, one day or other, of the question of "State rights," Sir John A. MacDonald thus described the care that was taken to prevent evil from that source. First referring to the United States, he says: "They declared by their Constitution that each State was a sovereignty in itself, and that all the powers incident to a sovereignty belonged to each State, except those powers which, by the Constitution, were conferred upon the General Government and Congress." Then, speaking of the Dominion, he points out the difference: "Here we have adopted a different system. We have strengthened the General Government. We have given the General Legislature all the great subjects of legislation. We have conferred upon them, not only specifically and in detail, all the powers which are incident to sovereignty, but we have expressly declared that all subjects of general interest not distinctly and exclusively conferred upon the local Governments and local Legislatures, shall be conferred upon the General Government and Legislature."

Discussion has, however, arisen as to the relative powers of the local and General Governments and Legislatures, friends of the former affecting to see a disposition at headquarters to "belittle" them, as they have somewhat forcibly expressed it. Hence Mr. Dunkin, a prominent member of the Quebec Administration, announced in his place in the Legislature in 1867 that "none of the functions of the Provinces have a municipal character. They are not derived from the Dominion; they are not dependent on the Dominion; their authority is not subordinate to the Dominion. It has far more the character of coördination." But some months' reflection would seem to have modified Mr. Dunkin's view—bringing it more in harmony with Sir John A. MacDonald's—for, in a recent speech, we find him affirming that "he never entertained a thought of claiming any undue importance or jurisdiction for the local governments. The local governments had subordinate functions to the General Government, but no one could deny that they had some coördinate powers, and that was all he claimed." Trouble of a more serious nature, amounting almost to alarm, prevails in another quarter of the Dominion. The people of Nova Scotia have from the beginning been opposed to that province being included in the Confederacy, and have, by protest and remonstrance, in various forms, denied the right of the local Parliament to sanction the annulling of their ancient Constitution—holding to the doctrine of Locke, that "the Legislature can have no power to transfer their authority of making laws, or to place it in other hands." This opposition, led by the Hon. Joseph Howe, an old and able politician, completely controlled the elections which have occurred since confederation, and still continues formidable; but, as

the appeal to England was absolutely without effect, and, as the leading statesmen of both parties in the House of Commons have expressed their unwillingness to interfere with a scheme which, although more immediately colonial in its operations, is yet of great importance, from an imperial point of view, it is thought that Mr. Howe is becoming somewhat more pacific in his disposition toward the General Government, and that the latter are willing to meet him in a spirit of compromise.* It is understood that Newfoundland is now well disposed toward that "eventual admission into the Union" which the imperial Act provides for, and that an open declaration to that effect would soon follow an adjustment with Nova Scotia. British Columbia has made formal communication of her willingness to join immediately upon the Hudson's Bay Territory being acquired. The Dominion Parliament of 1867 passed resolutions authorizing this acquisition, and two members of the General Government, Messrs. Cartier and MacDougall, are at present in England, engaged in forwarding the necessary negotiations. It is believed that the ancient company to whom this territory legally belongs will not be induced to surrender their rights at a less cost to the Dominion than \$5,000,000.

The legislation of the several Parliaments of the Dominion, federal and local, has been, so far, carefully consistent with the general welfare, if we except an apparent unwillingness in Quebec to encourage immigration.

Prominent among the measures of the Federal or Dominion Parliament of 1868, stands the Post-office Act, which repeals the material provisions of all previously-existing postal laws in the former Provinces, and assimilates the regulations and rates throughout the Dominion. The rate of local postage has been reduced from five cents to three, and the Postmaster-General has effected an arrangement with the United States, reducing the postage between that country and Canada from ten cents to six. Post-office savings banks have been authorized and established. Another important postal event has been the withdrawal of the Cunard boats from the route between Liverpool and Boston, *via* Halifax, by which the provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were deprived of direct postal communication with Great Britain. But the Canadian Government has since entered into a contract—which commenced on the 1st of July last, and is to continue for three years—with the In-

* Since the above was written, Mr. Howe has been at Ottawa, the seat of the Dominion Government, and obtained such an extent of fiscal and other concessions for Nova Scotia as to warrant, in his own judgment, his acceptance of a place in the Cabinet. He has returned to Nova Scotia to seek reflection to the House of Commons under these circumstances. Writing from Portland, on his way home, to a friend in Montreal, he says: "I did not take office, though it had been open to me for eighteen months, till my country's fair claim to readjustment of the scheme was admitted, and until Gladstone's Cabinet, with John Bright in it, counselled peace and refused repeal."

man Steamship Company, to perform this service, by calling fortnightly at Halifax for mails and passengers, on their voyages to and from the United Kingdom. Important laws respecting customs, public works, the civil service, the militia, marine, and fisheries, and an "Act respecting the currency," have also passed.* Cap. 40 of the militia law makes provision for works of fortification and defence. Power is taken to raise £1,000,000 for such works, under the guarantee of the imperial treasury, to rank next after the Intercolonial Railway Loan, and to be expended on the works at St. John, N. B., Montreal, and points farther west. The Currency Act provides that if the Congress of the United States adopt the basis of the International Monetary Conference, making the American half-eagle equal to the French twenty-five franc piece, then, by proclamation, the same currency will be adopted in the Dominion. It it also provided that the Governor may order that silver coins of the United States be received as legal tender in Quebec, Ontario, and New Brunswick. A marked feature in the legislation of Ontario is a measure in favor of immigrant settlers. "Free grants and homesteads" are authorized to be given in several extensive districts, and it is humanely regulated that, "upon the death of the locatee, the land so given passes to his widow, unless she prefers to accept her dower in it. The land cannot be alienated or mortgaged until the patent issues, nor within twenty years of the location, without consent of the wife, if living. Nor shall it be liable during that twenty years to be sold under execution for any debt, except a mortgage or pledge, after the patent issues." An act "respecting gold and silver mines" also passed; and the genius of the people (chiefly of English and Scotch birth and origin) is shown by a law relating to the municipal institutions of the Province, in which previously-existing laws are carefully and minutely altered and improved. The Quebec Legislature has shown no disposition to encourage emigration to that province from Europe. This is, no doubt, owing to the natural desire to preserve intact the power of the French element. Much anxiety is evinced to induce French Canadians from the old and thickly-settled districts to take possession of the unsettled, or crown lands; and to this end "colonization roads" are being constructed to a considerable extent, exclusively by the Government, and aid tendered to municipalities for a like purpose. It is also known that agencies are at work to induce French-Canadian emigrants to the United States to return. As a result of this movement, addresses from many of those emigrants, residing in the Northern States, have lately been presented, praying that "the Parliament of Quebec will furnish them

an opportunity of returning to their country." *Per contra*, it may be stated that the Catholic Bishop of Burlington, Vt., lately applied, in the city of Quebec, for French-Canadian priests to coöperate with him in ministering to their countrymen residing in the United States, of whom, he says, there are not less, in the aggregate, than half a million; "that they are still pressing forward at an average of a thousand per week," and that he "desired to supply them with priests, speaking their own language and participating in their ideas, on the soil to which they have become attached."

In New Brunswick, the legislation embraces collection and management of revenue, roads and bridges, county courts, and an act which exempts homesteads, not exceeding in value six hundred dollars, from seizure for debt, or cause of action accruing after the passing of said act. The principal measure in Nova Scotia relates to its leading interests, gold and coal mines. And besides the general act, not less than thirty-five "gold-mining companies" were incorporated—capital from fifty thousand to one hundred thousand dollars each—and eight companies for "coal mining," capital from one hundred thousand dollars to five hundred thousand dollars.

But the proceeding of paramount interest in the Dominion in the past year is the enactment authorizing the Intercolonial Railway; and the commencement, accordingly, of that great work. This road is to confederation as the keystone to the arch. Without it there could be no union, and without the union the British Government would never guarantee the necessary loan of £3,000,000. The imperial act authorizing this loan provides thus: "The commissioners of her Majesty's Treasury shall not give any guarantee under this Act, unless and until an Act of the Parliament of *Canada* has been passed, within two years after the union of Canada under the British North America Act, 1867, providing, to the satisfaction of one of her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, as follows:

"1. For the construction of the railway.

"2. For the use of the railway at all times for Her Majesty's military and other service.

"Nor unless and until the line in which the railway is to be constructed has been approved by one of her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State." The main object of this clause was to oblige the Dominion Parliament to adopt a line marked out some years since by Major Robinson, an imperial officer, running by the Gulf shore as far north as possible from the American frontier. This line has been adopted, the sanction of the Secretary of State obtained accordingly, railway commissioners appointed, as directed by the Dominion Act, and tenders for contracts called for. There are two provisions in the law evidently directed against jobbing, viz.: "All contracts for over \$10,000 to be submitted to the Governor in council for approval. No member of Parliament can be

* The Customs Act, consisting of one hundred and forty-one clauses, consolidates the previous laws of the several Provinces of the Dominion, furnishing a complete general code, and making the tariff uniform.

an officer or a contractor under the commissioners." Reliable figures as to finance and trade in the Dominion since its formation could not be obtained up to a recent date, the official answer to a request for particulars being, "The accounts of the Dominion and of the Provinces, for the first year of the Union, are not yet ready for publication." It may be interesting, however, to state that the ordinary revenue of all the Provinces the year before confederation was \$15,842,380; the ordinary expenditure was \$15,227,168. The imports for the same year were \$84,000,000, including about \$6,000,000 of coin and bullion; the exports, \$65,000,000, including \$3,000,000 of specie.

The united debt of the former Provinces of Canada, and the Provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, at the time of the Union, was not less than \$90,000,000—\$75,000,000 for the former, and \$15,000,000 for the latter—to which will be added, almost immediately, at least \$28,000,000 for Intercolonial Railway, fortifications, and purchase of northwest territory. This will be no small total for a population of not more than four millions to grapple with; and should the population not increase more rapidly than at present, and a further influx of British capital not take place, there would be little justification for an early expenditure for enlarging canals, and an extension of railways—objects of lively interest at present to a mercantile party in the Dominion.

There are twenty-six chartered banks in the four Provinces, viz., in Ontario, six; Quebec, eleven; New Brunswick, four; Nova Scotia, five; capital varying from \$60,000 to \$6,000,000. The total authorized capital is \$38,000,000, the greater part of which is paid up. In March last the oldest bank in Ontario was obliged to suspend, and become amalgamated with the Merchants' Bank, two-thirds of its capital stock of \$4,000,000 disappearing in the process. In November the Commercial Bank of St. John's, New Brunswick, failed, causing a severe financial crisis. A number of failures of wholesale houses in Quebec has had a most prejudicial effect on credit and business generally. A recent report of one of the banks in Montreal, referring to these failures, says: "Commercial morality appears so singularly debased, that a large portion of the community seem to consider it not dishonorable to become bankrupt, or even fraudulently bankrupt, as a means to enrich themselves." This does not apply so much to the west, where there has been a continued growth of prosperity, owing to a series of abundant harvests.

The political government of the Dominion continues the same as at the outset, Sir John A. MacDonald the presiding genius. Lord Monck has been replaced as Governor-General by Sir John Young, baronet, etc., a man of high reputation as an administrator.

DUFFIELD, Rev. GEORGE, D. D., an American Presbyterian clergyman, scholar, and author, born in Strasburg, Lancaster County, Pa.,

July 4, 1794; died in Detroit, Mich., June 26, 1868. He was of Revolutionary stock, his grandfather having been a distinguished patriot and chaplain of the First Congress of the United States. His father was a merchant, and for nine years Comptroller-General of Pennsylvania. He early developed a passion for learning, and graduated with honor from the University of Pennsylvania at the early age of sixteen. The ensuing autumn he entered the Theological Seminary in New York City, then under the care of the celebrated Dr. John M. Mason, and after a four years' course there was licensed in April, 1815, by the Presbytery of Philadelphia. In December of the same year he was called to the pastorate of the Presbyterian Church in Carlisle, Pa., and soon after his settlement there married a daughter of the celebrated Divie Bethune. He remained in this pastorate for nineteen years, and then accepted a call to the Fifth Presbyterian Church of Philadelphia, as successor to Rev. T. H. Skinner, D. D. Two years later he was called to the Broadway Tabernacle, New York, but remained there but a single year, when he again removed in October, 1838, to Detroit, Mich., and became pastor of the First Presbyterian Church in that city. Here he found his home, and remained till the close of his ministry and life. He was well adapted for such a post, and for thirty years he was a pillar of strength in all great measures of reform and progress. Michigan and the whole Northwest owe much to him for his broad views, his untiring zeal, and his hearty coöperation in all movements for the promotion of education, science, and philanthropy. Few men in our country were so fully conversant with all departments of science, or possessed so wide and liberal culture. He was particularly well versed in all the branches of physical science: astronomy, meteorology, geology, mineralogy, geography, and chemistry, and all the departments of natural philosophy, were subjects of constant study and observation with him, and he was the peer of the special cultivators of each, in his thorough knowledge of them. As a preacher he was able, eloquent, logical, and often profound; as a writer, the master of a clear, vigorous, and brilliant style, often original, and always interesting by the wide range of illustration he could bring to embellish his argument. Possessing a strong will, extraordinary moral courage, and yet great tenderness and gentleness, he exerted, perhaps, a more powerful influence than any preacher in the Northwest. In the late war, he was conspicuous for his patriotism, and seconded, with all his eloquence and fervor, the efforts to increase the number of our troops in the field, and the measures adopted to provide for the sick and wounded soldiers and their families. Notwithstanding his age, he went repeatedly to the battle-field as a delegate of the Christian Commission, and ministered to the wounded, aided in burying the dead, and performed labors from which many younger men would have shrunk.

Dr. Duffield has left but few memorials of his rare abilities and his profound scholarship behind him. Two or three volumes, not of great size, a score or more of occasional sermons and addresses, many able contributions to theological and literary reviews, and a volume, as yet unpublished, of reminiscences of his own life and times, are all his contributions to posthumous fame.

DYNAMITE. The dynamite of M. Nobel is nothing but nitro-glycerine absorbed in highly porous silica. It consists of 75 per cent. of nitro-glycerine and 25 per cent. of porous silica. Hence it appears to possess only three-fourths of the power of nitro-glycerine, the specific gravity of both substances being very nearly the same. But, practically, there is no advantage in the greater concentration of power of nitro-glycerine. It ought not to be poured direct into the borehole, since it easily causes accidents by leaking into crevices, where it explodes under the miners' tools. It must, therefore, be used in cartridges, which leave considerable windage; whereas dynamite, being somewhat pasty, easily yields to the slightest pressure, so as completely to fill up the sides of the borehole, and leave no windage whatever. For this reason a given height of dynamite charge in a hole will contain quite as much nitro-glycerine as when the latter is used in its pure liquid state. As a test of the power, a cylinder, of 11-inch diameter and 12-inch height, of best scrap-iron, and cut off a shaft, was bored through the centre with a 1-inch borer, and a charge of six ounces was put in without securing either end by any sort of plug or

tamping. The cylinder was blown with such violence against a three-quarter inch boiler plate at some distance as to break it. As a test of safety, a box containing about 8 lb. of dynamite (equal in power to 80 lb. of gunpowder) was placed over a fire, where it slowly burned away; and another box, with the same quantity, was hurled from a height of more than 60 feet on the rock below, no explosion ensuing from the concussion sustained. At Stockholm, a weight of 200 lb. was dropped from a height of 20 feet on a box containing dynamite, which it smashed, of course, yet no explosion took place. Such a test can leave no doubt that dynamite offers sufficient safety against concussion for all practical purposes; and a Prussian military commission recently reported that it appears to be the safest of all known explosives. The greatest drawback on nitro-glycerine is its liquid form.

Nearly all the calamities caused by nitro-glycerine have been owing to leakage, which, for practical reasons, it is very difficult to prevent, and are, therefore, indirectly chargeable to its liquid state. A substance sensitive to concussion, unless it is quite unmanageable, like chloride of nitrogen, can easily be protected against accidents by wrapping it in a soft material; but if that substance is a liquid and a leakage takes place, it becomes subject to the danger of direct percussion; and if nitro-glycerine in that condition becomes exposed to the sun's rays, the heat which it takes up renders it so sensitive as to become dangerous under the slightest blow.

E

EARTHQUAKES. The year 1868 was remarkable for the number, the wide-spread distribution, and the highly destructive effects of the earthquakes which occurred. They were characterized by a great variety of sublime and wonderful phenomena, rivalling in all respects the most violent earthquakes of which history has made record.

In the Island of Hawaii.—The first of these terrestrial convulsions worthy of special mention commenced on the 27th of March, in the island of Hawaii, one of the Sandwich Islands. On that day the great volcano, Mauna Loa, began to eject immense columns of lava, and simultaneously shocks of earthquake set in. During twelve days succeeding there were (estimated) two thousand shocks, followed at intervals by fearful tidal waves, destroying villages and large numbers of their inhabitants. The first outpouring of lava came down the mountain-side in a broad stream several feet deep, and travelled with such rapidity, that a family living in its path, two miles from the point where it broke out, had barely time to escape, taking with them only their clothes. The lava

pushed onward toward the sea, which it entered, driving the water back with great violence, and forming a point or artificial tongue of land, at least one mile in length. The smoke thrown out of Mauna Loa at this time rose to a height (estimated) of seven and four-fifths miles, obscuring every thing for a great distance around, excepting when bright spirals of flame shot up from the mouth of the volcano. The severest shock occurred on the 2d of April. At the village of Waischina the earth burst open, and a tidal wave rushed in with great velocity, sweeping over the tops of the high cocoanut-trees and carrying death and destruction in its train. Vast bodies of earth were torn from the mountain-side and thrown to considerable distances. It was reported that the slope and part of the summit of a mountain, fifteen hundred feet high, were lifted up by the earthquake and hurled over the tops of the trees to a distance of over one thousand feet. On one side of Mauna Loa a singular eruption of moist clay occurred, covering a space about two miles and three-quarters long and one mile broad. This was followed by an immense stream of

water. Lofty precipices were levelled to the ground, and, in places where the earth had been formerly smooth and unbroken for miles around, the surface was rent asunder and upheaved, and gigantic chasms and cliffs left. The entire topographical appearance of the country round about was so completely changed, that those who lived in the desolated district could not afterward recognize or point out the localities with which they were formerly familiar. Fortunately, that part of the island was but sparsely inhabited, and the lands were not under general cultivation. The new crater of Mauna Loa, formed on the 27th of March, was over two miles in circumference. In addition to the one mile of land formed (as already mentioned) by the lava driving back the sea, another stream poured down the mountain, striking the water with a tremendous shock, and extended into the sea to a distance of about three miles. At this time a very severe shock occurred, and immediately after an island nearly four hundred feet in height rose above the water, and was soon joined to the island of Hawaii by the stream of lava. The base of the volcano presented, after the shocks, a most barren and desolate aspect, the gases arising from the rent earth having completely destroyed all vegetation. The shocks were felt in all of the Sandwich Islands, but only in Hawaii were the effects disastrous. The violent and dangerous period of the earthquakes lasted about twelve days. The loss of life was reported to be as follows: In the village of Paliuka, thirty-three; at Mokaka, thirteen; at Punalua, four; at Honah, twenty-seven; at Varulo, three—total, 80. All of the persons killed or injured were native Hawaiians. The loss of property was estimated at about \$500,000. Animals especially suffered by the poisonous gases emitted during the eruption. At Keaiwa a thousand domesticated animals were killed by this cause.

Some of the details presented in the foregoing account are calculated to tax the credulity of readers, but they are confirmed by the testimony of eye-witnesses of the catastrophes, and others who visited the scene after the occurrences to gather the facts. One visitor, who ascended a ridge of the mountain, April 10th, says that the valley itself was flooded over with a pavement of fresh lava, from ten to twenty feet deep, which appeared to have been the first thrown out, and came from a crater about ten miles up the mountain, which burst out on Tuesday, April 7th. This crater and stream had ceased flowing, and the lava was rapidly cooling, so that the visitors ventured to stand on it, though at the risk of burning their boots and being choked by the sulphurous gases. Four huge jets or fountains were continually being thrown up out of this great crater, ever varying in size and height, sometimes apparently all joined together, and making one continuous spouting a mile and a half long. These four grand fountains were

playing with terrific fury, throwing blood-red lava and huge stones, some as large as a house, to a height varying constantly from five hundred to a thousand feet. From the lower side of the crater a stream of liquid, rolling, boiling lava poured out and ran down the plateau, then down the sides of the pail (following the track of the government road), then along the foot of the pail or precipice five miles to the sea. This river of fire varied from five hundred to twelve hundred or fifteen hundred feet in width, and when it is known that the descent is two thousand feet in five miles, the statement that it ran at the rate of ten miles an hour will not be doubted. The shock of April 2d, says the same writer, destroyed every church and nearly every dwelling in the whole district. From ten to twelve o'clock of that day there had been service in the large church in Waiohinu, and it was crowded with people. Only four hours after they left the heavy shock came, the walls tumbled in, and the roof fell flat—all the work of twenty seconds. At the same instant every man, woman, and child were thrown from their feet. Horses and cattle dropped down as if dead. A man riding on horseback had his horse stumble under him so suddenly that he found himself and horse lying flat on the ground before the thought of an earthquake entered his mind. The earth opened all through the district, and in some places caused dangerous fissures, while in others it closed up again. An incident which ought not to be omitted is the shower of ashes which preceded the eruption. During Monday night, prior to the eruption, the ground throughout the district was covered with a coating of fine sand and light pumice-stone, of a light-yellowish color. Where this shower of sand and pumice-stone came from is unknown, but probably from some vent-hole near the crater. The sufferings and alarm experienced by the residents of Kau, during the two weeks that the earthquakes and eruptions continued prior to their leaving, appear to have been great. Night after night they were compelled to sleep on the mountain-ridge back of the village, exposed to the damp winds and rain from the sea, subsisting on taro and fishes when they could get these, or fasting when they could not.

Another observer visited the crater of Kilauea (the summit of Mauna Loa) after the earthquakes were all over, and describes the changes which had been wrought in the appearance of the mountain and crater. He says that on the west and northeast side, where the fire had been most active before the great earthquake of April 2d, the falling masses probably had been at once melted by the lava, and carried off in its stream, for the walls there remained perpendicular, as they were before; but that this part of the wall had lost portions of its mass was shown by the deep crevices along the western edge, and the partial detachment in many places of large prisms of rock.

But it was on the east and northeast wall particularly that the character of the crater had undergone a change. Along the descent on the second ledge masses of rock, many of more than 100 tons in weight, obstructed the path and formed abutments to the stone pillars—small buttress hills similar to those observed in front of the high basaltic wall in Koolau, Oahu. So, also, in the deep crater itself, the eastern wall had lost most of its perpendicular dip, and become shelving, in part. The crater itself was entirely devoid of liquid lava; no incandescence anywhere; pitchy darkness hovered over the abyss; white vapors of steam issued from the floor in a hundred places, but of those stifling, sulphurous, and acid gases, formerly so overpowering in the neighborhood of the lakes and ovens, only the faintest trace was perceived here and there. The heat was nowhere so great that the visitor could not keep his footing for a minute or more, although in many places it would forbid the touch of the bare hand. The great South Lake was transformed into a vast pit, more than five hundred feet deep, the solid eastern wall projecting far over the hollow below, while the remaining sides fell off with a sharp inclination. More than two-thirds of the old floor of Kilauea had caved in and sunk from one hundred to three hundred feet below the level of the remaining floor. The depression embraced the whole western half, and infringed in a semicircular line on a considerable portion of the other half. It was greatest in the northern, and rather gradual and gentle in the southern portion.

Regarding the tidal wave, another writer states that at Punalua, at the moment of the shock of April 2d, it seemed as if an immense quantity of lava had been discharged into the sea some distance from the shore, for almost instantly a terrible commotion arose, the water boiling and tossing furiously. Shortly afterward a tremendous wave was sweeping up on the shore, and when it receded there was nothing left of Punalua. Every house, the big stone church, even the cocoanut-trees—all but two—were washed away. All persons who were out fishing at the time perished, and many of those ashore. A huge chasm opened, running from the sea up into the mountain, down which, it is said, lava, mud, trees, ferns, and rocks were rushing out into the sea. At the time of the shock a man named Holoua and his wife, living at Ninole, ran out of the house and started for the hills above, but, remembering the money he had in the house, the man left his wife and returned to bring it away. Just as he had entered the house the sea broke on the shore, and enveloped the building, first washed it several yards inland, and then, as the wave receded, swept it off to sea with him in it. Being a powerful man, and one of the most expert swimmers in that region, he succeeded in wrenching off a board or rafter, and with this as a *papa heemulu*

(surf-board) he boldly struck out for the shore, and landed safely with the return-wave, which was from fifty to sixty feet high.

The last great eruption of Mauna Loa, previous to that of 1868, occurred in 1859, when the volcano opened on its northern flank, and the lava flowed sixty miles through a desolate region before reaching the sea.

In South America.—The earthquakes in the Sandwich Islands, terrible as they were, were but trifling compared with those which visited portions of South America, commencing on the 13th of August. The statements which follow are prepared from various narratives of persons who were on the spot at the time of the calamity:

The first shock (in Peru) was felt at 5½ p. m. It was preceded by a rumbling sound. An eyewitness at Arica says that the hour was that when by custom most of the inhabitants had just closed their daily labors and were at their homes. The instant the startling indications of an earthquake were felt there was a general rush for uncovered spaces, which were reached by many uninjured, but not by all. The streets became a scene of terror. All the houses in the city trembled like a person affected with the ague. Then they surged, and some of them fell to pieces with crash after crash. At this juncture, when the undulations were active, the earth opened in several places in long and almost regular lines. The fissures were from one to three inches in width. The sensation was distinct, as though something were rolling underneath. From every fissure there belched forth dry earth like dust, which was followed by a stifling gas. Owing to the demolition of buildings and the general destruction of all kinds of property, and the dust thrown out, as well as that set in motion by the general tumult, a dense cloud was formed over the city and obscured the light. Beneath the cloud was the gas, which severely oppressed every living creature, and would have suffocated all if it had lingered longer stationary than it did, which was only about ninety seconds. The undulations were three in number. Each succeeding one was of greater magnitude than the former. When the undulations ceased, the cloud of dust ascended and dispersed, and light was restored. Then quakes at short intervals succeeded, as though subterranean explosions were taking place. At this time people from all parts of the city fled to the hills, amid falling stones and timbers, which descended from swaying walls and broadly-rent buildings, just on the eve of crumbling into perfect ruin. Some were struck down dead by the falling materials, and others were maimed, while all were made to stagger from side to side like people in a state of intoxication. Many persons carried children in their arms, and those who had not these carried articles of value. The avarice of some was stronger than fear, even amid this terrible confusion, and hence there were those who de-

layed their escape to collect valuables, many of whom suffered for their temerity, either by the sacrifice of their lives or otherwise. As the rush for the hills continued, and stones and materials of all kinds were falling, and houses were crashing, numerous people were struck down, and either killed or dangerously hurt.

The number of persons (estimated) killed at Arica was 500; and not a house was left uninjured. All the public edifices were destroyed, including the custom-house, which contained \$4,000,000 worth of goods, all of which were lost. The entire damage at Arica was estimated at about \$12,000,000. The waters rose to such a height that a tidal wave, forty feet high, rolled with resistless fury upon the ships in the harbor and precipitated them on the main-land, far beyond any point ever reached before by the sea. The United States storeship *Fredonia* and the United States steamer *Wateree* were both at anchor in the harbor of Arica, near each other. After the first shock had occurred on the land, Dr. Dubois, surgeon, and the paymaster of the *Fredonia*, took a boat and went on shore to inquire for the welfare of friends, and offer the services of the ship. A few moments after leaving the vessel a great upheaving of the waters in the bay commenced, and the *Fredonia*, parting her chains, was tossed about at the mercy of the sea, and was finally dashed to pieces on a reef. Nothing of the vessel was saved. Her officers and crew, twenty-seven in number, were lost, also Mrs. Dyer, wife of the lieutenant commanding. The officers were Lieutenant B. Dyer; D. Organ, master; J. G. Cromwell, purser; and S. Lunt, secretary to the commander. The *Wateree* was more securely anchored, but dragged her anchor, and the great tidal wave swept her four hundred and fifty yards inland, about two miles north of the ruined town, where she lay between two hillocks of land very slightly injured. Only one sailor was washed overboard and drowned. Lieutenant Johnson of the *Wateree* was ashore at the time, and, while carrying his wife in his arms to some place of safety, she was struck by a portion of a falling building and instantly killed. The Peruvian corvette *America* shared the same fate as the *Wateree*, but lost three officers and thirty men. Commander Gillis, of the *Wateree*, after the disaster, together with Dr. Winslow and Dr. Dubois, of the *Fredonia*, were of great service to the inhabitants, dividing their provisions among the suffering inhabitants, and saving many lives. The American merchantman *Rosa Rivera*, the English ship *Chancellor* (with eight men), and the French bark *Eduado*, were lost.

Another writer, who witnessed the occurrences at Arica, says that toward five o'clock in the afternoon a fresh breeze from the south set in, but it lasted only while the damage was being done. A noise like that of a tempest disappearing in the distance preceded the awful

shock of earthquake, and the ground began to shake from south to north with so great force that all the buildings began to shed their decorations, and in a few moments tumbled to the ground themselves. The wooden buildings stood a few seconds longer than their stone-built neighbors. All at once the cry was heard—"The sea! the sea!" On looking toward the water, he saw at a glance that he had to move rapidly to the hills or be engulfed, for the sea had risen to an immense height. He could not measure it. In an instant it rushed impetuously on the shore, which was shaking from the earthquake. The vessels were at anchor in sight. They were now pitched ruthlessly northward, then southward, and tossed thus to and fro for some moments by waves about thirty feet high, when they were cast ashore or dashed to pieces on the reefs. Five different times did such a wave rise, but the last four times its height was less than the first. Had the waves risen a few feet higher they would have washed away the upper portion of the town, which, however, has been rendered uninhabitable by the shocks of the earth. These shocks occurred on the first day every quarter of an hour, and on the second day every hour.

Among the curious effects of the earthquake, in the vicinity of Arica, was the reported opening of the earth and the appearance of a large number of mummies, or dead bodies, buried long ago, and preserved by various causes from decay. These mummies had been buried in the sand in a sitting posture, facing the sea, in a cemetery covering a large area. Most of them were described as having been found (after the earthquake) with their hands either crossed on their breasts or held up by the sides of the head. A specimen of the bodies thus strangely thrown up was recently presented, by Dr. Stinson to the Chicago Academy of Sciences. It was the person of a female, probably of adult age, having jet-black hair, tastefully braided down in front. The age of the specimen is believed, from various circumstances, to be less than two hundred years. Some conjectures place the age as low as fifty, or even twenty-five years.

At Arequipa, Peru, over 600 people were drowned. In a few minutes after the first shock, nearly every house in the city was levelled to the ground. Most of the inmates of the prisons and hospitals perished in the destruction of those buildings. The shocks continued at intervals; nearly one hundred occurring in a space of three days. Mount Misti threw out lava and smoke, and enormous quantities of mud, and the river emitted a sulphurous odor. Rocks and earth were constantly falling from the mountains into the water. Hundreds of persons were killed by being crushed by falling houses when the first severe shock came. At Callao the sea burst over the line of houses skirting the shore, at 10 o'clock at night on the 13th, completely gutting them

of their contents. The next night a fire broke out, and fifty-seven houses in the business portion of the place were destroyed, entailing a loss of a million and a half of dollars. No lives were lost. The cities of Ica and Pisco also suffered heavily, forty houses being overthrown and twelve lives lost in the former city. Nearly all the population of Callao fled to Lima. At Iquique the shock lasted over four minutes, after which the wave came and destroyed about three-fourths of the place, with about six hundred lives, nearly all the provisions, and the condensing machinery which supplied the people with drinking-water. Among those killed at Iquique was the British consul, Mr. Billinghamurst. One German house at Iquique lost over \$400,000 worth of property. The steamer *San Diego*, bound from Callao to Valparaíso, put into the port of Chala, where, on the 13th, she was seized by the great wave, her chains snapped, and the vessel carried to sea. In a few moments the wave returned toward the shore, carrying the steamer with it, taking her, with all her passengers, safely over a high cliff, and leaving her safely inside the channel. The port of Chala was completely covered with water. Nearly all the towns and villages in the mineral provinces of Huanca were destroyed or reduced to shapeless masses. The cities of Puno and Cuzco were not damaged. The port Molendo, where were stored the materials for building Mr. Meiggs's railway, was completely destroyed, nearly all the tools, rails, and provisions being ruined by the earthquake and the succeeding tidal wave. Moquegua, Locumba, and Pequiaca were utterly destroyed. Tacua lost sixty houses and a hundred and fifty lives, mostly of children returning home from school. The town of Mejia was swept away, only twenty out of its five hundred inhabitants escaping. All the habitations at Tilo were destroyed and twenty lives lost.

At Lima there was not much damage done to life or property. The heavy shock lasted about four minutes, creating the utmost consternation—the inhabitants fleeing to the open plaza, where they besought protection from the Almighty.

At Chincha (the Guano) Islands, off the coast of Peru, a reddish vapor was seen rising out of the sea during the forenoon of the 13th; and at 12.20 p. m. a strong wind sprang up from the south, almost approaching a hurricane, which lasted until 4.38 p. m., after which a prolonged and distant noise was heard, resembling thunder. A complete calm, says an eyewitness, ensued immediately, after which the first shock of earthquake took place. This lasted for four minutes eighteen seconds; so great was the movement that people were thrown down. After this a mighty crash was heard, as though a powerful wave had broken on the rocks; but the sea was calm. At 5.56 p. m. the earth again began to tremble, and continued to for two and a half hours.

The sea now became entirely calm, but the birds were seen abandoning the sea and rocks, and soaring to the elements above, screeching most horribly, as though they were aware of what was about to take place. The night became pitchy dark; nothing could be seen over sea or land; the breeze, felt during the day, commenced to blow, causing further terror to the people, who were momentarily expecting the island to be swallowed up. At 9.45 p. m., persons, living in the vicinity of the mole, noticed that the water was leaving the land, and the alarm was immediately given. Nothing can describe the terror which prevailed on the northern island. The population, consisting of from five to six hundred souls, all forsook their houses and sought refuge on the higher part of the island—some naked, others sick and infirm, women and children, all thronged in one spot, dumb with terror. At 10 p. m. the breeze lulled, and the heavens cleared so that a view could be obtained of the sea, which had retired from the land about seventy yards. This circumstance is the more remarkable, from the fact that the depth of water in the bay at low tide is from fifteen to twenty fathoms, but soon after the water was seen to rise in the shape of a colossal wave, and, in less time than it takes to describe it, had almost covered the island, washing away the houses and every thing it came in contact with. The losses were heavy. Both moles were destroyed, many launches broken to pieces, and the houses in the vicinity washed away. In one of these was a family of three, husband, wife, and child. The husband and wife were saved, but the child was drowned. The sea rose and fell at the rate of ten feet in every three or four minutes. The following were among those vessels which suffered the most: English ship *Resolute*, partly destroyed; English ship *Eastern Empire*, greatly damaged; English ship *Royal Oak*, in a very bad state; Prussian bark *Leopold II.*, an entire wreck; English ship *Oceanica*, nearly a wreck; and English ship *Southern Ocean*, greatly damaged, as also the American ship *Shatemuc*. Many of them were loaded and about to leave, and their cargoes were considerably injured.

Among other places in Peru destroyed or greatly injured by the earthquakes were Tacna, Canate, Cafaria, Chaspa, Cerro-Azul, Quicacha, Cabacera, Pullo, Chumpe, Cobija, Antiquipa, Sarna, and Coracora. The cultivated and beautiful estates near Acarf were all ruined. The port of Las Lomas was united to the islands in the bay; the port ceasing to exist. The valley of Lluta was completely ruined. The town of Tambo was entirely washed away, and upward of five hundred persons perished. From Callao to Iquique the whole coast of Peru was left in a complete state of desolation and ruin.

The promptest and most liberal measures were at once adopted at Lima to relieve sufferers throughout the republic. The Peruvian

Government fitted out and dispatched all the available Government vessels to take surgeons, medicines, provisions, clothing, water, etc., to the various points where the greatest suffering prevailed. The American and French consuls tendered their vessels to the Government, all of which were accepted. The consignees of guano placed the sum of \$500,000 at the disposal of the Government without interest. Congress authorized the President to raise the sum of two millions toward alleviating the distress. Señor Andres Alvarez Calderon presented the sum of \$50,000 as a voluntary contribution. Mr. Henry Meiggs, the contractor of the Arequipa railroad, gave an equal sum, to be distributed as follows: \$20,000 for Arequipa, \$10,000 for Arica, and \$10,000 for Iquique, and the balance for other ports. The Government also sent the military to different points to keep order and render assistance. The Pacific Steam Navigation Company's steamer *Chili* sailed from Callao on the 21st of August with a large quantity of provisions, on account of the company, to be distributed among the sufferers. In view of the great national calamity, Congress adjourned for three days, and all places of amusement were closed.

The disastrous consequences of one of the same series of earthquakes occurring in the Republic of Ecuador, on the morning of August 16th, are stated as follows by Mr. A. P. Hovey, United States minister to Peru, in a communication to Secretary Seward. He says that "the earthquake seems to have had its centre in the province of Imbabura, near the volcano of Ocampo, about sixty miles north of the city of Quito. Eight towns, with the adjoining haciendas and populations, are said to have been destroyed, numbering from 40,000 to 50,000 inhabitants. The cities of Otavato and Cotacachi, containing respectively about 12,000 and 8,000 inhabitants, and both situated on the shores of the Lake Mejanda, are said to have been swallowed up, with their entire populations, and their sites have become a part of the lake. The city of Ibarra, with a population of 13,000, was totally destroyed, only about three thousand of the inhabitants escaping; and the town of Atunlaque is levelled with the earth, burying all its inhabitants in its ruins. Nor is the injury confined to the cities and towns, but all the haciendas of the province, the richest in Ecuador, growing sugar and grain, and producing large numbers of cattle and sheep, have, as it were, been swept out of existence. Quito did not suffer in the same ratio in the loss of life, but its walls and houses are destroyed. The most of the inhabitants, including the English chargé d'affaires, Mr. Hamilton, with his large family, were driven to the open square or plaza in the centre of the city. To heighten the gloom, despondency, and misery of all, the terrific thunder-storms of the tropics redoubled their force, and literally deluged the whole country. The difficulty of conveying food from Guayaquil was very great, as the journey re-

quired twelve days' severe travel, with mules carrying small burdens over rugged and precipitous mountains, deep gorges, and narrow passes. These shocks have almost ruined the Republic of Ecuador. Had the earthquake in Peru taken place at night-time, as it did in Ecuador, the loss of life would have exceeded 100,000 souls. As it was, the loss of life in Peru is less, but the loss of property far greater."

Other accounts state that in Guayaquil but little damage was done. The towns of San Pablo and Imantad, besides those already mentioned, were destroyed. A lake of water occupied the site of the town of Cotacachi. Almost the entire population of those towns and of Otavato lost their lives.

At Quito, the earthquake commenced at twenty minutes past 1 A. M., and continued at intervals, with varying degrees of severity, for several days. All the churches, public buildings, and many private residences, were laid in ruins. The towns adjoining Quito, named *Perucho*, *Puellarro*, and *Cachiguanjo*, almost entirely disappeared, with their inhabitants, the few left alive being obliged to flee to escape the pestilence arising from decomposed dead bodies. The towns of *Pincho* and *San Antonio* were also destroyed. The number of lives lost in the neighborhood of Quito was estimated at 20,000.

At Valparaiso the tide rose and fell three or four times an hour, in a most remarkable manner, during the progress of the earthquake, but the city sustained no injury. On the night of the 14th of August, about 9 o'clock, three shocks occurred at *Talcahuano*, the second of which caused an immense tidal wave, which swept away fully one half of the town and rendered the other half almost uninhabitable. Four lives only were lost, the inhabitants fleeing to the hills. At *Tome* the same occurred, but, being higher, little damage was done. The port of *Constitucion* suffered from the wave, but not much damage was done. Several small vessels were driven ashore, and five men drowned. The town of *Concepcion* was also damaged by the same causes. *Cabaja*, the *Mexillons Islands*, *Pisqua*, and all the cities and towns from *Cape Francisco* in Ecuador to the *Magellan Straits*, suffered more or less terrible visitations.

At *La Paz*, *Bolivia*, a place where earthquakes have been almost unknown, a slight shock was felt on the 13th of August, and twice repeated in the night.

The entire loss of life by the earthquakes in South America, in August, has been estimated at 30,000 persons; and the value of property destroyed at \$300,000,000.

The United States Government, through its representatives in the afflicted regions, rendered great aid to the sufferers. The U. S. steamship *Kearsarge* was at *Caldera* at the time of the first reports of the disaster, and, as soon as provisions could be put on board by the municipality, she started for *Arica*, arriving there

before any other vessel-of-war. Her presence was the means of relieving to a great extent the sufferings of the people. The United States ministers and consuls at, or near, the scenes of devastation, gave timely aid. Large sums of money were subsequently raised for the relief of the sick and starving, by voluntary efforts in New York and other American cities.

The tidal waves originating from the earthquake of the 13th swept rapidly across the Pacific Ocean to the Sandwich Islands. Reports from those islands state that, on the shores of the entire group, on the 14th of August and for several succeeding days, the water in some places rose from ten to twelve feet above the usual high-water mark, and did considerable damage. The same phenomenon was noticed at San Pedro, on the California coast, on the 15th of August. A series of waves commenced flowing upon the coast, causing the tide to rise three or four feet above its ordinary high-water mark, which were regularly followed by a falling of the tide the same distance below its usual low-water mark. This agitation occurred regularly twice every half hour, and continued for several hours. The inhabitants thereabouts became much alarmed, apprehending some sudden convulsion upon land, but nothing of the kind happened. Large ponds were left by the receding waters, and a house was twice surrounded by water in half an hour.

In California.—The most calamitous earthquake known in the annals of civilization, on the Pacific coast, occurred on the 21st of October. The first shock, which was the heaviest at San Francisco, was felt at seven minutes before 8 o'clock A. M., and lasted forty-two seconds. The direction of the undulations was from southeast to northwest; and they increased in violence up to the time when they ceased. Ceilings tumbled down; the walls of houses cracked, and in some instances fell; tall buildings swayed to and fro; none but strongly-constructed edifices, in parts of the city least affected, altogether escaped injury. Men, women, and children, many of them just out of bed, rushed into the streets to seek safety in open places. Five persons were killed by falling walls and chimneys, and many were injured. The worst consequences of the shock were experienced on the made ground, and the flats where the foundations of buildings are known to be unstable. Few structures in that portion of the city escaped damage. At the junction of Market and Front Streets, the ground sank for a foot or two, and there was evidence that the tide had risen in the adjoining lot at the same time, for a pond of water collected and remained until low tide. On Pine Street near Battery, the cobbles on the south side of the street sank away from the curb-stone to the depth of one foot in some places, and the asphaltum side-walk on the north side was twisted and torn out of all shape and its connection with the curb-stone severed. This pec-

uliarity was slightly noticeable on Clay Street, opposite the Railroad House. On Mission Street, opposite the Mechanics' Mill, corner of Fremont Street, the north side of the street settled, drawing away the planks of that side from the crown of the street, leaving a fissure of two or three inches in width. Opposite the gas-works, on Howard and Fremont Streets, there was a narrow fissure, caused by sinking, and a barely perceptible crack in the sidewalk. On the southwest corner of Fremont and Mission Streets, the ground opened in many places. It is said that hot air and water issued from these openings. At the corner of Fourth and Harrison Streets, the cracks settled a couple of inches from the centre space between. Some of the streets, that had been most carefully paved, cracked open in great seams. There was an appearance in some places as if the pavement had been blown up with powder; and from some of the openings springs of water gushed forth. Side-walks were split in the same way, especially in places where the buildings adjoining them had sunk to the depth of several inches.

Among the principal buildings most badly injured were the City Hall, the Post-Office, and the Custom-House (the two last-named under one roof). The walls of the City Hall were split in every direction. Several stones in the front wall fell out. The prisoners were taken from the station-house to the county jail; and the courts did not consider it safe to meet in the building. Owing to the shattered condition of the Custom-House, the business of the department was removed to the Internal Revenue offices. The chimney-top on the north end of the building fell at the first wave, injuring a lady and gentleman who were passing. The chimney on the west side was twisted round. The earth-walks about the building, generally solid and firm, were so loosened by the vibration, that a stick could be thrust into them several feet without difficulty.

A San Francisco correspondent of the New York *Herald*, writing on the day of the earthquake, after a personal inspection of the damage done, gives a full list of the buildings injured, from which the following instances are taken, showing the various effects of the shock upon different kinds of structures:

Coffey & Risdon's building is at the junction of Market and Battery streets. It is built of brick, three stories in height, and is in an unfinished condition. The walls are very slim, and the mortar with which they are built is largely composed of sand. The western half of the building is on the foundation of the old blacksmith's shop, the roof of which was raised for that purpose. The walls of this portion of the structure have completely fallen down, burying in their ruins a Mr. Shaw, aged fifty years. When he was taken out, two and a half hours afterward, he was still alive, though there were no hopes of his recovery. The rear wall of the building fell over into the office of Benchley & Co.'s hardware store, which is a one-story structure in the rear of their store, of which it forms a part. Those in the

office at the time barely escaped with their lives. Mr. Benchley's building is not injured in the least, if we except the fire wall in front, built six or eight feet above the roof, which was cracked badly at each end. It is quite evident that, but for the substantial manner in which the Benchley building is constructed, it must have been seriously damaged. As it is, there is not a crack in the walls, with the exception already referred to. And yet so great was the commotion that bars of steel reclining against the walls in the inside were violently thrown down. A brief reference to the manner in which this building is constructed will explain its safety and at the same time teach a lesson as to the mode of erecting brick buildings in this city hereafter. This section, it will be remembered, is all made ground. In the first place, the foundation of the building was laid broad and firm. As the walls rose they were liberally tied by iron rods and anchors. In addition, the joists are all fastened to each other at the ends by bands of iron which circle the building as a hoop. The Murphy & Grant block, Oriental block, and other large buildings in that vicinity, are constructed in a similar manner, and hence their remarkable escape, not a fissure being visible in any of them. Nothing but the fact that the rear wall of the standing portion of Coffey & Risdon's building was placed against Benchley's building saved any portion of the damaged structure from becoming one heap of ruins. The general absence of any expression of surprise at the disaster to this building, among the lookers-on this morning, was noteworthy. The portion mostly damaged had but one anchor for its support, and the wonder is that there is one brick left upon another.

In the Union Foundry on First Street, corner of Mission, most of the machinery was displaced. The brick front half of the building was not injured, but a lower building in the rear is a total wreck. The walls are broken and the roof fallen in. The men had just gone to work and made a rush for the street. All escaped but two, who were caught by the falling bricks and timbers, and seriously though not fatally hurt.

The roof of the old Mechanics' Mill on Mission Street, corner of Fremont, was prostrated, and the walls of the building toppled over into the street in several places.

The Mechanics' Co-operative Mill on Mission Street (the old Brooklaw Mill) was badly damaged and the machinery stopped. Much of it was thrown out of place. The floor sunk down in places and raised in others several feet, and a fire wall in the mill sunk down. The centre of Mission Street in front of the mill exposes an opening of eight to ten inches in diameter, and openings of the ground are also plainly to be seen on Fremont Street, in the same vicinity.

The floor of the Pacific Foundry was raised about two feet in places, and some of the machinery was thrown out of place.

Most of the planing-mills were stopped and more or less injured, but the actual extent of the damage could not be estimated.

The Selby Shot-tower stood intact.

The San Francisco Gas-Works, on Howard and Fremont Streets, suffered severely. The tall chimney on the part of the structure facing First Street was thrown over and fell through the roof, and the main walls badly cracked. In another part of the establishment, north side of Fremont Street, the destruction was still greater. A large quantity of coal was stored in the building, and the pressure of the mass forced the wall out on the Fremont Street side from roof to foundation, and for the space of about fifty feet.

Jewish synagogue on Sutler Street—one small pinnacle thrown down and several more apparently well shaken.

Casbolt & Kerr's carriage factory, corner Fifth and Market Streets, westerly corner fire wall thrown down; building shored up.

Hayes Valley public school—two Chinamen thrown down, and numerous others in the vicinity.

About 100 feet of the merchandise shed on the south side of Folsom Street wharf were completely wrecked and lies on the wharf. The long shed on the easterly side of the wharf was injured, but is now being secured.

The Tehama Street school-house, which is of brick, is almost intact. The plastering fell from portions of the wall, but the walls themselves are not injured.

At No. 138 Natoma Street, Charles Moneypenny's brick boarding-house was made a total wreck. Most of it was thrown down, and workmen were employed tearing the rest of it down. Fortunately, no one was injured there. At No. 144 same street, John Farmer's house was badly injured, and most of his furniture destroyed.

On the northwest corner of Mission and Third Streets, the fire wall of a brick building was thrown off, and in falling demolished a boot-black stand beneath. No one injured. Nearly all the windows of stores on Third Street, between Mission and Market, were broken.

Lincoln school-house is badly damaged, most of the chimneys being broken off, but none thrown down, and the plastering on the walls and ceilings badly shattered.

The large statue of Lincoln in front of the building is quite ruined; the head is broken in two or three pieces, and the trunk is shattered in several places. Singularly, however, the statue was not thrown off its pedestal.

A part of the walls of the new Calvary Church fell down, and the crumbling bricks and mortar barely escaped demolishing a small frame dwelling at the side of the church. None of the heavy iron pillars recently erected were moved from their places.

At the College of St. Ignatius, on Market Street, a large number of people had assembled for the service of mass. The shock rocked the immense building like a cradle. The priests maintained their positions and composure, but great consternation seized upon the audience. Several women fainted, but beyond this there were no casualties reported.

Many chimneys on houses in the southern part of the city were thrown down, but no one was seriously injured by them. Much furniture was destroyed in many of them.

The only serious injury on Kearney Street was done to a building on the east side of the street, between Sutter and Vermehr Streets.

Poffler's building, which was partly thrown down by the heavy shock three years ago, is not injured.

Nearly every wholesale house on Sansome, Battery, Front, Clay, Davis, and other streets in that part of the city, was closed during the day, and several buildings are so badly injured that it will probably be necessary to tear them down entirely.

The halls of the Brevoort House, on the Mission Street side, were badly shattered.

On California Street, below Sansome, south side of California, a large one-story brick building, formerly occupied by Heinman & Co., was wholly ruined, and an adjoining one, occupied by the Pacific Pump Factory, was partly thrown down.

On the opposite side of California Street, a house owned by Michael Reese was badly wrecked. The walls have sunk down and are broken in pieces.

Some of the ornamental stone-work on the Bank of California building was marred.

St. Mary's Cathedral, Grace Cathedral, the Young Men's Christian Association building, the new Merchants' Exchange building, in fact, all substantial structures in the city on good foundations, escaped without noticeable injury.

The building occupied by the Health Office on Jackson Street was also seriously injured. Windows of stores on Montgomery, Washington, Clay, and Market Streets were broken, and shelves in many localities were thrown down.

Howard's building, on Battery Street, between Clay and Commercial Streets. The roof of this building was recently raised, and a third story built on: the cornice and portions of the fire wall have fallen and demolished the wooden awning and lower cornice.

New Orleans Warehouse, California and Davis Streets. The fire wall on California Street demolished.

Hooker & Co., California Street. The east fire wall on their building demolished.

Thurnauer & Zinn. The building occupied by them badly cracked on Sacramento Street.

At McDonald's mill, on Market Street below Front, the ground sunk in the rear, letting down the wall some eight feet, and opened.

At the northwest corner of Mission and Third Streets, the top line of the wall came down.

At the corner of Fourth and Harrison the ground sunk and raised about one foot and a half, stopping the cars.

The building on the southwest corner of Kearney Street and St. Mark's Place is badly cracked.

A. M. Boyle's drug-store, on Washington Street, near Sansome, was injured to the extent of \$2,500.

The chimney of the Mint is in great danger of falling, as also is the granite front of Blake's hat-store, on Montgomery Street.

The rear of the old *Alta* office, on Sacramento Street, is badly cracked.

The rear of the clothing-store of G. Broderick, on Sacramento Street, near Montgomery, was entirely crushed in by the adjoining walls falling. Nobody hurt. It was a one-story frame building.

The fire-wall of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company's office was thrown down.

The front walls of the stores of A. J. Platt, No. 510, and Wigmore, No. 512 Sacramento Street, sank about six inches. The floor of the cellar raised up two feet. A crack extended along the street about one hundred feet.

The walls between the Coso House and adjoining building were separated at the top five or six inches.

The fire-wall of Howard's building, Sansome and Clay—the entire Sansome Street front—fell into the street. Blumenthal, the proprietor of the restaurant in the building, was badly hurt.

A fire-wall on the west side of Leidesdorff Street fell on the adjoining frame building.

The Railroad House, fronting on Commercial Street, below Battery, and running north to Clay, is a four-story brick, filled with lodgers, many of whom rushed out without clothing. The northern half of the building settled from one to two feet, breaking the building in two. The walls of the top are divided at least a foot. Nobody was hurt. The Clay Street front lower story is occupied by S. P. Taylor & Co., paper-dealers. The front of their store is a complete wreck. One of the cast-iron pillars sunk about five feet.

The tobacco-store of A. S. Rosenbaum & Co., adjoining Taylor & Co.'s on the east, is almost as bad a wreck as the latter establishment. The two buildings, having settled in toward each other, support one another, which is all that prevents them from falling.

The heavy fire-wall of J. D. Farwell & Co., Clay Street, above Front, fell. Also that of Coghili & Co., Front and Commercial Streets.

The fire-wall of L. Downing & Son, wagon and carriage dealers, at Battery and Merchant Streets, fell, crushing a wagon in front.

The store of Lowe Brothers, at Sacramento and Battery Streets, badly cracked; walls incline in and have sunk several inches.

The roof of C. P. Rank & Co.'s hosiery-store, on Sacramento Street, below Battery, was crushed in.

The roof of the woollen store adjoining on the west is in the same condition.

The walls of several stores on the north side of Sacramento Street, below Battery, incline inward at the top several inches.

The walls of Dorrance's new store, No. 305 Battery Street, are badly cracked at the top.

The front wall of H. Brandt's store, No. 304 Battery Street, is badly cracked and in a dangerous condition.

Coffee & Risdon's foundry has fallen, and several men are buried in the ruins.

At the Mechanics' and Brokaw's Mills the roof fell in and made a perfect wreck. No lives were lost.

Booth's foundry, corner Mission and First Streets, and the moulding-shop, were badly damaged, the chimney torn down and wall bulged out.

The fire-wall at the top of Sam Brannan's building fell and broke through the side-walk. Nobody hurt.

At Trainer's block, on the corner of Kearney and Sutter Streets, the top of the building fell off and broke down the awning.

At No. 20 Kearney Street the building cracked at both ends.

The chimneys from the Nucleus building fell upon the roof of the dining-room, smashed through and fell between two tables while people were breakfasting at them. The front wall of the dining-room is badly cracked to the top.

Mrs. Chamberlain's house on Third Street sustained much injury, large plates of glass being broken from the stores beneath.

What Cheer House, portion of the southwest corner of Leidesdorff and Sacramento Streets, wall badly cracked—the whole side wall being cracked at short intervals.

The Pacific Insurance building, on the northeast corner of California and Leidesdorff Streets, shows numerous small cracks in the walls.

Squarza's building on Leidesdorff Street is badly cracked from top to bottom; also the continuation of building forming the southeast corner of Sacramento and Leidesdorff Streets.

J. G. Hodge & Co.'s building, on the southwest corner of Sacramento and Sansome Streets, was considerably cracked and the shelving in the store was twisted out of place.

The American Express building was badly cracked, especially on the Halleck Street side.

The Bank of California building, northwest corner of Sansome and California Streets, had the stone ornaments on top and balustrades thrown down; also in the arches of the doors and windows the joints between the stones opened with the shock of the earthquake. On the California Street side the stone cornice was broken in places and the main west wall showing a decided crack.

Northeast corner of Sansome and Halleck Street, front and side wall of old building, American Theatre, parapet wall thrown down and the rest of the building in a very dangerous condition. Brick building, south side of Sacramento Street, No. 425, occupied by A. Wasserman & Co., badly cracked.

No. 415 Sansome Street, front wall badly cracked; occupied by Williams, Bornstein & Co.

Nos. 221 and 223 Battery Street, east side, are badly injured, the front wall having fallen in.

The southwest corner of the building at the southwest corner of Battery and Halleck Streets is badly cracked, as also parapet wall of the building adjoining.

Building southeast corner of Battery and Halleck Streets, corner parapet wall down, and main wall very badly cracked.

Brick store northwest corner of California and Front Streets, occupied by DeWitt, Kittle & Co., east parapet wall almost all down.

At the northwest corner of Halleck and Front Streets, a brick store, occupied by Castle Bros., with parapet walls on south side, is all down, with part of the main wall. Some of the roof bracing timbers also came down. The north parapet wall fell down.

A building, No. 317, south side Sacramento, was

cracked, and the goods of L. Fieldman & Co. badly injured.

Buildings Nos. 319 and 321 Sacramento Street were also much cracked and damaged.

On Sacramento Street, just below Montgomery, the roof of a building fell in on a clothing-store underneath.

The back part of Smith & Beasson's carpet-store, on Washington Street, is all down.

The building corner of Polk Lane and Stockton Street is badly damaged. The front wall is very much cracked, and is likely to fall at any moment.

The Jewish synagogue, between Broadway and Vallejo Streets, is somewhat damaged. Brick and mortar cover the side-walks.

The new building on Bush Street, near Battery, fronting on Market, in process of erection, fell and covered up, it is supposed, three persons. Jasper Shawe was taken out badly cut about the head, and with an arm broken.

The store on the corner of Front and California Streets is badly damaged.

J. C. Noonan, the porter of the Lick House, was asleep, and, hearing the noise, jumped out of the window, about ten feet from the ground, and broke his leg.

A man on the Presidio Road was thrown out of his buggy. The chimneys in that neighborhood are nearly all down.

The fire-wall of the new building corner of California and Battery is down.

No. 318 California Street, brick building, occupied by California Powder Works, etc., front wall considerably cracked.

Wooden building, south, occupied by O. F. Willey, badly settled on south side, by Reese's building, adjoining.

Reese buildings, seven two-story brick, extending to Battery Street, very badly injured; the west end, adjoining Willey's ready to fall down at a moment's notice; store underneath occupied by S. Reinstein, considerable injury to goods; end of store settled about a foot; all the other buildings of the row more or less cracked, and cornice on southeast end thrown down.

Building southwest corner of Halleck and Battery, south wall badly cracked and leaning off from balance of the building on Halleck Street; occupied by Enenstein Brothers. Front wall of Newhall & Co.'s warehouse badly cracked at southeast corner, on Halleck Street.

The building on the corner of Battery and Merchant Streets, used as a carriage-warehouse, is badly shattered, the awning falling and crushing one or more carriages.

The earth at the corner of Battery and Commercial Streets has settled about three feet below the regular grade.

The building at the corner of Clay and Battery Streets, occupied by Breed & Chase, and Sherwood, Buckley & Co., is considerably shattered.

All the lumber-piles on Stewart Street have been more or less shaken by the earthquake. No damage was done, save in the expense of repiling.

The Empire Mills, Fremont Street, were also damaged. The floor settled in some places nearly two feet, while in others the planks were thrown up by the shock. The earth cracked about eight or nine inches, and the water gushed through the fissures. The damage cannot be determined yet—estimated at \$2,500 to \$3,000.

At No. 418 Sacramento Street, the inside of the windows fell in, and a Chinaman in the second story fell to the first and was killed.

At the New Orleans Warehouse, the top of the wall fell, and one man was injured by being struck on the head with a brick.

At Mrs. Johnson's, corner of Third and Market Streets, all of the plastering was thrown down.

The building belonging to Stern, on Powell, be-

tween Post and Geary Streets, was very badly cracked. The statues in front of the pillars fell down.

At Badger & Lindenberger's store, on Battery Street, corner of Merchant, the fire-wall is down.

At C. P. Ranks's old store, on Sacramento Street, the inside has all fallen in.

The Railroad House, on Commercial Street, is badly cracked.

In Bosqui's printing-office, located on the third floor of a strong brick building on Clay Street, below Montgomery, a heavy Adams press has been moved bodily over a foot, and thrown from its supports; the other presses the same way. In Bacon & Co.'s office, on the other side of the street, the effect has been the same, and much of the standing type has been pried; indeed, nearly all the printing-offices have suffered in the same way, in a greater or less degree. The agency of Hagar & Co.'s New York Type Foundry, in the same vicinity, has suffered severely. Tons of job-type have been emptied into one shapeless mass upon the floor, and the shelving that held them turned upside down, although fastened very strongly to the walls. The building, in which this establishment is, is one of the worst wrecked of all those damaged in Clay Street. It is split from the cellar to the roof, the upper portion of the south wall has fallen out, and the west wall has separated from the roof over six inches, while every wall and partition within is cracked and split. The porter narrowly escaped being crushed under the falling type and other material. The papers had hard work to get out their afternoon editions and extras, for the compositors could hardly be induced to enter the buildings and run the chance of what might occur should another heavy shock come on.

Other shocks occurred during the day, at the following hours, as noticed in San Francisco: 8.10, 8.15, 8.30, 8.45, 9.20, 9.35, 10., 11.05, A. M., 2.25, 3.30, 7, and 7.30, P. M. Some of them were severe, others light. None equalled in intensity the first shock of the day. Nothing peculiar was noticed in the weather, previous to these phenomena, or during their occurrence. The morning was calm and foggy, afterward clearing up to a mild, beautiful day. The waters in the bay, as seen from the land, were not at all affected, but as calm as ever. Passengers on ferry boats felt the shock and supposed for a moment that they were aground.

Upon Russian and Telegraph Hills the shock was not so severely felt as in other parts of the city. In some houses, ornaments were not displaced from the shelves, and the inmates did not go to the door. In others, books and ornaments fell down, and marble mantels were started from their places.

Several of the public clocks stopped, and the large pendulum clocks in private houses came to a stand-still. The hands indicated, from five to seven minutes before eight, as the time of the first shock.

The loss of property in San Francisco has been variously estimated. A statement bearing the name of Mr. James Otis, President of the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, addressed to a similar body in New York, places the loss at a sum not exceeding \$300,000.

Effects of the earthquake were felt in many other parts of California. At Martinez, the shock came at three minutes after eight o'clock. The only damage reported was to the court

house, both ends of which fell in, leaving the building a wreck. At Alameda, the Asylum was badly damaged, the chimneys being thrown down; Edmonston's warehouse was moved several feet, and the walls and roof fell in. Hotels and brick buildings in the same place were also injured. At Alvarado, a brick grain-warehouse fell, and Homer's old mill was also demolished. Near San Lorenzo, the chimneys of many dwellings fell. The court-house at San Leandro was thrown down, and the Deputy Clerk, Joslyn, killed. None of the prisoners escaped, or were injured. Several adobe houses were prostrated at the same place. Mare Island Navy Yard experienced two severe shocks. Several chimneys were thrown down, and some of the buildings considerably shaken, but no serious damage was done and no persons were injured. Captain Mitchell, of the navy, said that the ground shook so violently as almost to throw him off his feet, the shock being accompanied by a frightful rumbling sound. Several people took to the water, considering the stream much more safe than the land. The earthquake was quite severely felt at Vallejo, many chimneys toppling down, but no serious injury occurring. The shock was very severe at Redmond. The large brick court-house was little better than a complete wreck. It was deemed so unsafe, that the county officers had moved out of it. The building was considerably shattered by the earthquake three years before, the walls having then spread several inches. Chains were then put in and the gaps closed up, so that it was deemed tolerably safe; but the ground is adobe, not more than two feet above the tide-water of the creek, and the foundations were not suitable for such a structure. On the other side of the creek about half of the front of Merrill's new block of brick stores fell out. The chimneys of the public schoolhouse and some other brick buildings were more or less injured in the town. The chimneys on Thomas Selby's house, about two miles below, were prostrated, and some slight damage was done to other houses in that vicinity. The shock at Marysville was very light, being noticed only by a few. Quite a severe shock was felt at Grass Valley about eight o'clock, causing lamps to vibrate and occupants of second stories to vacate the buildings briskly. About five minutes after eight there was another very slight shock. A slight shock was felt at Sonora four minutes past eight. The shock visited San Mateo at eight o'clock, lasting fifteen seconds. The vibration was from the north. The damage to property there was estimated at not less than \$5,000.

The effects of these startling phenomena on men and animals are described by a writer in the *Alta California*. He says: "Men run into the street laughing, as a rule, while women sink down and cry hysterically. This was generally the case yesterday. On the lower animals the effect is varied. Horses

generally snort with terror, and many run away. Dogs take to barking violently, and running about without any apparent object. A lady, who was standing in a barn-yard feeding her fowls, when the great shock came yesterday, tells us that the chickens all ran from her and took to the hen-house as if a shower had occurred, while a turkey ran to her and lay flat down on the ground at her feet, looking up in her face as if for protection."

On the 23d of October another severe shock was felt at San Francisco, occurring at 2.15 A. M. People in their night-clothes ran into the streets, shrieking with terror. No damage was reported to have been done. At 7.30 A. M. on the same day, a slight shock, harmless in its results, occurred.

Other shocks visited California during the year, but did no harm, as follows: one at Victoria, February 29th; another at San Francisco, July 24th; and another at Silver Mountain, October 6th.

In Mexico.—A severe earthquake occurred on the Pacific coast of Mexico, December 20th. The most disastrous effects were experienced at Colima and Manzanillo. For several days previous to the calamity the volcano of Colima, about thirty miles from the city of that name, emitted smoke and steam, and, at the same time, the rumblings and shakings of the earth were noticed. On the morning of the 20th the earth commenced to rock, and the vibrations steadily increased until walls cracked and houses fell. The cathedral, a warehouse, and several brick buildings, were greatly damaged. The inhabitants, being roused from their sleep, rushed frantically to the plaza. It was reported that several persons were killed by the falling of the walls of the National Hotel. The vibrations were from the northeast to the southwest, and lasted nearly forty seconds. At Manzanillo the shock rent the cathedral (a building which had withstood earthquakes for over a century) from top to bottom. Eighteen or twenty persons were reported killed by the falling walls of the American Hotel, and three others were buried in the ruins of Wasserman & Co.'s warehouse. The shock was felt to a great distance from the coast. In several places the ground opened, trees were uprooted, hills levelled, water-courses changed, and a general upheaving of the earth took place.

In other Places.—Slight shocks were experienced at Augusta, Me., February 29th (the same day as at Victoria, Cal.) October 26th, tremblings of the earth were noticed near Cork, Ireland. December 17th, a heavy shock, which did no damage, however, was felt at Gibraltar. Portions of New England and the State of New York were treated to the sensation of slight vibrations at different times in the year.

On February 22d, at 3.30 P. M., a shock was felt at Tiflis, Asia, accompanied with a rumbling sound in the earth. It continued about three seconds. There had been three very distinct shocks in the direction from the north-

west to the southeast. The first two were quite strong, and the third feeble. At Alexandropol, between February 18th and 20th, several shocks were perceived. On the first the trembling of the earth under the feet was distinctly felt. The shocks continued feeble for two hours. At 3 P. M., on the 19th, a very smart shock was felt, followed by a second and a third, and so on, until seven were noted during the evening.

On the 16th of April a shock was felt at Aleppo, in Syria, at 8.40 A. M., which continued from twenty to thirty seconds. It was feeble at first, but increased in force, and ended very strong. The undulatory motion was from east to west.

EASTERN CHURCHES, or ORIENTAL CHURCHES. The collective name given to a number of churches in Eastern Europe, in Asia, and Northern Africa (Greek, Armenian, Nestorian, Jacobite, Coptic, and Abyssinian), which hold to the doctrine of the apostolic succession of bishops. The statistics of the Eastern Churches,* as reported in 1868, were as follows:

United States (chiefly in Alaska).....	10,000
North-German Confederation.....	2,000
Turkey (in Europe).....	12,500,000
Greece.....	1,270,000
Russia (in Europe).....	52,810,000
Persia.....	300,000
China.....	1,000
Russian Possessions in Asia.....	4,885,000
Turkish Possessions in Asia.....	3,000,000
East Indies.....	300,000
Egypt.....	200,000
Abyssinia.....	300,000
Total.....	75,578,000

The bishops of the Eastern Churches generally were invited by Pope Pius IX. to take part in the Œcumenical Council which is to meet in Rome, on December 8, 1869. The Pope addressed to them the following letter:

Placed by the impenetrable designs of Divine Providence, without any merit of our own, on this sublime see, as heir of the Blessed Prince of the Apostles, who, "in virtue of the prerogative which God has vouchsafed to him, is the solid and immovable rock on which the Saviour has built His Church," and impelled by the anxiety which we feel from the burden placed upon us, we ardently desire and endeavor to extend our cares to all who, in every part of the world, bear the name of Christians, and to draw them within the embraces of our paternal love. We could not, without great peril to our soul, neglect any part of this Christian people, who, purchased by the precious blood of the Saviour, and admitted to the sheepfold of the Lord by the waters of baptism, have a demand upon us for all our vigilance. Obligated, then, to devote, without intermission, our thoughts and our cares to the salvation of all those who acknowledge and adore Jesus Christ, our eyes and heart are turned toward those churches which, formerly attached to the Apostolic Church by the bonds of unity, were so flourishing by the merit of sanctity and divine knowledge, producing such abundant fruits for the glory of God and the salvation of souls, and which to-day, by the infernal arts

and machinations of him who plotted in heaven the first schism, we find, to our great grief, elained and separated from that holy Roman Church which is spread throughout the whole world.

It is for this reason that, from the beginning of our Pontificate, we have addressed you, in the fulness of our heart, words of peace and charity. And, although we have not had, by any means, the success we so ardently desired, nevertheless we have never been without hope that our humble and fervent prayers would some day be favorably received and heard, by the infinite mercy and goodness of the Author of Salvation and Peace, "who has brought salvation to the world, and, in coming from heaven to testify how agreeable was peace to Him, and should be to every one, since He had announced it from His birth, by the mouths of angels, to men of good-will, who, in living among these same men, has taught it to them by his words, and preached it to them by His examples."

Now, as lately, with the advice of our venerable brothers, the Cardinals of the holy Roman Church, we have indicated and convoked an Œcumenical Council, to be opened in Rome on December 8th of next year, the Feast of the Immaculate Conception of the Blessed Virgin, Mother of God; we address our words to you again, and we conjure, warn, and entreat you, with all the earnestness we are capable of, to come to this same General Assembly, as did your ancestors to the Council of Lyons, held under the blessed Gregory X., our predecessor of venerable memory, and to the Council of Florence, celebrated by Eugenius IV., also our predecessor of happy memory, to the end that, renewing the laws of ancient love and restoring to its vigor the peace of our fathers, that celestial and salutary gift of Jesus Christ, of which in time we have lost the fruits, we may see at last, after a long period of grief, in which darkness and division prevailed—we may see arise the brilliant and pure morning which we so long have prayed for.

Be this the happy fruit of the blessings with which Jesus Christ, our common Lord and Redeemer, consoles, in these unhappy times, His cherished and immaculate Catholic Church! May He thus sweeten His grief and dry up His tears, so that, all divisions having ended, voices heretofore discordant may unite in perfect unanimity of spirit in praising God, who wishes not schisms among us, but who has prescribed that we speak and think by the voice of the Apostle.

What immortal acts of thanksgiving will be endlessly rendered to the Father of Mercies by all the Saints, but especially by those most glorious Fathers and Doctors of the Eastern Church, when from on high they see reestablished and restored the Union with the Apostolic See, which is the centre of Catholic truth and unity—union which they themselves, during their life on earth, strove to sustain with all the care and activity of their zeal, and every day to strengthen by their teaching and example, because the Holy Spirit had filled their hearts with the love of Him who overturned the wall of separation, who reconciled and pacified all things by His blood, who wished that the characteristic mark of His disciples should be unity, and whose prayer to His Father was: "I ask that all be one, as we are one."

Given at Rome, at St. Peter's, September 8, 1868, in the twenty-third year of our pontificate.

2. THE ARMENIANS.—The letter of the Pope, inviting the Oriental bishops to the Œcumenical Council to be held in Rome, in December, 1869, was officially presented to the Armenian Patriarch of Constantinople by the Roman Catholic Archbishop of that city, Mgr. Hassoun. According to the *Levant Herald*, of Constantinople, the Armenian Patriarch replied that he could not answer it without consulting his Synod. Roman Catholic papers.

* Full statistics of each of the Eastern Churches are given in Schen's *American Ecclesiastical and Educational Almanac for 1869* (New York, 1869).

however, announced that both the Patriarch of Constantinople and a number of the Armenian bishops might be expected to take part in the council.

The Patriarch of Constantinople and the high clergy are disposed to take strong measures against the "Armenian Lūsavoritchian (Illuminator) Society," a body of reformers in the Armenian Church, not connected with the Protestant Armenians, who, in 1866, published a revised translation of the Gregorian Armenian prayer-book. But, as there are too many favorers of the new doctrines holding high places in the Gregorian fold, the Porte did not appear disposed to support the Patriarch. The Reformers, in 1868, opened a church in Constantinople. The following information on the history and opinions of this society are given in a communication to the *Levant Herald*, of Constantinople (July 1, 1868):

"The society in question was organized in this city in 1866, with the view of reforming the Gregorian Armenian Church and bringing it back to its primitive doctrines and modes of worship as taught by St. Gregory. The parent society is composed of a considerable number of members, and provides for the establishment of branches in the provinces wherever Armenians may desire to espouse the reform movement. The new body owes its existence, primarily, to the spread of the Scriptures among the Armenian nation, by Armenian agencies, as also by the instrumentality of the British and Foreign Bible Society. But an active stimulus was given to the creation of the new body by the excitement caused three years ago in Smyrna, when the clergy and laity of the Armenian Church there sought to erect a statue to the Virgin Mary within its precincts. The bishops formally disapproved of this act of mariolatry; the feeling on the subject ran high; and a body of those to whom the statue was obnoxious proceeded to the church and broke it to pieces. Thereupon many enlightened Armenians, seeing the necessity of improvement, formed themselves into the new society.

"The Armenian Reformers reject the following doctrines and practices followed by the present Gregorian Armenian Church; viz.: Transubstantiation; absolution of sins; the sacrifice of the mass; celibacy of the clergy; the belief that the clergy are Christ's representatives upon earth; fasting on specified days; the omnipresence and intercession of saints; adoration of images and relics, and any faith in their miraculous or curative properties; going on pilgrimages; blessing the salt; and the sacrifice of lambs and cocks as oblations and means of grace. They only acknowledge two sacraments as ordained and instituted by the divine Head of the Church, namely, Baptism and the Holy Communion; and repudiate the other five, Confirmation, Penance, Ordination, Extreme Unction, and Matrimony, as unscriptural. In the same year (1866), the Reformers

published a revised copy of the Armenian prayer-book under the title of "The Picture of the Armenian Lūsavoritchian Holy Church," with all the passages of the old book eliminated for which they did not deem there was sufficient warrant in the word of God. This was condemned by the Gregorian Patriarch as a sectarian and heretical work; the Reformers promptly replied by calling upon his Holiness to convoke a meeting and prove the alleged heresies of the book, a challenge which, however, was not accepted.

"Sacerdotal intolerance, unhappily, soon showed itself in the matter. Of the clergy who favored the Reform movement, some were subjected to threats and even to direct persecution on the part of the Patriarch. For instance, the *vartabet* of one of the parochial churches dwelt openly from his pulpit upon the truth and appositeness of the new doctrines, and, although warned to desist by the Patriarch, persevered in maintaining them. Not content with depriving him of his living, the Patriarch urged the Porte to prosecute the bold ecclesiastic as a revolutionary proselyte and propagandist. The Porte, however, viewing the matter as one of purely internal concern to the Gregorian Armenians, declined to take this extreme step; but the result has led the clergy who adopt the new doctrines to wear a particular sign, the sign of the cross on the top button of the hat, to distinguish them from the clergy under the jurisdiction of the Patriarch, and to their selecting and recognizing—for the present, and until their own organization becomes more complete—the president of the Evangelical Armenians as the civil administrator of their affairs.

"The ranks of the Reformers are being steadily recruited; and divine service is celebrated every Sunday in the new rite by Reformed Gregorian Armenian clergy according to the ceremonial laid down in the revised prayer-book (*Badgher*)."

In May, a demonstration was made in Constantinople by a number of Gregorian Armenians in favor of union with the Orthodox Greek Church, by proceeding in a large body to the church of the Panagia, in Pera. On the following Sunday, the visit was returned to the Armenian church, with no little ceremony, by the Bishop of Pamphilius, accompanied by his clergy and fifteen hundred members of his congregation. The Armenian archbishop, surrounded by a great number of clergy and laity, received the procession at the door. The Greek prelate, Dionysius, preached a sermon earnestly advocating the union of the two churches, and a Greek layman having also delivered an address to the same effect, the assembly dispersed with loud acclamations.

The *Friend of India* says that the Armenians in Calcutta seem to show few or no signs of ecclesiastical activity or religious progress.

3. THE NESTORIANS.—At the annual convo-

cation of native helpers and church representatives of the Nestorians who are in communion with the Protestant missionaries, held in October, 1867, ninety members were in attendance. Bishop Mar Yohanan was elected moderator of the meeting. The practical subjects of education, benevolence, temperance, family worship, and the means for promoting the spiritual growth and efficiency of the communion, were presented in able and well-prepared papers, and were followed by free and animated discussions. The increase of wine-drinking, within the last two or three years, among some of the communicants and a few even of the helpers, received warning and rebuke. Eighty accessions to the churches were reported. The subject of self-support came up, and in the discussion several pledged a tithe of their possessions to the church. Deacon Jacob reported the sale of 1,900 Bibles and Testaments in modern Russian, and many other religious books and tracts, besides many books in German and other languages. He also spoke of revival-scenes, resulting in the conversion and baptism of several adherents to the Greek Church. A great work is opening in many places in the Russian empire. It was stated that the Emperor especially encourages the circulation of the Scriptures in the spoken language; allowing free passports to colporteurs, and exacting no duties for the largest sales, and that he has himself paid the expense of translating and printing a large edition, and has caused it to be circulated in the army and among officials, free of expense.

A number of Nestorians, in 1867, addressed a letter to Archbishop Langley, of Canterbury, and Bishop Tait, of London, saying that they were in a state of great ignorance and darkness, and that many of their rulers and guides were not capable of instructing them—a state of things which apparently arose from their chief spiritual offices being hereditary. That being so, they applied to the English bishops to come over and help them—to send some one to instruct and enlighten them. At the meeting of the Anglo-Continental Society, the archbishop remarked with regard to this appeal:

I have reason to believe, from communications I have had with Mr. Badger, who has been a missionary in the country, that they are not at all wedded to Nestorian principles, and that they might be led to abandon them. I cannot but hope, therefore, that inasmuch as this appeal has been made to us, and inasmuch as I have now publicly stated its nature, there may be some wealthy and well-disposed people who may be inclined to contribute to a mission to these poor Nestorians. It would be entirely an independent mission, because there is no existing society that can exactly take it up. It does not belong to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel or to the Anglo-Continental Society; but I think a separate committee might be formed, and that it might send out two missionaries.

4. THE COPTS.—The Pacha of Egypt, who is paying much attention to the Coptic Patriarch, still persecutes the American Presbyterian missionaries, and has closed their schools. A pres-

byter of the name of Fam Stephanos, who has been a Protestant for more than twenty years, was only saved from deportation to the Blue Nile by the interference of the missionaries, who appealed to the American consul-general for assistance. He was imprisoned at Esneh. These missionaries, who have done more for the regeneration of the Pasha's dominions than all other influences put together, dare not now print their tracts, nor teach freely in their schools, nor preach as before.

The labors of the United Presbyterian missionaries in Egypt begin to exercise a great influence upon the Coptic Church:

The Coptic priests, finding so firm a preference for the teaching which the children receive in our school, were led to take a new and rather strange plan to keep others from leaving their school. They concluded to introduce Brown's Catechism into their school, and have actually done so—saying that the doctrine which the Protestants teach the little ones is good, but their teaching to the grown people is bad—referring no doubt to those books which expose the corruptions of the Roman and Eastern Churches. We have sold several copies of Brown's Catechism to them, and they asked also for the Shorter Catechism (the Westminster Catechism), which is taught in our school, but our supply is exhausted, and therefore we cannot accommodate them until we get more from Cairo. This desire for religious books is a very pleasing contrast to the work of last year, when the Copts, to please the Patriarch, burned many good books. One man, who had a copy of Brown's Catechism, when the Patriarch came and commanded that all such books should be burned, took the precaution to bury his precious little book, lest it should be taken from him and burned.

5. THE ABYSSINIANS.—The works on Abyssinia, which have been called forth by the conflict of England with the late King Theodore, of Abyssinia, contain a great deal of importance on the religious and social condition of the Abyssinian Christians. The following are a few extracts from the work of Dr. Blanc, one of the captives:

"Churches abound—one near every village, and several in every town, is the rule. They are by far the best-built houses in the country; surrounded as they are by guiches and cedars, always in a commanding position, they add much to the picturesqueness of the landscape. They are all built on the same pattern—that is to say, a large circular stone building, composed of three concentric circles. The smaller central room is screened from the eyes of the people, and the priests alone can enter it. It is intended to represent the Holy of Holies. It contains the tablet, or ark—a small wood box, the receptacle of the sacred volumes. The sanctuary where the priests officiate is formed by the second circle. This is in reality the church, as the nave, where the congregation assembles, is but a veranda. The interior of the church, and sometimes also the veranda, is adorned with rude paintings—a strange mixture, representing the favorite saints—St. Michael, St. George, the apostles, our Lord, the Virgin Mary, God himself, the devil, and former emperors. All Abyssinians who confess before

they die have the privilege of being buried among the trees outside the church, but no stone or memorial is there to recall the 'dear departed.'

"Polygamy exists to a fearful extent. All who can afford it keep several wives and concubines. Though there is a religious marriage, few avail themselves of it, as it binds both for life. Abyssinians prefer the more simple ceremony of marrying by the 'King's death' (the usual form of oath in the country), a marriage as easily contracted as dissolved. But even this shadow of morality is generally dispensed with. Men and women live in concubinage with no other tie but the pleasure they find in each other's society—short passing intercourse sufficient only to gratify their grossest passions. Women are kept in a very degraded position; they are not allowed to sit or eat in the presence of the men; they cook the food, spin the cotton, clean the stables, and carry water and wood. Men, on the other hand, wash the clothes, go to the market, are dress-makers, embroiderers, and tailors."

ECUADOR, a republic in South America. President, since January 30, 1868, Dr. Xavier Espinosa. Area, 218,984 square miles; population, 1,300,000. The value of exports from the port of Guayaquil (exclusive of precious metals) amounted, in 1867, to 3,894,234 piastres (that of cacao alone 2,614,651). The number of entries in the port of Guayaquil, in 1867, was 108 vessels, together of 11,798 tons. The revenue of the republic amounted, in 1865, to 1,401,300 piastres (522,122 from customs), and the expenditures to 1,399,672 piastres. The foreign debt was, in 1866, 9,390,554 piastres, and the home debt, 3,692,955 piastres. There is neither a standing army nor a fleet.

At the elections for a new Congress, which ended on the 7th of May, the Conservative party was almost everywhere successful, except in Guayaquil and Imbalura, and the north and south frontier.

In August the republic was visited by one of the most terrific earthquakes known in history. In the three districts of Otavalo, Ibarra, and Cotacachi, of the province of Imbalura, in particular, the disaster was overwhelming, and it was calculated that more than one-half of all the inhabitants had perished. Altogether the number of lives lost was estimated at more than 30,000.

In October, the Ecuadorian minister to Chili, Don Antonio Flores, brought about an arrangement with Chili to this effect: That Spanish vessels coming to the Pacific, whose destination is Ecuador, shall in no case be molested by the Chilian navy, and, in case of necessity, they may touch at any Chilian port. This concession was made by Chili in consequence of the great damages which Ecuador had suffered from the earthquake, and the necessity of securing her some relief from the misfortunes brought upon her by joining a profitless alliance.

EGYPT, a dependency of Turkey in Africa. The government, since 1841, is hereditary in the family of Mehemet Ali, and since May 14th the rulers bear the title Khedervi, the Arabic equivalent for viceroy. Present Viceroy, Ismail Pacha, born November 26, 1816, eldest surviving son of Ibrahim Pacha, who was the eldest son of Mehemet Ali. Heir-apparent to the throne, Mehmed Tefvik Pacha, born in 1852.

At the head of the administration is a Council of State (established in 1856), which consists of the princes of the viceregal family, four generals, and four high dignitaries. In 1868 Sherif Pacha was president of the Council of State. The Cabinet, in 1868, embraced the Ministers of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, the Viceregal House, Instruction, Finances, and three ministers without portfolio. The ministers of the Marine and War did not belong to the Cabinet. Since 1866, there is also an Assembly of Delegates which holds annual sessions.

The area of Egypt is estimated at 659,000 square miles, and the population at 7,465,000. Cairo has about 260,000 inhabitants; Alexandria, 170,000; Damietta, 37,000; Rosetta, 18,000; Suez, 5,000. The annual revenue of the Government is estimated at £8,000,000. The tribute to the Sultan was largely increased in 1866, and is said to amount now to 150,000 purses (one purse=500 piastres, or £4.54 sterling, or about \$21). The total public debt amounted to £19,420,000 at the end of 1868.

The strength of the Egyptian army is 14,000 men, 8,000 infantry, 3,000 cavalry, artillery, and engineers, and 3,000 black troops. The navy, in 1867, comprised seven ships-of-the-line, six frigates, nine corvettes, seven brigs, eighteen gunboats and smaller vessels, and twenty-seven transports. In 1868 the English captain, McKillop, was appointed to reorganize the fleet, which is to be largely increased.

The exports from Alexandria, in 1866, amounted to 1,307,000,000 Egyptian piastres (20 Egyptian piastres=\$1). The number of entries in the port of Alexandria, in 1866, was 3,698 vessels, of which 980 were steamers, together of 1,373,217 tons.

The Egyptian Assembly of Delegates was opened on Monday, March 16th, by the Viceroy, who delivered a speech in Arabic. The principal internal and foreign questions were thus referred to:

I feel, gentlemen, a just pride in the assistance you lend me for the development of the prosperity of Egypt, and I have the firm hope that the approaching deliberations, like those of last year, will have the most salutary effect for all. During the year which has just elapsed schools have been opened in the towns of Benha and Siout. My government is occupied with the creation of similar establishments in the localities which are still deprived of them. Public instruction is a capital question, the importance of which has been felt. I have seen the proofs of this in donations made to our national schools, and have heard of those donations with sensible pleasure. Such acts of generosity deserve all praise, and show

a real desire on the part of the population to contribute to the development of instruction. The abolition of the *ohdes* system is completely effected. Requests for concessions of land not included in the cadastre have been accorded. My government will again submit this question to your examination. I think that the period of the concessions might be extended, and greater facilities accorded: this would be an encouragement to the agricultural population, and an augmentation of the general welfare. The public works voted by you have been carried out with activity in the twenty-three localities you have designated. The necessary contingents cannot be definitively fixed until after the completion of the general census upon which they are established. Hitherto we have been unable to carry out this operation, the importance of which I leave to your appreciation, and the radical solution of which I confide to your enlightenment. A census system carried out with intelligence and equity offers manifest advantages without causing any annoyance to the inhabitants, and without interfering with individual liberty. The regulations you have established with regard to the bonds to be subscribed by native borrowers have been communicated to the *moudiriens*. The application of these regulations is subordinated to the operation of a law upon mortgage, which will shortly be submitted to your deliberations. The monthly collection of the territorial dues was to undergo modifications in uniformity with the desire you expressed last year. The Minister of Finance is instructed to explain to you the reasons which have prevented the government, in presence of the difficulties which resulted from it, from putting in execution the new mode of collection.

The proposals that my government will submit to your deliberations this year relate to three principal questions—hygiene, the cultivation of cotton, and the sluices and dams. Various causes of insalubrity have been pointed out to me. In a great number of localities there are lakes of stagnant water and marshes. Now, experience has shown that in draining these lakes and marshes the atmosphere is purified and the germs of sickness destroyed. It is of importance, therefore, that you should deliberate upon the measures to be taken in order to ameliorate the sanitary state by proceeding gradually and taking into account local exigencies. For two years the cotton crop in certain provinces has not answered our expectations. Egypt had, nevertheless, conquered an eminent place among producing countries by the excellent quality of her cotton. It had been distinguished at the Paris Universal Exhibition. But in the majority of the provinces of Lower Egypt the abundance of the crops has diminished, while the quality has deteriorated. This latter fact arises from the introduction of foreign seed. As to the diminution in the quantity, you will have to seek the causes in order to combat them with success. I also call your attention to the means of developing and perfecting all the branches of agriculture. The works of the sluices, dams, and bridges, have already absorbed considerable sums. We ought to pursue with energy the accomplishment of these eminently useful undertakings, the fertile sources of public wealth. To seek the means of developing the prosperity of the country, such, gentlemen, is our duty. May God protect and bless our efforts!

On September 26th Mr. Charles Hale, United States consul-general, entertained at dinner, at Alexandria, Mehemet Tefvik Pacha, heir-apparent to the throne of Egypt, together with twelve other pachas, principal ministers of the Egyptian Government. Tefvik Pacha proposed the health of the President of the United States and the happiness of the American people.

On June 17th a contract was signed between the Egyptian Government and an English company for the construction of the proposed

breakwater and docks at Alexandria. The company is authorized to levy the same dock-dues as are paid at Liverpool. In the event of the Egyptian Government taking possession of the enterprise when completed, interest at the rate of twelve per cent. will be allowed on the purchase-money until paid off.

The Slave-Trade Blue Book, published by the English Government in 1868, contains new charges against the Egyptian Government for conniving at the slave-trade on the White Nile. Mr. Reade, the English consul at Cairo, denies the truth of the statements made in July, 1867, by the Viceroy in Paris, to a deputation of the British and Foreign Antislavery Society, that, "though he could act against his own people, he was defeated when he sought to do so against Europeans, who were the chief delinquents," and that, "if he were free to act against European slave-traders, the slave-trade would soon disappear." Mr. Reade, rejecting this charge against Europeans in Upper Egypt as impossible, the whole number of whom, he says, is under a dozen, and who are regarded with much jealousy by the local authorities, proceeds to say:

It is, however, a matter of public notoriety that from ten to fifteen thousand slaves are annually brought down the Nile to Cairo, while an equal or even greater number find their way to Souakin and the Red Sea. The principal dealers are well known, and allowed by the local authorities to pursue unmo- lested their abominable traffic. True it is that some of these delinquents are occasionally arrested and their property confiscated, and sometimes a few slaves are even set at liberty; but the great bulk of the trade is tacitly sanctioned, if not actually connived at, by the authorities themselves. At Galabat, on the Abyssinian frontier, an enormous slave-mart is constantly open. Two hundred Nile-boats, employed regularly in this trade, are permitted to navigate with impunity, upon the payment for every voyage they make of a certain tribute to the local authorities, while a similar impost is levied on every slave caravan that passes along the desert of Korusco.

If, my lord, the Egyptian Government were sincerely desirous of checking the progress of so great an evil, a good opportunity is now afforded to it for inflicting a severe blow on the slave-trade in this part of the world. I must confess, however, I am far from sanguine that much can be expected from that government of its own volition, and for several reasons: 1. That important persons and functionaries of the government derive considerable profit and advantage from the trade, either directly or indirectly—directly, because their palaces, houses, and estates are supplied with slave labor; indirectly, because inasmuch as the trade is ostensibly a forbidden one, they are enabled to levy on the dealers heavy toll for permission to evade the law. 2. That the army of Egypt is largely recruited from the male black adult slaves. And 3. That the fellahs, or farmer population, are glad to have the means of sending as substitutes for themselves and children, when summoned by the government to forced labor, slaves bought at these marts.

Mr. Reade, in the disguise of an Arab, visited a number of slave-markets in Cairo and Tannah. In the former city he saw between two hundred and fifty and three hundred. There would have been three thousand on sale there, but the greater number had been removed to

Tantah for an approaching fair. At Tantah he saw between five and six hundred, but believes the total number there on sale to have been about two thousand. Having made these discoveries, he informed the mudir or governor of the province, who undertook to seize all the slaves in the night and have them freed. He only partially fulfilled his promise, and Mr. Reade tells Lord Stanley that the governor was ordered to desist from the work of emancipation by a superior functionary, the Inspector-General of Provinces.

Representations made by Mr. Reade to Sherif Pacha were met by an evasive reply. Mr. Reade had afterward an interview with the minister, and convinced him that the charge against Europeans of complicity in the slave-trade was untrue.

The Pacha then complained that European Christians in Upper Egypt were largely engaged in the slave-trade, but I believe I very soon satisfied him that such was not the case. The unsatisfactory nature of Sherif Pacha's reply to my representations with regard to the slave markets at Tantah and Cairo will prove to your lordship, better than any thing I can state from my own experience, that no reliance whatever can be placed in the antislavery protestations of this government:

The Blue Book contains further communications, of great interest as to the slave-trade carried on in Upper Egypt, from M. Saulter, a German missionary at Khartoum, and from the Prussian consular agent and the Austrian vice-consul at Khartoum.

ELECTRICITY. *Submerged Uninsulated Cables.*—Mr. H. Wilde, of England, the inventor of the powerful magneto-electric machine which bears his name, has been making experiments to ascertain with what degree of facility electric signals may be transmitted through metallic cables submerged, without an insulating envelope. The principal electro-motors employed by him were three magneto-electric machines of different degrees of power, a Grove's battery, and a Daniell's battery. The test of the magnitude of the current adopted by Mr. Wilde in every case was, the melting of a given quantity of wire, because he had not been able to discover any other method which could at all compare with that in expressing easily, and without ambiguity, the associated properties of quantity and intensity, especially when dealing with currents of such magnitude as those evolved from the five and ten inch magneto-electric machines. The building which contained the various electro-motors was situated about 100 feet from the edge of the basin of a navigable canal in which most of the experiments were made. Connection between the electro-motors and electrodes and other conductors submerged in the canal was effected by means of two lengths of copper-wire rope, each 140 feet long and nearly half an inch thick. These wire-rope connections consisted of seven thick copper wires twisted together, and were supported through the air, and insulated from one another, by means of a

pole fixed upon the bank of the canal. The conductors submerged were copper-wire ropes of various lengths, but of the same diameter and construction as those used for the aerial connection. Mr. Wilde's experiments with these contrivances were very numerous, and the general conclusions at which he arrived can only be given here. He regards the fact as established, that currents of electricity of great quantity, but of an intensity below that which is required to effect the electrolyzation of the liquid in which the conductors are submerged, may be transmitted to considerable distances without the necessity of surrounding the conductors with an insulating envelope. But he remarks that it is impossible for him to say, without further experiments with conductors of much greater length than those employed by him, whether it would be practicable, under the most favorable circumstances, to transmit to distant places electric currents sufficiently powerful to be made available for any useful purpose, under such conditions. One of his experiments on naked copper wires, 750 feet long, in water, is worthy of mention. When currents of high tension were sent through these wires, a marked diminution of electrodynamic effects was observed at the other ends of the wires, but currents of low tension passed over the wires with but little diminution of their primitive intensity. Using the current from a 10-inch intensity armature, a sufficient quantity of electricity was transmitted through the wires to produce a brilliant electric light, and to melt 22 inches of iron wire, .050 of an inch thick. With the current of lower intensity from a 5-inch quantity armature, 7 inches of the same wire, .035 of an inch in diameter were melted.

Electric Lights for Light-houses and Ships.—M. Ernest Saint Edme presented this subject in a communication to the September number of the *Annales du Génie Civil*. He says that, since the report made by M. Reynaud, director of the administration of light-houses in France, three years ago, electric lighting in light-houses, etc., has not achieved much progress. The reasons of this are stated by the author as follows: To transform existing light-houses, existing apparatus must be sacrificed for a sole advantage of increasing the light at any moment. It is doubtful whether all light-houses are large and strong enough for the accommodation of the new machinery; this is certainly the case with most of those on the French coast. As to the light-houses of inferior order, it would be illusory to think of altering them. And other difficulties are inherent in electric lamps, which, however well designed, are subject to causes of derangement which render necessary the best mechanism; and the crayons, if impure, may scale, and cause interruptions; and these impurities might cause mistakes incompatible with the service of the light-house. When a new light-house is to be built, it will be advantageous to adopt the electric

light; but the importance of the question, relative to the general administration of light-houses, is much less than was at first supposed.

In 1863, in a notice of the applications of the electric light, the author suggested the lighting of vessels by it. The maritime exhibition at Havre shows that the suggestion has been considered, at least in principle. In the point of view of lighting the course of a ship, no one will deny that the oil lantern is insufficient to prevent collisions at night; while the electric lantern would illumine the air all around, and the rocking of the vessel would cause such changes of light as would attract the notice of the men on other vessels. When the whole cost of a ship is considered, that of electric engines is insignificant; two or three horse-power will work a magneto-electric machine. And the electric light will serve other purposes on board a ship. Recent experiments have shown that it would be possible to assist a ship in her course by dazzling the steersman by a jet of light, when an oil lantern would not be seen by him. It can also be used to light under water; an application that concerns the repairs of the sheathing and hulls of vessels, the finding of lost articles, and the catching of fish. The fish are confused by the light, and then easily caught. Mons. Dubosc has constructed a lantern well fitted to enclose an electric lamp. The conducting wires are connected so that there is no chance for water to leak into the lantern. This apparatus can, without fear of too high pressure, be lowered to great depth in the sea.—(*Translated for Van Nostrand's Engineering Mag.*)

The London *Chemical News* states that the electric light at Dungeness can now be worked by either of the two engines, so that no disturbance occurs when one requires repairs. The services of the high-class engineers and firemen have been dispensed with, and the Elder Brethren have their own ordinary keepers trained to drive the engines as well as to attend to the lamps, a steady, old, experienced keeper being placed at the head of the establishment. Since the alterations made at Dungeness, the light there has worked with great regularity and efficiency, and the Elder Brethren have proposed to place similar lights at the South Foreland, Lowestoft, and Souter Point. The English Board of Trade approve the extension of this mode of illumination to the South Foreland and Lowestoft, but suspend their decision respecting Souter Point. The committee of Elder Brethren who attended the Paris Exhibition say, that so far as the eye is a test, the power of the English fixed light was considerably in excess of the French, and when both machines were in use, and there was a good current, the fixed beam of the English light did not contrast unfavorably with the revolving one of the French, the flash of which is of great power. The contrast of the electric fixed light with the French first-order oil dioptric revolving light was very

marked; indeed, the one may be said to put the other out. But the most beautiful feature of the electric was the extraordinary beam it gave. It shone night after night, large, steady, and lustrous as a planet, and you could see in the darkness a beam passing as far as the eye could see. From the tower, with the light at the back, it was very marked, and quite lit the hills round Paris. The whole horizon in the plane of the light showed the white beam, and at the distance of four miles it shone upon the windows of some houses, making them appear to be lit up. By extinguishing and relighting quickly several times this was very plain. Altogether the light was very remarkable, and the committee were glad to be able to report such an advance as the powers of the light show over that at Dungeness; indeed, the latter gives to the observer no conception of what the present one is; and it is satisfactory to know that the result of five years' work and observation, with imperfect and ill-arranged apparatus, has now borne such good fruit; and that as England was the first to test and adopt this adjunct to the sources of light-house illumination, so she still retains her superiority. It is due, however, to Mr. Holmes to say that great as are the improvements already effected, he states that he is confident he can yet greatly increase the illuminating power before the present apparatus is reërected at a permanent station.

Satisfactory experiments have been made with the electric light on board the French iron-clad ship *Heroine* and the yacht *Prince Jerome*, to ascertain the value of the light for signalling purposes. The machine was furnished by the Alliance Company, producing a light equal to two hundred Carcel burners, or sixteen hundred candles. An ordinary newspaper could be read in the direct line of the light at the distance of 1,531 yards. Signalling was most easily done by short and long flashes, and was found to be practicable. The Government commissioners reported, after an investigation, that the apparatus showed a very powerful focus of light, perfectly suited to night signalling, or for throwing a light over a coast or a ship; and that it would be most useful on board the flag-ship of a commander-in-chief. By the aid of this light, the *Prince Jerome* was enabled to steam by night through the intricate navigation of the Bosphorus, when the yacht belonging to the Viceroy of Egypt was obliged to wait until daylight. On some steamers of the French commercial marine the same light produced by the magneto-electric engine has been introduced, and is regarded as a practical success.

Experiments in Electrolysis.—M. Bourgoin has published a memoir on the electrolysis of organic acids and their salts. He has found by experiment that the action of the electric fluid is in reality only a fundamental action on all acids and salts, whether mineral or organic. It separates the basic element which goes to the

negative pole, while the elements of anhydrous acid and oxygen, which answer to basic hydrogen or to metal, fly to the positive pole. Such, he claims, is the fundamental action of the electric current. M. Bourgoïn has specially studied the action of the current on neutral tartrate, on a mixture of tartrate and alkali, and on free tartaric acid. To examine the action on tartaric acid, a concentrated solution of the neutral tartrate of potash is conveniently operated upon. As soon as the current passes, the solution becomes alkaline at the negative pole; only a moderate disengagement of gas is produced at the two poles. The principal result is the formation of a white precipitate, which is slowly but continuously deposited from the positive electrode. Analysis shows this substance to be wholly cream of tartar. The solution at the positive pole remains neutral during the experiment. The gas evolved at the positive pole was composed of carbonic acid, oxygen, carbonic oxide, and nitrogen. Nearly the whole of the loss takes place at the positive pole.

The tartaric acid thus regenerated at the positive pole forms, with the neutral tartrate, cream of tartar; there is, however, some tartaric acid destroyed by oxidation. The action of the current on a mixture of neutral tartrate and alkali produces quite different results to those obtained with neutral tartrate only, notwithstanding that the fundamental action is the same. At the positive pole a mixture of carbonic acid, carbonic oxide, oxygen and hydride of ethylen is evolved. M. Berthelot discovered acetylen also in the sample of the gas sent him by M. Bourgoïn. The decomposition of free tartaric acid yielded the same products as the neutral tartrate, though in different proportions. The carbonic acid is the dominant product from the first; the carbonic oxide diminishes as the experiment proceeds; the same is the case with the oxygen and nitrogen, though to a less extent. Acetic acid is formed at the positive pole. After the fifth day the experiment had been in progress, the solution in the neighborhood of the positive pole contained a large quantity of acetic acid, which was isolated as acetate of baryta.

New Batteries.—M. Caudey has devised a battery, composed of four elements, of which the electro-motors consist of perfectly new carbon plates, the one being what is termed agglomerated carbon, the other gas carbon. These plates never having been previously used, were, consequently, free from acids and salts. The battery was connected up in the ordinary manner, the carbon of one cell being connected to the gas carbon of the other, and so on. Immediately on being placed in action the battery gave a current of 45° on a galvanometer, and rang a bell perfectly for a space of about ten minutes. The intensity diminished rapidly after that time; but after a rest of about one hour the battery had almost recovered its previous force. Each time that the

battery was tried a rest was always sufficient to restore its action; but after each trial the force became less, until, after trying it for thirty-five days, it became so weak as to give only 3° on the galvanometer, and at that period a remarkable change took place. The sign of the current altered: the current, which hitherto had been passing from the agglomerated to the gas carbon, was now proceeding in the opposite direction. M. Caudey states that, on the second day after the fixing of the battery, he thought he remarked a strong smell of gas-tar. He perceived that this smell was accumulated around the last gas carbon forming the positive pole of the battery. It seemed to him then extremely probable that the gases which diffused those smells had been withdrawn from the interior of the carbons by the current, to be accumulated and disengaged at the positive pole, for previous to their being immersed the carbon had no smell whatever. The agglomerated carbon placed in the same cell was covered by bands of very brilliant colors, among which were Prussian blue, violet, green, etc., arising, he supposes, from the decomposition of salts, or, perhaps, from a small quantity of tar contained in the gas carbon. A peculiar fact in connection with these bands is, that they were precisely similar in order to those of the solar spectrum—the red at top and the violet below, with all the intermediate colors of the spectrum.

M. G. Plante has invented a new "secondary battery," as he calls it. It consists of a novel and peculiar arrangement for multiplying the power obtained from a weak source. In form it is not unlike an ordinary condenser. There is a rectangular gutta-percha vessel provided with lateral grooves, and containing a series of lead plates immersed in dilute sulphuric acid. As in a large condenser, the odd plates are joined in one series and the even plates in another series; to either end is attached one of the poles of a weak source. Such a battery, with six plates only, and a source of two small nitric couples, was strong enough to create temporary incandescence in a platinum wire one millimetre thick and eight centimetres long. By increasing the size and number of the plates, more powerful calorific effects, such as incandescence of iron and steel rods, may be obtained by charging the battery with two or three Bunsen's elements. An arrangement, termed by the same inventor his "secondary tension battery," produces still more remarkable results. The apparatus consists of forty secondary couples, each couple of lead plates being in a narrow gutta-percha vessel, immersed in dilute sulphuric acid, the pole of each vessel being connected to a peculiar commutator, so that the plates could be joined as an arrangement of tension or as one of surface. This battery was charged with three couples of Bunsen's medium-sized battery. On applying the current from the secondary circuit, a platinum wire, two metres long and one-quar-

ter of a millimetre thick, was rendered incandescent for a few moments, and the voltaic arc was also obtained. M. Plante remarks upon this that it is not, as in the case of induction, the direct production of one physical effect by another physical action; but the final result is none the less an accumulation or a modification of electrical force, which can be utilized under certain circumstances.—(*Mechanics' Magazine*.)

An Electric Piano.—M. Spies, of Paris, has invented an electric piano, which has been exhibited at a meeting of the "Société d'Encouragement," and elicited great surprise and admiration. The electrical arrangement consists, in the interior of the piano, of a series of electro-magnets, which act upon the hammers that strike the wires. These hammers communicate in the ordinary way with the keyboard, but on their opposite side they have small wooden rods, terminating with armatures, which are attracted to the electro-magnets whenever they become active. The "directing organ," as it is called, is constructed as follows: First, there are two wooden rollers, with an intermediate roller of metal. The paper, specially prepared with a series of holes, placed in positions representing the several notes of music, is rolled around one of the wooden rollers; passing over the metal roller, it is drawn off and wound around the second wooden roller. This unwinding keeps it always at a uniform tension. Second, a clockwork movement gives motion to the rollers. Third, a small keyboard, with movable copper hammers, is placed above the intermediate roller, so that the heads of the hammers rest upon the paper band (prepared as described) which represents the musical notes. The battery is a series of thirty-six Daniell's cells. One pole of the battery connects with the small keyboard; the other, through the various electro-magnets of the piano, with the metallic roller. The rollers being set in motion by the clockwork, cause the prepared band to be unrolled and pass on the metallic roller. Whenever a hole in the paper comes under the keyboard, the lightly-resting hammer at once makes contact, a current passes through to the electro-magnet, which attracts the hammer, and the required note is struck; and so, from a series of these prepared holes a number of successive electric contacts are made, acting upon the several electro-magnets, causing the various hammers to strike the required notes. The principle of the piano is really that of automatic telegraphy, except that, in transmitting messages automatically by the ingenious apparatus devised for that purpose, the result is a permanent and visible record; whereas, in the case of the electric piano, the result is simply one of sound. The electric current being uniform throughout, produces a uniform blow with all the hammers; but, by the application of pedal and soundness, M. Speiss causes any music to be played with the required expression.

Magnetic Alphabetical Telegraph.—Rev. H. B. Wilde, of Reading, England, has invented a new magnetic alphabetical telegraph. The sender has a dial plate, inscribed with the letters of the alphabet and other signs. This has a jointed handle, which may be quickly moved round the dial, and may be checked at any point, by a ratchet. The instrument upon which the messages are received has a smaller dial, traversed by a delicate indicator hand. The movements of the handle by the sender of a message are accurately reproduced on the index plate at the other end of the line, and may be easily read. A series of permanent horseshoe magnets furnishes the power. These are united to form a compound magnet, to the north and south poles of which are fixed, vertically, independent electro-magnets, their upper ends being inserted through holes in a brass plate, and planed off so that the iron and brass present one smooth, flat, surface. The handle employed in sending messages gives motion to a thick, circular piece of soft iron, which is supported above the compound magnet by a suitable socket-piece. The edge of this plate is divided into twenty-eight equal spaces, which are alternately notched out right and left, so that there are fourteen projections or teeth and the same number of corresponding spaces. The iron plate in its rotary movement lightly rubs the brass plate through which the ends of the electro-magnets are inserted, and as the projections and spaces at the edge of the plate alternately pass over these ends, positive and negative currents are excited in the insulating wire surrounding the electro-magnet. The currents being conveyed to the receiving instrument induce rapid changes in the polarity of an ordinary electro-magnet, between the poles of which a small permanent magnet vibrates; each vibration liberating the teeth of an escape-wheel propelled by a very light train of clockwork wheels and mainspring. The axis of the escape-wheel carries the hand or index of the dial. Thus, as the sender moves the handle over the letters on the dial, positive and negative currents are alternately induced in the conducting wires, which currents cause the hand of the receiving instrument to pass over the same letters.

Electric Apparatus for Blasting Purposes.—A new dynamo-electric apparatus, especially adapted for blasting operations, the invention of Mr. C. W. Siemens, is described by the *Mechanics' Magazine*. It is an adaptation of the larger machine contrived by him for the conversion of great mechanical force into dynamic electricity (see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867). The essential difference between the Siemens apparatus and that of Wilde is the absence, in the former case, of the magneto-electric machine as the exciting agent. An electro-magnetic machine is alone employed, having as its exciting agent its residuary magnetism only. The electro-magnet is provided with a magnet-cylinder, within which revolves

a small Siemens armature. The coils of this electro-magnet are traversed by the current produced by the rotating armature, after being, by means of a commutator, made to flow in one direction only. At the commencement of rotation, the armature is acted upon merely by the weak residuary magnetism of the electro-magnet, and consequently only weak currents are produced in its surrounding coil. These weak currents, passing through the coils of the electro-magnet in the same direction, instantly increase the residuary magnetism, thereby again producing increased induction currents in the armature, and so on until the iron of the electro-magnet has taken up the highest amount of magnetism which it is capable of holding. In this arrangement the coils are short-circuited, and so kept during the revolutions of the handle when current and magnetism are developed to their utmost extent. By now suddenly opening this short circuit a very powerful current of short duration (expressly adapted to blasting purposes) will pass through a line connected to the terminals. The instrument is claimed to be handy, portable, and useful in all weathers, having a superiority over galvanic batteries and also over static-electric machines, which only act in fine weather. The instrument may be actuated either by magnetism or by a current from a single cell. After that there is always sufficient residuary magnetism to induce a weak current in the armature; and thus a never-failing supply of electricity is at command for the object required. In blasting operations it is said to work with great success. It is also adapted for the release of clockwork or signal bells for railways, and for the sending of currents in rapid succession into a line of telegraph.

Electro-capillary Paper.—M. Becquerel has investigated certain electro-capillary phenomena, and describes the process and results as follows: He prepared parchment-paper with ordinary filter-paper by immersing in sulphuric acid, containing fifteen per cent. of water, withdrawing immediately and washing with a large quantity of water. A tube closed by a diaphragm of this material, and filled with a saturated solution of nitrate of lime, was plunged into a solution equally saturated with sulphate of soda. Stalactites formed on the under surface of the paper, composed of crystallized double sulphate of soda and lime. These stalactites are of variable diameter, varying according to the size of the pores which allow the passage of the nitrate of lime. By diminishing the size of the capillary tubes, the passage of the liquid is indefinitely retarded, until it at length becomes inappreciable. There is a point, in regard to the diameter of these capillary tubes, where the electro-capillary force ceases to act, and where complete filtration ensues; a single pore is sufficient to produce this effect. For this reason it is necessary that the parchment

paper be uniform. Some experiments were made with siliceous diaphragms. Columns of sand, varying from five millimetres to five centimetres in height, kept in position in each case by a tuft of asbestos, were substituted in a former apparatus. In operating in Dutochet's way, with solution of sugar, solution of salt, and distilled water, simple filtration took place, instead of a strong endosmose with the organic membrane; but this was not the case when a saturated solution of sulphate of soda was placed in the tube, and in the outer vessel another of chloride of barium, an endosmose of two centimetres resulting in two days. No precipitate is seen in the outer vessel, so that there is only a displacement of the solution. In placing in a tube closed with a diaphragm of parchment-paper a solution of sugar or of salt, colored with litmus or other coloring matter, and water in the outer vessel, a strong endosmose is produced in the tube, and at the end of a few days traces of color in the water are only seen with difficulty; the color is completely arrested by the membrane.

An Improved Voltastat.—Professor Guthrie has exhibited to the British Chemical Society an improved Voltastat by which the current of a galvanic battery may be maintained perfectly constant and regular by a self-acting arrangement, which is thus described: A vertical glass cylinder of about the size of a test tube is charged with dilute sulphuric acid, with a layer of mercury below occupying about one-third of its total contents. Partly immersed in the acid liquid is a pair of platinum electrodes insulated by glass fused upon the wires at that portion which passes through the cork stopper of the jar, and a comparatively wide glass tube open at both ends is fixed in the same cork, with its lower extremity dipping below the level of the mercury, while another delivery tube with bulb and capillary orifice provides for the slow escape of the mixed gases resulting from the electro-decomposition of the water. This apparatus having been placed in the battery circuit, say of three Bunsen cells, evolves the oxyhydrogen gas with a rapidity which may be easily regulated by the size of the aperture; if, then, the activity of the battery is increased, the larger volume of gas, unable to escape, exerts a greater degree of pressure upon the liquid contents of the cylinder, and the mercury is forced up the open tube, whereby the column of liquid descends and smaller surfaces of the platinum plates are left immersed, and the power of conduction is to a corresponding extent lessened. In this manner the author states that he found no difficulty in maintaining a perfectly uniform current for a period of six or seven hours, and any required adjustment could be made by altering the size either of the apparatus or of its component parts. By collecting the gases evolved, this little arrangement could also be made to serve as a voltmeter. The president of the society, Mr.

Warren De la Rue, in remarking upon the ingenuity displayed in the construction of the apparatus, suggested that, while it would be found serviceable in electro-plating and other applications where a somewhat intense current was employed, he doubted its use in the ordinary electrotype process for the deposition of copper, where weak currents only were required.

A New Exciting Liquid.—In a note to the French Academy of Science, M. Delaurier mentions a new exciting liquid for galvanic batteries. He says that, in order to obtain very powerful batteries disengaging no deleterious gas, and of very cheap maintenance, he has solved the problem of transforming azotic acid into sulphate of ammonia, under the influence of sulphuric acid and hydrogen. This he does by the agency of protosulphate of iron; the proportions are twenty parts of the protosulphate dissolved in thirty-six parts of water (the operation being sheltered from contact with the air), to which are added, with stirring, seven parts of diluted (equal parts) sulphuric acid, and then in the same manner one part of diluted (equal parts) azotic acid. He says that the resulting liquid is the most energetic and most economical that he knows for an exciting liquid for iron, zinc, and other metals without any disengagement of hydrogen or binoxide of azote. In the use of this liquid with nitric acid in Bunsen's pile, the action goes on without any exterior emanation of nitrous gas, and without the emission of hydrogen in the interior, and consequently the platinum does not polarize.

Decomposing Action of the Voltaic Arc on Certain Substances.—Mr. F. P. Le Roux, in a paper in the London *Chemical News*, offers evidence to show that the earthy and alkaline-earth oxides undergo a real decomposition in the voltaic arc. If a cylinder of magnesia, or lime, or strontia, be fixed in the voltaic arc, a slight cavity instantly forms at the base, and the conditions remain the same for an indefinite time; the arc continuing to play upon the body without inducing any change but the vitrification caused by the siliceous vapors emitted by the impure charcoal. If, however, the cylinder of earthy matter be brought into actual contact with the charcoal points and the pressure maintained with a slight spring, different results follow. If a pencil of lime, or even plain chalk, be used, the carbons will hollow out in it a sort of trench in which the heat is condensed as in a sort of reverberatory furnace, and the amount of light emitted is proportionally augmented. On examining the light with a piece of black glass it presents the appearance of an opaque luminous cloud in which the extreme ends of the charcoal are undistinguishable, their usually well-marked brilliancy being lost in the mass of light, and there is a sensible evolution of whitish fumes. The spectroscopic displays an intermittent spectrum filled with large and brilliant rays, which are recog-

nizable as those described by different authors as characteristic of calcium, but their number and intensity is greater and they are better defined. This is not surprising if the difference between the luminous intensity attainable by this process and by those hitherto employed be considered. It would be doubtless possible by this method to obtain much new information respecting the spectra of metals, provided only pure products were employed.

The employment of strontia gives analogous effects under the same conditions, the light assumes a characteristic red tinge, and the spectroscopic displays the rays characteristic of strontium, thus presenting a simple means of enriching the electric light with red rays. It may be here remarked that the flame always contains a large proportion of white light, for if the metal be set free in some parts of the flame, in others it returns to the state of oxide, the incandescence of which always yields a white light.

Color-effects of Electric Discharges.—The *American Journal of Science* for May, 1868, contains the substance of a paper, read by M. Becquerel before the French Academy, on the effect of coloration presented by discharges from an inductorium taking place between the platinum wire and the surface of a liquid. The apparatus employed by the author was very simple, consisting merely of a glass tube, partially filled with a saline solution in contact with a platinum wire forming one pole of an inductorium. The other pole was formed by a platinum wire, the extremity of which was placed a few millimetres above the surface of the liquid, the discharge taking place between the liquid and the wire. In case the inductorium is of low power, coloration is not observed when the liquid is positive and the wire negative, but only when the wire is positive. But when the coil is powerful, and the salt dissolved easily vaporized, coloration is observed in either case, though the maximum is given when the wire is positive. With a sufficiently powerful coil, the luminous effects of the discharge are very brilliant. The spectrum of the light produced in this manner is more complex than that resulting from the introduction of small quantities of saline matter into a non-luminous flame. The water is vaporized and we have lines due to oxygen and hydrogen; the temperature is also higher than that of the flame of a Bunsen's burner. With very pure water the intensity of the discharge is feeble and the spectrum contains the red and blue hydrogen line corresponding to the dark rays C and F of the solar spectrum. With a strong solution of chlorohydric acid in water the tint of the discharge is slightly violet and the two red and blue rays are more distinct than with water. There are also an orange band and a few fainter rays throughout the extent of the spectrum. A very small quantity of saline substance in water is sufficient to communicate to the light of the discharge the color due to the elements of the

salt. Thus water containing one one-thousandth part of its weight of chloride of strontium gives very distinctly the orange and blue rays characteristic of strontium. With concentrated solutions the effects are more marked, and with the chlorides in particular they are very brilliant. Thus the chlorides of strontium, calcium, sodium, magnesium, copper, and zinc, give fine effects. But other substances, such as various compounds of barium, potassium, antimony, iron, manganese, silver, uranium, etc., give effects which are more or less marked. In general the lines are more numerous than in the spectra of flames containing the same saline elements, which doubtless arises from the higher temperature, but in all cases the lines are the same as those given by Bunsen and Kirchhoff. Thus with a saturated solution of chloride of strontium, besides the orange and the clear blue, we see two violet rays, one more intense than the other, several green rays, one of which is particularly distinct, and a certain number of feeble rays in different parts of the spectrum. Chloride of lithium, besides the red and the feeble orange, gives a very vivid blue ray. A concentrated solution of chloride of calcium gives a great number of rays, among which the dark-blue ray is very intense. Chloride of magnesium, besides other lines, gives two very bright-green and one clear-blue ray. Chloride of zinc gives a red ray, three brilliant blue rays, and a very intense violet line. Nitrate of silver gives, among other rays, two of a vivid green. In conclusion, the author points out the very obvious and marked advantages which this method of observation offers in certain cases over the usual method of ignition in a non-luminous flame.

The Electric Spark in a Vacuum.—MM. Alvergnyat, Frères, have invented an apparatus to demonstrate that the electric spark cannot pass through a perfect vacuum. They create a nearly absolute vacuum, by means of a mercurial pneumatic machine, in the tube that serves for the experiment. This contains two platinum wires, placed at a distance of two millimetres from each other. The tube is heated to dull redness, and, when that point is attained, the process of making the vacuum is still continued, and the electric spark passed until it ceases to be transmitted through the interior of the tube. The tube is then hermetically sealed and separated from the machine. In a tube thus prepared, notwithstanding the slight distance between the two platinum points (two millimetres), electricity absolutely ceases to pass.

Magnetism and Molecular Changes.—Experiments made by M. Trèves, a French naval officer, prove that a steel bar, magnetized by an electric current, undergoes some molecular change while magnetized. Two exactly identical steel diapasens, giving sounds precisely in unison, were selected. A small mirror was so placed in relation to each, that, when vibrations were struck upon either diapasen, a figure of the vibrations was reflected into the mirror—

the figures from the two diapasens being precisely similar, in consequence of the metals being in unison. Round one diapasen was then placed a powerful bobbin of wire, actuated at will by a current from eight Bunsen's elements. The other diapasen was left unchanged. Immediately on passing the current through the bobbin, exciting the diapasen, and rendering it magnetic, the following changes were noticed in the figure reflected from it in the mirror: The luminous circle that had previously been constant was observed to alter immediately from itself into an ellipse, and oscillate from right to left with a speed that enabled the new vibratory movement to be measured. This speed was faster or slower in proportion to the increase or diminution of the number of elements used. Whenever the current was shut off, the normal state of the diapasen returned, and the fixed luminous circle, due to its natural condition when vibrating, reappeared. M. Trèves conducted similar experiments upon diapasens of soft iron, and of steel of various sizes, arriving at the similar results. M. Faye, in a note to the French Academy, accompanying a report of the facts, says that the new experimental method of M. Trèves has made a marked step in the science of magnetism.

The Aurora Borealis as a Weather Prognostic.—Mr. Murray Gladstone, of England, has for many years studied the aurora borealis as a weather prognostic. He has observed that, when the coruscations are vivid, and particularly if they extend toward the zenith, or show much motion, they are almost invariably followed by a gale of wind with rain from S.W., within from forty-eight hours to four days. The more brilliant and lively the appearance and motion of the aurora, the earlier the gale which follows takes place, and the greater is its severity. Slighter manifestations of the northern lights are not followed by any appreciable changes of weather. In explanation of the connection between the two sets of phenomena, Mr. Gladstone suggests that when a larger body than usual of light air from the south begins to descend upon the cold stream of air coming from the north, as those opposite currents in the atmosphere come into close proximity, their negative and positive electricities produce coruscations. The rarity of the atmosphere and the great elevation probably prevent (at least for the most part) any sound or thunder being heard; and the former cause, joined with the manner in which the currents approach each other, may probably occasion the shooting, flickering movements of the aurora. The arches of boreal light frequently seen stretching from E. to W. may be produced by large masses of air charged with opposite electricities meeting each other and feeding the flames quietly and continuously, on an extended front; while the movements of light occasionally occurring throughout the length of these arches may arise from the masses of vapor coming more actively into

contact at particular points, and lighting up a coruscation which, like a running fire, passes along the whole line. When the coruscations are more than usually vivid or violent in their motion, it would indicate a larger arrival than usual of negatively electric air from S. or S.W., which, in a shorter or longer time, according to its strength, first checks, and then overpowers the N. or N.E. wind, generally blowing when the aurora is seen. The lower temperature of the atmosphere, cooled down by the recent northerly wind, condenses the moisture borne from the warm south, and precipitates it in showers.

Effects of Lightning.—General Morin has communicated to the French Academy an illustration of the heating effect of a flash of lightning, which penetrated a piece of furniture where was placed a silk purse containing gold and silver pieces. The gold pieces were not fused, but slightly soldered together, without apparent alteration. The silver coins were completely defaced and strongly soldered together. A more remarkable story was narrated to the Academy by M. Bobierre. It seems that at Nantes last July a violent storm occurred, and a man on the bridge of the Canal de Bretagne found himself, as he says, “enveloped in a brilliant light.” Looking at the contents of his pocket-book some time after, he discovered that the silver pieces had a “dull, partly-fused look; and on examining a gold piece in another part of the pocket-book, separated from the silver by a partition of leather, he observed the gold piece uniformly covered by a thin layer of silver, having the appearance (under a microscope) of a multitude of globules in contact with each other. A portion of this coating of silver having been removed by weak nitric acid, the gold below was found in the same condition as the deposited silver, exhibiting a slight appearance of fusion. M. Bobierre explained the phenomenon on the theory that the electric shock, to which the man was subjected when “enveloped in a brilliant light,” volatilized a portion of the silver, and that the metallic vapor passed through the leather, and coated the gold piece.

ELLIOTSON, JOHN, M. D., an English physician and medical professor and author, born in London in 1788; died in that city, July 29, 1868. He was educated at Jesus College, Cambridge, and pursued his medical studies at Guy's and St. Thomas's Hospital, and afterward at Edinburgh, where he took his medical degree, but subsequently became a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, London. He was appointed physician of St. Thomas's Hospital, and assisted greatly in the establishment of a separate medical school there, in which he became a lecturer on state medicine, and afterward on the principles and practice of medicine. He distinguished himself also by the reform of several administrative abuses in the hospital, as well as by the adoption of some new prescriptions, among them those of hy-

drocyanic acid in affections of the stomach, of sulphate of copper, and of creosote. These, with his discoveries in the use of the stethoscope, roused the opposition of his professional brethren and brought a great deal of ridicule upon him, without, however, affecting his reputation, which was greatly increased by a course of clinical lectures which he delivered in London about that time. In 1831 he accepted a professor's chair in the University College, and the course of lectures he delivered immediately after was published at length in *The Lancet* and *The Medical Gazette*. In 1837 he turned his attention to the subject of animal magnetism, and, having made a variety of experiments which satisfied him of its remedial efficacy, he applied this mysterious agent to the treatment of certain affections which were up to that time considered incurable. His experiments excited public curiosity to the highest pitch; but his new doctrine as to the curative powers of magnetism, while it made many converts, raised up a host of adversaries against him, and he was ultimately compelled to resign the professor's chair which he held. He was subsequently instrumental in establishing a hospital for the treatment of patients on mesmeric principles, became the founder of the Phrenological Society, of which he was elected president, and started, under the title of *The Zoist*, a journal devoted to mesmerism and phrenology. Dr. Elliottson's best titles to fame are a remarkable work on sulphate of quinine; his employment of creosote in excessive irritability of the stomach; his essay “on the Advantages of Sulphate of Copper in Dysentery;” his discovery of the admirable curative properties and diuretic qualities of potash; his “Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Medicine;” his translation of Blumenbach's *Institutiones Physiologicae*, which passed through many editions, and to which he had added more matter in the way of notes than the original work contained; and his experiments in the use of the stethoscope. Among his later works is one on “Surgical Cases in Mesmerism,” etc.

ELLIOTT, CHARLES LORING, one of the most distinguished of American portrait-painters, born in Scipio, N. Y., in December, 1812; died in Albany, N. Y., August 25, 1868. His boyhood was passed in Syracuse, where his father was a builder. His father at first obtained a situation for him in a store, but, finding that he had no taste for mercantile pursuits, he determined to make an architect of him; but the boy's instincts for painting were too strong to be resisted. His friend F. S. Cozzens says that “while a mere boy he narrowly escaped suffocation from locking himself up into his bedroom, in order to paint ‘The Burning of Moscow,’ during the winter, with no companion but a portable furnace of burning charcoal to keep himself warm. In after-days, at the early age of fourteen, he made a copy of the portrait of a clergyman, which he painted with

three colors only—black, white, and rose pink. This portrait is in the possession of his family, and shows that even at an early age the artist had acquired a delicate sense of art in the arrangement of the drapery, the tenderness of the expression of the mouth, the modelling, and the freedom of touch in the painting of the hair, some of which characteristics are apparent in his latest pictures." Finding that his passion for art was so strong, his father wisely allowed him to pursue the necessary studies to become a painter. Having learned what he could of his art, and become a very fair portrait-painter in Syracuse, he came to New York in 1833, or the beginning of 1834, and became a pupil of Trumbull, and subsequently of Quidor, a fancy painter of some note. While here, he painted portraits of Captain and Mrs. Cornelius Vanderbilt, for which he received the modest sum of fifty dollars each. He also painted in oils some scenes from Irving's and Paulding's works, which were thought very creditable for so young an artist. After a residence of little more than a year in New York City, he returned to Western New York and practised his profession, confining himself particularly to portrait-painting, for about ten years. He returned to New York City in 1845, and in 1846 became a member of the National Academy of Design. From that time he had been a resident of New York or its immediate neighborhood, though occasionally absent for several months at Albany or Washington. He had painted a large number of portraits, and all were remarkable for the fidelity of their likeness, the vigor and perfection of their coloring, and for presenting the sitter in his most characteristic and effective expression. In private life he was one of the most genial and social of men.

ELLSWORTH, WILLIAM WOLCOTT, LL. D., an eminent Connecticut jurist, born in Windsor, Conn., November 10, 1791; died at Hartford, Conn., January 15, 1868. He was the third son of Oliver Ellsworth, second Chief Justice of the United States, and a twin brother of the late Henry L. Ellsworth, long Commissioner of Patents at Washington, D. C. He graduated from Yale College in the class of 1810, and at once commenced his legal studies under Judges Reeve and Gould in the Law School at Litchfield, and afterward continued them in Hartford, in the office of his brother-in-law, the late Chief-Justice Williams. He was admitted to the bar in 1813, and was engaged in the successful practice of his profession until 1829, when he was elected to Congress and twice reelected at the expiration of his term. He resigned, however, at the close of the first session of the Twenty-third Congress, to return to his profession. He was a member of the Judiciary Committee during the whole of this period, and a member of the committee appointed to investigate the affairs of the United States Bank at Philadelphia. In 1838 he was chosen Governor of the State, and

reelected the three following years. He twice declined, during the period of his service as Governor, an election to the United States Senate—from an unwillingness to be further drawn away from his cherished profession. In 1847 he was elected by the Legislature a judge of the Superior Court, and of the Supreme Court of Errors, and remained on the bench as one of the associate judges of the Supreme Court, until he reached the age of seventy, when his term expired by limitation of law. He then retired to private life, carrying with him, however, the unabated interest in public affairs, and in religious and charitable enterprises, which made his life so honored and useful to the last. Since 1827 he had held the appointment of Professor of Law in Trinity College. He received the degree of LL. D. from the University of New York in 1838.

ENGLE, Rear-Admiral FREDERICK, U. S. N., a distinguished officer of the Navy, born in Delaware County, Pa., in 1799; died in Philadelphia, February 12, 1868. He entered the service November 30, 1814, and had consequently been a naval officer for more than fifty-three years, of which almost twenty had been passed afloat. At the beginning of the Mexican War he had risen to the rank of captain, and commanded the Princeton, winning distinction by his services in the blockading squadron. When treason threatened the capture of the United States Navy, Captain Engle, as an officer worthy of confidence, was sent to China to assume command of the Hartford, and brought that powerful ship home to aid in overcoming the South. His advanced age disabled him; he was therefore assigned to the command of the Navy-Yard at Philadelphia, and subsequently became Governor of the Naval Asylum in that city. He was promoted to be rear admiral on the retired list, July 25, 1866. Finally, after a long life of honorable service to his country, he resigned his office, and remained thenceforward waiting orders, until his death.

EUROPE. The aspect of Europe during the year 1868 was, on the whole, of a pacific character. The great powers seemed desirous to preserve peace, and none of the important international questions—the German, the Roman, and the Eastern—brought on a war.

There was, however, one serious breach of the universal peace—the revolution in Spain. Being unconnected with any of the great international complications which have agitated Europe for years, its effects did not extend beyond the change of the form of government in Spain. It occupies a remarkable place in the history of European revolutions for the rapidity with which it spread, and the universal support it met with. Within a few weeks after the raising of the first insurrectionary cry, in September, it overthrew the throne of Queen Isabella. For the remainder of the year Spain was administered by a Provisional Government, which represented three parties,

the "Liberal Union," the "Progresistas," and the "Democrats." The determination of the future government of Spain was referred to the Constituent Cortes, to be elected by universal suffrage, in January, 1869. Hardly any opposition was made to the Provisional Government by the few partisans of the ex-Queen, or the Absolutists (partisans of the family of Don Carlos); but serious dissensions arose in the last weeks of the year between the Republican party and the Provisional Government. The latter, instead of awaiting the decision of the Constituent Cortes on the form of government, used their whole influence in behalf of the re-establishment of a monarchy. This led to bloody conflicts in Cadiz and Malaga, and threatened more disturbances during the coming year. The strength of the Republican party was a surprise to the entire world, and even appeared to be greater than in any other monarchical country of Europe. (*See SPAIN.*)

Soon after the beginning of the Spanish revolution, insurrectionary movements broke out in Cuba. Being at first somewhat undefined, and directed partly against the reestablishment of a monarchical government in the Spanish dominions, and partly for severing the connection of Cuba with Spain, they soon became entirely a war of independence. The great majority of the population in Cuba showed itself in sympathy with the insurrection, and at the close of the year still held out against the Spanish forces. (*See SPAIN.*)

England, at the beginning of the year, found herself at war with Abyssinia. The landing of the troops had begun in October, 1867, but a real advance did not take place until January, 1868. Hardly any resistance was offered by King Theodore until the arrival of the English, in April, 1868, before his stronghold, Magdala, where he made a desperate fight, and, after the capture of the fort, fell by his own hand. The English troops at once evacuated the country. (*See ABYSSINIA.*)

Russia is steadily advancing in Central Asia, and, during the past year, conquered the whole country of the Emir of Bokhara. The Russian Government disclaims any intention of annexing, for the present, additional territory; but, at all events, she is steadily increasing her power and influence in Asia. Russian writers claim that Russia is, and England and France are not, Asiatic powers, and that the time will come when European powers like England and France will receive notice to quit Asia. (*See RUSSIA.*)

The insurgents in Candia continued throughout the year to defy the authority of the Turkish Government, being encouraged by the frequent arrival of men and ammunition from Greece, and by the sympathy of Russia and the United States. In December, the Turkish Government presented to that of Greece an ultimatum, demanding a pledge that no further aid should be given to Candia. The ultimatum was rejected by the Greek Government, the

Turkish ambassador left Athens, and the Greek ambassador Constantinople, and the relations between the two countries became so unfriendly that, for some days, a war was regarded as inevitable. But the great powers of Europe promptly interfered, and agreed upon a European Conference, to be held in Paris in January. (*See CANDIA, GREECE, TURKEY.*)

No agitation at all was caused during the year by the question of the annexation of Rome to Italy, or by the efforts made in Germany for the consummation of German unity. The Roman question again formed the subject of a diplomatic correspondence between the Governments of Italy and France; but the Italian party of action took no steps toward another expedition against the temporal power, and the Italian Government put off to the future all its hopes for consummating the unity of the kingdom. Prussia expressly vindicated her right to comply with the application of any of the South-German States for admission into the North-German Confederation; and the Government and people of Baden expressed a great desire to enter the Confederation at once, but practically no step was taken in advance, and, this being so, France appeared very anxious to avoid any quarrel with Prussia. (*See FRANCE, GERMANY, ITALY.*)

The party of progress in Europe, which aims at narrowing the prerogatives of royalty and of aristocracy, and of reconstructing the states on the principles of popular sovereignty and universal suffrage, gained several important victories during the past year. In *Spain* the Provisional Government ordered the municipal elections and the election for the Constituent Cortes to take place, on the basis of universal suffrage; and as three of the political parties—the Republicans, the monarchical Democrats, and the Progressists—are in favor of universal suffrage, it was expected that, whatever form of government may be decided upon by the Constituent Cortes, universal suffrage will be engrafted upon the new Spanish Constitution. Next in importance was the great victory of the Liberal party in *England*. They had, in 1867, compelled the Tories to consent to a considerable enlargement of the law of suffrage. This year the majority of the House of Commons, under the leadership of Mr. Gladstone, passed resolutions in favor of disestablishing the State Church of Ireland, and when thereupon Parliament was dissolved and an appeal made to the people, the new election largely increased the Liberal majority in the House of Commons, and led to the formation of a Liberal Cabinet, under the leadership of Mr. Gladstone. The Liberal ministry in Austria, which was appointed in December, 1867, maintained itself, notwithstanding all the violent attacks upon it on the part of the priesthood. The Concordat of 1855 was abolished, and the principles of religious and civil liberty struck deep root throughout the land.

In *France* the Liberal party remained de-



WM. E. GLADSTONE.

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prived of many rights which they enjoy in nearly every country of Europe; still, the rigorous laws against the press, and the right of holding meetings, were relaxed, and the number of Liberal papers therefore largely increased. *Russia* issued new edicts for the extirpation of the Polish language and nationality, but made considerable progress in point of education, in the extension of her railroad system, and other points of home administration. *Turkey* feels herself compelled to make every year some concession to the liberal tendencies in the Christian provinces. The most important reform introduced last year was the organization of a Council of State, to consist of fifty members, both Mohammedans and Christians.

The overthrow of the throne of Queen Isabella of Spain adds another to the many vicissitudes which have befallen monarchy in Europe since the beginning of the present century. Absolute monarchy is nearly gone, and an irresistible current drives the peoples onward, toward securing greater liberties, and more and more threatens the very existence of all monarchies. In view of the unceasing conflict which may bring important changes in the course of the year 1869, the following brief retrospect (from the *Paris Siècle*) of the fate of European monarchy will be found useful for reference, whenever a new change may take place:

The great conqueror of the century, he who transmuted the French Republic into a sort of universal monarchy, Napoleon I., was thrown down definitively in 1815. His brothers, the Kings Jerome and Joseph, had already succumbed. Murat, King of Naples, disappeared soon after. Immediately upon being restored, the Bourbon monarchy in Spain began to totter. It lost all its American colonies, which became republics, and Ferdinand VII. was kept on the throne only by the French expedition in 1823. In the following year took place the fall of Iturbide, Emperor of Mexico. The Sultan of Turkey was shortly afterward deprived of Greece, which was proclaimed an independent monarchy on the 3d of February, 1830. In the same year fell the Dey of Algiers, and also Charles X., led on by M. de Polignac, and the Ultra Legitimist and clerical faction. The King of Holland lost Belgium, that is to say, one-half of his states, on the 25th of August, and the deposition of the house of Orange-Nassau was proclaimed at Brussels. The Duke Charles of Brunswick was, on the 7th September, 1830, driven from his dominions by an insurrection. The Czar, at the same epoch, lost Poland for a time. In 1833, the too famous Dom Miguel, King of Portugal, was compelled to cede the crown to Dona Maria, daughter of Dom Pedro, who retained the sovereignty of Brazil. Louis Philippe was sacrificed to the faults and obstinacy of M. Guizot. On the 1st December, 1843, the Emperor Ferdinand of Austria had to abdicate, in order to avoid being expelled. At that epoch Pius IX. was brought back to and has since been supported at Rome only by the French arms. Austria, for a short time, lost possession of Hungary. The King of Prussia, Frederick William IV., threatened all along from 1843, was forced on the 6th of February, 1850, to take an oath to preserve the Prussian charter. In 1855, Nicholas I. died of vexation and wounded self-love, because he was stopped on the road to Constantinople. In 1859, the Duke of Modena, the Duchess of Parma, and the Grand-duke of Tuscany were struck out from the list of reigning princes. Soulouque, the Emperor of Hayti,

was hurled from his throne on the 15th January, 1859. In the following year, Francis II., King of Naples, saw Garibaldi enter his capital on the 7th September, and again another deposition was announced. Otho, King of the Hellenes, was driven from his throne by an insurrection in 1862. Three years later, Prince Couza lost the quasi-sovereignty of Roumania. In 1866, the Emperor of Austria definitively gave up Venetia; the surrender of which may, perhaps, have saved his empire. In the same year Prussia overthrew the thrones of Hanover, Nassau, and Electoral Hesse; and Maximilian fell in Mexico. During all this lapse of time no constitutional monarchy has been disturbed—no revolution has taken place in England or in Sweden, where the young dynasty continues; in Belgium the royal house has survived the storms of 1848; so in Portugal.

At the close of the year 1868, according to the official censuses or calculations published up to that time, the area and population of the countries of Europe were as follows:

STATES.	Sq. miles.	Inhabitants.
Andorra	149	12,000
Anhalt	1,026	197,041
Austria	240,381	35,553,000
Baden	5,912	1,434,970
Bavaria	29,373	4,824,421
Belgium	11,373	4,984,451
Bremen	74	109,572
Brunswick	1,425	303,401
Denmark	14,734	1,608,095
Farøe and Iceland	40,253	75,909
France	209,428	38,192,094
Great Britain	121,115	29,321,238
Heligoland, Gibraltar, and Malta	145	163,693
Greece	18,347	1,096,810
Ionian Islands	1,006	251,712
Hamburg	156	305,196
Hesse-Darmstadt	2,970	823,138
Italy	109,337	24,368,787
Lippe-Detmold	438	111,352
Lippe-Schaumburg	171	31,186
Lichtenstein	62	7,994
Lubeck	107	48,538
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	5,190	560,618
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	1,052	98,770
Monaco	6	1,877
Netherlands	12,680	3,552,665
Luxemburg	991	199,958
Oldenburg	2,469	315,622
Portugal	36,494	3,987,861
Azores and Madeira	1,483	363,658
Prussia	135,806	24,043,296
Reuss-Elder line	145	43,899
Reuss-Younger line	320	88,097
Russia	2,050,293	67,260,431
San Marino	22	5,779
Saxony	5,779	2,423,401
Saxe-Altenburg	510	141,426
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	760	168,735
Saxe-Meiningen	956	180,335
Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach	1,404	283,044
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	374	75,074
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	332	67,500
Spain	195,607	16,302,625
States of the Church	4,552	723,121
Sweden	170,634	4,070,061
Norway	120,295	1,701,478
Switzerland	15,722	2,510,494
Turkey	131,295	13,544,000
Roumania	46,710	3,864,848
Servia	21,218	1,078,281
Montenegro	1,709	196,233
Waldeck	433	56,805
Wurtemberg	7,532	1,778,479

The total area of Europe is about 3,786,000 square miles, and the total population about 293,500,000. The number of the population connected with the Roman Catholic Church is 142,117,000; of the Protestant population, 68,028,000; of the population of the Eastern Churches, 69,782,000.*

The progress of statistical science in all countries of Europe supplies us with valuable comparative statistics, showing the relative position of the several countries in point of progress, prosperity, and morality. Special attention is devoted to the statistics illustrating the movement of population. From recent publications on this subject, we learn that in France the marriages, which had declined from 305,203 in 1861 to 293,838 in 1865, rose in 1866 to 301,390; but the births, which numbered 994,288 in 1866, were 12,465 less than the number in 1865. To 100,000 of the population in France in 1866, there were 1,584 persons married, while the proportional number in England was 1,770; and to 100,000 of population in either country, the number of births was 2,612 in France, and 3,554 in England. Taking the interval between the mean age of the mothers at marriage and their mean age at the birth of their children at six years, then the number of legitimate births to a marriage in

1866 was 3.1 in France, and 4.2 in England. The death-rate in France in 1866 was 23.26 per 1,000 of population; that of England being 23.61. The population of the kingdom of Italy in 1866, exclusive of Venetia, was 22,703,135; the death and birth rates respectively were 28.96 and 38.62 per 1,000 of population. Spain, with an estimated population in 1866 of 16,516,949, returned a death-rate of 28.05 per 1,000, and a birth-rate of 37.03 per 1,000. The results for the Austrian empire, exclusive of the states of Italy, show a population in 1866 of 37,929,918; the respective death and birth rates were 32.32 and 40.34 per 1,000 persons living; the marriage-rate was low, 14.58 persons married to 1,000 of population; but it will be remembered that 1866 was the year when disaster befell the arms of that empire. Thus, the returns of Austria show a birth-rate much higher than the English rate, and conspicuously higher than the French rate. The birth-rates of Italy and Spain are both higher than the English rate, and show a superiority only too striking over that of France. The death-rate of Austria is considerably higher than the rates of England and France, and the death-rates of Spain, as well as of the Italian kingdom, contrast unfavorably with those of England and France.

F

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES. No change was made in the general system of finance of the Federal Government during 1868. The results were in some respects more favorable to the Treasury; but the greatest improvement was made in the circumstances of the people by the progress of recovery from the destructive effects of war.

A statement of the receipts and expenditures of the Government for the first quarter of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, and an estimate of the same for the remaining three-quarters of the year were made by the Secretary of the Treasury in his annual report of December, 1867. The actual receipts of the first quarter of the fiscal year above-mentioned were as follows:

Receipts from customs	\$48,081,907 61
“ Lands	287,460 07
“ Direct tax	647,070 83
“ Internal revenue	53,784,027 49
“ Miscellaneous sources	18,361,462 62
Expenditures for civil service	\$13,152,348 08
“ Pensions and Indians	10,484,476 11
“ War Department	30,537,056 35
“ Navy Department	5,579,704 67
“ Int. on public debt	28,515,640 47
Loans paid	\$200,176,368 34
Receipts from Loans	135,103,282 00
Reduction of Loans	\$65,073,086 34

* Tables of the Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Eastern Churches in every country of Europe, corrected up to January, 1869, are given in Schen's *American Ecclesiastical and Educational Almanac*. (New York, 1869.)

The estimated receipts and expenditures for the remaining three-quarters of the same year were as follows:

ESTIMATED.	
Receipts from Customs	\$115,300,000 00
“ Lands	700,000 00
“ Internal revenue	155,000,000 00
“ Miscellaneous sources	25,000,000 00
	\$296,000,000 00

The expenditures for the same period, according to his estimates, will be—

For the civil service	\$37,000,000 00
For pensions and Indians	22,000,000 00
For the War Department, including \$24,-	
500,000 for bounties	100,000,000 00
For the Navy Department	22,000,000 00
For the interest on the public debt	114,000,000 00
	\$295,000,000 00

Leaving a surplus of estimated receipts over estimated expenditures of \$1,000,000.

The actual receipts and expenses, however, of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, exceeded the estimates by \$69,971,427, and were as follows:

Receipts from customs	\$164,464,599
Receipts from lands	1,348,715
Receipts from direct tax	1,788,145
Receipts from internal revenue	191,087,589
Receipts from miscellaneous sources (of which amount there was received, for premium on bonds sold to redeem Treasury notes, the sum of \$7,078,203) ...	46,949,023

Total receipts, exclusive of loans

Expenditures for the civil service (of which amount there was paid, for premium on purchase of Treasury notes prior to ma- turity, \$7,001,151).....	\$60,011,018
Expenditures for pensions and Indians.....	27,889,009
Expenditures by War Department	123,246,648
Expenditures by Navy Depart- ment.....	25,775,502
Expenditures for interest on the public debt.....	140,424,045
Total expenditures, exclusive of principal of public debt.....	\$377,340,284

For the fiscal year commencing on July 1, 1868, and ending on June 30, 1869, the receipts and expenditures of the first quarter, ending September 30, 1868, were as follows:

The receipts from customs.....	\$49,676,594
The receipts from lands.....	714,895
The receipts from direct tax.....	15,536
The receipts from internal revenue	38,735,863
The receipts from miscellaneous sources (of which amount there was received, from premium on bonds sold to redeem Treasury notes, the sum of \$387,723).....	6,249,979

Total receipts, exclusive of loans.....	\$95,392,868
Expenditures for the civil service (of which amount there was paid, as premium on purchase of Treas- ury notes prior to maturity, \$330,000).....	\$21,227,106
Expenditures for pensions and In- dians.....	12,358,647
Expenditures for War Department	27,219,117
Expenditures for Navy Depart- ment.....	5,604,785
Expenditures for interest on pub- lic debt.....	38,742,814
Total expenditures, exclusive of principal of public debt.....	\$105,152,470

Estimates were made by the Secretary of the Treasury of the receipts and expenditures of the remaining three-quarters of the same year—ending June 30, 1869—which were as follows:

From customs.....	\$125,000,000 00
From lands.....	1,000,000 00
From internal revenue.....	100,000,000 00
From miscellaneous sources.....	20,000,000 00
Receipts.....	\$246,000,000 00

And that the expenditures for the same period, if there be no reduction of the army, will be—

For the civil service.....	\$40,000,000 00
For pensions and Indians.....	18,000,000 00
For War Department, including \$6,000,000 bounties.....	66,000,000 00
For Navy Department.....	16,000,000 00
For interest on public debt.....	91,000,000 00

Expenditures..... \$231,000,000 00

Thus making an estimated surplus, under the present laws, of \$15,000,000.

The increase of the public debt during the year ending October 31, 1869, was \$35,625,202. The expenditures which caused this increase were of an extraordinary nature, and consisted in part of \$24,152,000 advanced to the Pacific Railroad, and \$7,200,000 paid for the purchase of Alaska. Some other extraordinary advances were made, which increased the expenditures: thus, \$44,060,515 were paid for bounties, and not less than \$4,000,000 for interest on compound and seven and three-tenths

notes which had accrued prior to November 1, 1867. Excepting these unusual expenditures, consisting of donations of public money in the form of bounties and additional subsidies to railroad companies, the receipts would have exceeded the expenditures \$43,787,412.

During the period the amount of debt bearing coin interest has increased \$712,393,459. The change in the nature of the debt is shown by the following details:

The public debt on the 1st day of November, 1867, amounted to \$2,491,504,450, and consisted of the following items:

Debt bearing coin interest.....	\$1,773,110,991
Debt bearing currency interest.....	426,768,640
Matured debt not presented for payment.....	13,237,588
Debt bearing no interest.....	402,386,677
Total.....	\$2,625,502,848
Cash in the Treasury.....	133,996,398

Amount of debt, less cash in the Treasury. \$2,491,504,450

On the first day of November, 1868, it amounted to \$2,527,129,552, and consisted of the following items:

Debt bearing coin interest.....	\$2,107,577,950
Debt bearing currency interest.....	114,519,000
Matured debt not presented for payment.....	9,753,723
Debt bearing no interest.....	409,151,898
Total.....	\$2,641,002,572
Cash in the Treasury.....	113,873,019

Amount of debt, less cash in the Treasury. \$2,527,129,552

Other causes existed to produce a disproportionate relation between the receipts and expenditures as compared with former years. A large reduction of the internal taxes was made at the session of Congress beginning December, 1867, especially on manufactures. On the other hand, large expenditures were necessary to sustain the military operations on the frontier and the forces stationed in the Southern States. These considerations give a very favorable aspect to the public debt. The following table (see next page) gives a statement of the indebtedness of the United States on June 30, 1868.

Since the close of the war in 1865—a period of three years and seven months—the receipts of the Government from all sources have reached the sum of \$1,662,496,062. Of this large sum there were \$630,431,125 paid on debts which were actually due at the close of the war, and for bounties, which, like the pay of the army, were a part of the expenses of the war. If this amount is added to the debt as exhibited by the books of the Treasury on April 1, 1865, it appears that the debt of the Government was at that time \$2,997,386,203, and that the actual reduction has been \$470,256,650.

A further comparison of the facts presented at different periods will serve to demonstrate the tendency of the financial affairs of the Government, and to illustrate the important results which have been achieved. At the close of the war in April, 1865, the cash in the Treasury was \$56,481,924, while there were requisitions waiting for payment to the amount of \$114,256,548. In addition, there

STATEMENT OF THE INDEBTEDNESS OF THE UNITED STATES, JUNE 30, 1868.

TITLE.	Length of loan.	When redeemable.	Rate of interest.	Price of emission.	Amount authorized.	Amount issued.	Amount outstanding.
Loan of 1842.....	20 years....	After December 31, 1862.	6 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	\$17,000,000	\$8,000,000	\$6,000 00
Loan of 1847.....	20 years....	After December 31, 1867.	6 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	23,000,000	28,207,000	742,250 00
Loan of 1848.....	20 years....	After July 1, 1868.	6 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	16,000,000	16,000,000	6,151,191 80
Texas indemnity....	15 years....	After December 31, 1864.	5 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	10,000,000	5,000,000	256,000 00
Old funded debt....	Demand....	On demand	5 and 6 p. ct.	Par	113,915 48
Treasury notes....	Demand....	On demand	1 mill to 6 per cent.	Par	104,511 64
Treasury notes....	1 year.....	1 year after date ..	5 to 5½ p. ct.	Par ..	20,000,000	2,600 00
Loan of 1858.....	15 years....	December 31, 1873.	5 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	20,000,000	20,000,000	20,000,000 00
Loan of 1860.....	10 years....	After December 31, 1870.	5 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	21,000,000	7,022,000	7,022,000 00
Treasury notes....	1 year.....	1 year after date ..	6 and 12 p. c. per an.	Par ..	10,000,000	10,000,000	500 00
Loan of Feb. 8, 1861.	10 or 20 yrs.	After June 1, 1871.	6 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	25,000,000	18,415,000	18,415,000 00
Treasury notes....	2 years....	2 years after date ..	6 per cent.	Par ..	22,468,100	22,468,100	3,550 00
Oregon war.....	60 days....	60 days after date ..	per an.	Par ..	12,896,350	12,896,350
.....	20 years....	After July 1, 1881.	6 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	2,800,000	1,090,850	945,050 00
20-year sixes.....	30 years....	After June 30, 1881.	6 per ct. per annum.	50,000,000	50,000,000 00
7-30 notes (two issues).....	3 years....	After Aug. 13, 1864.	7-30 p. ct. per an.	139,999,750	139,317,150 00
Demand notes.....	Payable on demand.	After Sept. 30, 1864.	per an.	60,000,000	141,723 00
20-year sixes.....	20 years....	After June 30, 1881.	6 per ct. per annum.	Par ..	Exchangeable for 7-30 treasury notes.	43,950 00
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 yrs..	After April 30, 1867.	6 per cent..	Par ..	515,000,000	514,780,500	514,780,500 00
United States notes, new issue.	None.	Par ..	450,000,000	356,000,000 00
Temporary loan....	Not less than 30 days	After 10 days' notice.	4, 5, and 6 per cent.	Par ..	150,000,000	13,797,029 00
Loan of 1863.....	After June 30, 1881.	6 per cent..	Pre'm 4.13 p. ct.	75,000,000	75,000,000	75,000,060 00
Treasury notes....	2 years....	2 years after date ..	5 per cent..	Par	211,000,000	555,492 00
.....	1 year.....	1 year after date ..	5 per cent..	Par ..	400,000,000
Gold certificates....	On demand	Par ..	Not specified.	17,678,640 00
Ten-forties.....	10 or 40 yrs.	After February 28, 1874.	5 per cent..	Par ..	200,000,000	172,770,100	194,566,400 00
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 yrs..	After October 31, 1869.	6 per cent..	Par	3,882,500 00
Certificates of indebtedness.	1 year.....	1 year after date....	6 per cent..	Par ..	Not specified.	18,000 00
Postal currency....	Par ..	Not specified.	4,881,091 27
Fractional currency	Par ..	600,000,000	27,748,860 48
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 yrs..	After October 31, 1869.	6 per cent..	Par	125,561,300 00
Treasury notes....	3 years....	3 years after date ..	6 p. ct. com. interest.	Par	17,250,000
Treasury notes....	3 years....	3 years after date ..	6 p. ct. com. interest.	Sub'tnte red'd 5 p. c. notes.	177,045,770	28,161,810 00
Treasury notes....	3 years....	3 years after date ..	6 p. ct. com. interest.	22,728,390
7-30 treasury notes.	3 years....	3 years after August 15, 1864.	7.30 per ct..	Par ..	400,000 000	234,400,000
7-30 treasury notes, three issues....	3 years....	After Aug. 14, 1867.	7-30 p. c.	Par ..	600,000,000	87,717,650 00
.....	After June 14, 1868.
.....	After July 14, 1868.
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 yrs..	After October 31, 1870.	6 per cent..	Par	197,794,250 00
Five-twenties....	5 or 25 yrs..	After June 30, 1870.	6 per cent..	Par	332,928,950 00
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 yrs..	After June 30, 1872.	6 per cent..	Par	365,348,150 00
Five-twenties.....	5 or 20 yrs..	After June 30, 1873.	6 per cent..	Par	17,648,960 00
Union Pacific R. R. Co. bonds.	30 years....	After January 15, 1895.	6 per cent..	Par	29,089,000 00
Three per cent. certificates.	On demand	3 per cent..	Par ..	75,000,000	50,000,000	50,000,000 00
							\$2,636,320,964 67

were \$52,452,328 of temporary loan certificates liable to be presented in from ten to thirty days, and \$171,790,000 certificates of indebted-

ness issued to contractors, and maturing daily. At this time the expenses of the army were \$2,000,000 daily, and the vouchers issued

by the Government to contractors for the necessary supplies of the army and navy were sold at a discount of from ten to twenty per cent. Under these circumstances the Treasury was relieved by a loan of nearly \$700,000,000 in seven and three-tenths notes. This relief, however, left the Government with \$1,296,834,123 of the public debt, consisting of various forms of temporary securities, \$433,160,569 of United States notes, and \$26,344,742 of fractional currency. Of this temporary debt, portions were maturing daily, and all of it, including \$18,415,000 of the funded debt, was to be provided for within a period of three years. The seven-thirty notes were, by law, and the terms of the loan, convertible at maturity, at the will of the holder, into five-twenty bonds, or payable, like the rest of these temporary obligations, in lawful money. Certificates of indebtedness were also maturing at the rate of from \$15,000,000 to \$20,000,000 per month; and in addition to the five per cent. notes which matured in January following, and the compound interest notes which were payable at various times within a period of three years, there were \$830,000,000 of seven-thirty notes, which would become due as follows:

August 15, 1867.....	\$300,000,000
June 15, 1868.....	300,000,000
July 15, 1868.....	230,000,000

The course pursued by the Department in this position of the debt is thus stated by the Secretary:

The policy of the Secretary was simply, first, to put and keep the Treasury in such condition as not only to be prepared to pay all claims upon presentation, but also to be strong enough to prevent the success of any combinations that might be formed to control its management; and second, to take up quietly, in advance of their maturity, by payment or conversion, such portions of the temporary debt as would obviate the necessity of accumulating large currency balances in the Treasury and at the same time relieve it from the danger of being forced to a further issue of legal-tender notes, or to a sale of bonds, at whatever price they might command. In carrying out this policy it seemed also to be the duty of the Secretary to have due regard to the interests of the people, and to prevent, as far as possible, the work of funding from disturbing legitimate business. As financial trouble has almost invariably followed closely upon the termination of protracted wars, it was generally feared, as has already been remarked, that such trouble would be unavoidable at the close of the great and expensive war in which the United States had been for four years engaged. This, of course, it was important to avoid, as its occurrence might not only render funding difficult, but might prostrate those great interests upon which the Government depended for its revenues. It was and constantly has been, therefore, the aim of the Secretary so to administer the Treasury, while borrowing money and funding the temporary obligations, as to prevent a commercial crisis, and to keep the business of the country as steady as was possible on the basis of an irredeemable and constantly fluctuating currency. Whether his efforts have contributed to this end or not he does not undertake to say, but the fact is unquestioned that a great war has been closed, large loans have been effected, heavy revenues have

been collected and some thirteen hundred millions of dollars of temporary obligations have been paid or funded, and a great debt brought into manageable shape, not only without a financial crisis, but without any disturbance to the ordinary business of the country. To accomplish these things successfully, the Secretary deemed it necessary, as has been before stated, that the Treasury should be kept constantly in a strong condition, with power to prevent the credit of the Government and the great interests of the people from being placed at the mercy of adverse influences. Notwithstanding the magnitude and character of the debt, this power the Treasury has for the last three years possessed; and it has been the well-known existence, rather than the exercise of it, which has in repeated instances saved the country from panic and disaster. The gold reserve, the maintenance of which has subjected the Secretary to constant and bitter criticism, has given a confidence to the holders of our securities, at home and abroad, by the constant evidence which it exhibited of the ability of the Government, without depending upon purchases in the market, to pay the interest upon the public debt, and a steadiness to trade, by preventing violent fluctuations in the convertible value of the currency, which have been a more than ample compensation to the country for any loss of interest that may have been sustained thereby. If the gold in the Treasury had been sold down to what was absolutely needed for the payment of the interest on the public debt, not only would the public credit have been endangered, but the currency; and, consequently, the entire business of the country would have been constantly subject to the dangerous power of speculative combinations.

One or two questions of importance in connection with the national debt were presented during the year, and attracted much attention. The first related to the currency in which the five-twenty bonds should be paid, whether in gold or in Government's notes (greenbacks). Those who advocated the payment of them in Government notes, urged that the five-twenty bonds were issued intentionally without any provision in the acts requiring payment in gold, except as to the interest, and with a reserved purpose that the Government should be free to avail itself of the privilege of redeeming them pending the suspension of specie payments; and that with this view, the bonds were made payable, at the option of the Government, on the expiration of five years from the date of issue, in whatever might then be the legal-tender money of the country. This option, it was argued, was provided against by the probable contingency that, after the conclusion of peace, the Government might have an opportunity of taking up its obligations in the same depreciated paper for which it issued them, and of renegotiating its loans under the circumstances of the improved credit resulting from the restoration of the national authority.

To counteract these views, the subject of specie payments was brought forward and extensively discussed both in Congress and by the public press. No decisive action was taken on either proposition during the year. The following are the acts of Congress authorizing the issue of five-twenty bonds and also all the acts of Congress authorizing the issue of bonds or notes:

Act Authorizing the 6's of 1881.

July 17, 1861—An act to authorize a national loan, and for other purposes.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, etc.,* That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized to borrow, on the credit of the United States, within twelve months from the passage of this act, a sum not exceeding \$250,000,000, or so much thereof as he may deem necessary for the public service, for which he is authorized to issue coupon bonds, or registered bonds, or Treasury notes, in such proportions of each as he may deem advisable; the bonds to bear interest not exceeding seven per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually, irredeemable for twenty years, and after that period redeemable at the pleasure of the United States; and the Treasury notes to be of any denomination fixed by the Secretary of the Treasury, not less than \$50, and to be payable three years after date, with interest at the rate of seven and three-tenths per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually.

Act Authorizing the 5.20's.

February 25, 1862—An act to authorize the issue of United States notes, and for the redemption or funding thereof, and for funding the floating debt of the United States.

* * * * *

SEC. 2. That to enable the Secretary of the Treasury to fund the Treasury notes and floating debt of the United States, he is hereby authorized to issue, on the credit of the United States, coupon bonds, or registered bonds, to an amount not exceeding \$500,000,000, redeemable at the pleasure of the United States after five years, and payable twenty years from date, and bearing interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually. And the bonds herein authorized shall be of such denominations, not less than \$50, as may be determined upon by the Secretary of the Treasury. And the Secretary of the Treasury may dispose of such bonds at any time, at the market value thereof, for the coin of the United States, or for any of the Treasury notes that have been, or may hereafter be, issued under any former act of Congress, or for United States notes that may be issued under the provisions of this act; and all stocks, bonds, and other securities of the United States held by individuals, corporations, or associations, within the United States, shall be exempt from taxation by or under State authority.

Act creating a Sinking-Fund, etc.

SEC. 5. That all duties on imported goods shall be paid in coin, or in notes payable on demand, heretofore authorized to be issued, and by law receivable in payment of public dues, and the coin so paid shall be set apart as a special fund, and shall be applied as follows:

First. To the payment in coin of the interest on the bonds and notes of the United States.

Second. To the purchase or payment of one per centum of the entire debt of the United States, to be made within each fiscal year after the 1st day of July, 1862, which is to be set apart as a sinking fund, and the interest of which shall in like manner be applied to the purchase or payment of the public debt, as the Secretary of the Treasury shall from time to time direct.

Third. The residue thereof to be paid into the Treasury of the United States.

Act Authorizing the 10.40's.

March 3, 1864—An act supplementary to an act entitled "An act to provide ways and means for the support of the Government," approved March 3, 1863.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, etc.,* That in lieu of so much of the loan authorized by the act of March 3, 1863, to which this is supplementary, the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to borrow, from time to time, on the credit of the United States, not exceeding

\$200,000,000, during the current fiscal year, and to prepare and issue therefor coupon or registered bonds of the United States, bearing date March 1, 1864, or any subsequent period, redeemable at the pleasure of the Government after any period not less than five years, and payable at any period not more than forty years from date, in coin, and of such denominations as may be found expedient, not less than \$50, bearing interest not exceeding six per centum a year, payable on bonds not over \$100 annually, and on all other bonds semi-annually in coin; and he may dispose of such bonds at any time, on such terms as he may deem most advisable, for lawful money of the United States, or, at his discretion, for Treasury notes, certificates of indebtedness, or certificates of deposit, issued under any act of Congress; and all bonds issued under this act shall be exempt from taxation by or under State or municipal authority. And the Secretary of the Treasury shall pay the necessary expenses of the preparation, issue, and disposal of such bonds out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated; but the amount so paid shall not exceed one-half of one per centum of the amount of the bonds so issued and disposed of.

Act Authorizing the Consolidated Loan of 1865.

March 3, 1865—An act to provide ways and means to support the Government.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, etc.,* That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized to borrow, from time to time, on the credit of the United States, in addition to the amounts heretofore authorized, any sums not exceeding in the aggregate \$600,000,000, and to issue therefor bonds or Treasury notes of the United States, in such form as he may prescribe; and so much thereof as may be issued in bonds shall be of denominations not less than \$50, and may be made payable at any period not more than forty years from date of issue, or may be made redeemable, at the pleasure of the Government, at or after any period not less than five years nor more than forty years from date, or may be made redeemable and payable as aforesaid, as may be expressed upon their face; and so much thereof as may be issued in Treasury notes may be made convertible into any bonds authorized by this act, and may be of such denominations—not less than \$50—and bear such dates and be made redeemable or payable at such periods as in the opinion of the Secretary of the Treasury may be deemed expedient. And the interest on such bonds shall be payable semi-annually; and on Treasury notes authorized by this act the interest may be made payable semi-annually, or annually, or at maturity thereof; and the principal or interest, or both, may be made payable in coin or in other lawful money: *Provided,* That the rate of interest on any such bonds or Treasury notes, when payable in coin, shall not exceed six per cent. per annum; and when not payable in coin shall not exceed seven and three-tenths per cent. per annum; and the rate and character of interest shall be expressed on all such bonds or Treasury notes.

Act creating Legal Tenders.

February 25, 1862—An act to authorize the issue of United States notes and for the redemption or funding thereof, and for funding the floating debt of the United States.

SEC. 1. * * * And provided further, That the amount of the two kinds of notes together shall at no time exceed the sum of \$150,000,000, and such notes herein authorized shall be receivable in payment of all taxes, internal duties, excises, debts, and demands of every kind due to the United States, except duties on imports, and of all claims and demands against the United States of every kind whatsoever, except for interest upon bonds and notes, which shall be paid in coin, and shall also be lawful money and a legal tender in payment of all debts.

public and private, within the United States, except duties on imports and interest as aforesaid.

Act limiting the Amount of "Greenbacks."

June 30, 1864.—An act to provide ways and means for the support of the Government, and for other purposes.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, etc.*, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized to borrow, from time to time, on the credit of the United States, \$400,000,000, and to issue therefor coupon or registered bonds of the United States, redeemable at the pleasure of the Government, after any period not less than five, nor more than thirty years, or, if deemed expedient, made payable at any period not more than forty years from date. And said bonds shall be of such denominations as the Secretary of the Treasury shall direct, not less than fifty dollars, and bear an annual interest not exceeding six per centum, payable semi-annually in coin. And the Secretary of the Treasury may dispose of such bonds, or any part thereof, and of any bonds commonly known as five-twenties remaining unsold, in the United States, or, if he shall find it expedient, in Europe, at any time, on such terms as he may deem most advisable, for lawful money of the United States, or, at his discretion, for Treasury notes, certificates of indebtedness, or certificates of deposit issued under any act of Congress. And all bonds, Treasury notes, and other obligations of the United States, shall be exempt from taxation by or under State or municipal authority.

SEC. 2. That the Secretary of the Treasury may issue on the credit of the United States, and in lieu of an equal amount of bonds authorized by the preceding section, and as a part of said loan, not exceeding \$200,000,000 in Treasury notes, of any denomination not less than ten dollars, payable at any time not exceeding three years from date, or, if thought more expedient, redeemable at any time after three years from date, and bearing interest not exceeding the rate of seven and three-tenths per centum, payable in lawful money at maturity, or, at the discretion of the Secretary, semi-annually. And the said Treasury notes may be disposed of by the Secretary of the Treasury, on the best terms that can be obtained, for lawful money; and such of them as shall be made payable, principal and interest, at maturity, shall be a legal tender to the same extent as United States notes for their face value, excluding interest, and may be paid to any creditor of the United States at their face value, excluding interest, or to any creditor willing to receive them at par, including interest, and any Treasury notes issued under the authority of this act may be made convertible, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, into any bonds issued under the authority of this act. And the Secretary of the Treasury may redeem and cause to be cancelled and destroyed any Treasury notes or United States notes heretofore issued under authority of previous acts of Congress, and substitute, in lieu thereof, an equal amount of Treasury notes such as are authorized by this act, or of other United States notes: *Provided*, That the total amount of bonds and Treasury notes authorized by the first and second sections of this act shall not exceed \$400,000,000, in addition to the amounts heretofore issued; nor shall the total amount of United States notes, issued or to be issued, ever exceed \$400,000,000, and such additional sum, not exceeding \$50,000,000, as may be temporarily required for the redemption of temporary loan; nor shall any Treasury note bearing interest, issued under this act, be a legal tender in payment or redemption of any notes issued by any bank, banking association, or banker, calculated or intended to circulate as money.

The Funding Bill, July 25, 1868.

An act providing for payment of the national debt, and for the reduction of the rate of interest thereon.

Be it enacted, etc., That the Secretary of the Treas-

ury is hereby authorized to issue coupon or registered bonds of the United States, in such form as he may prescribe, and of denominations of one hundred dollars, or any multiple of that sum, redeemable in coin at the pleasure of the United States after thirty and forty years, respectively, and bearing the following rates of yearly interest, payable semi-annually in coin, that is to say: The issue of bonds falling due in thirty years shall bear interest at four and a half per centum; and bonds falling due in forty years shall bear interest at four per centum; which said bonds and the interest thereon shall be exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties to the United States, other than such income tax as may be assessed on other incomes, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority, and the said bonds shall be exclusively used, par for par, for the redemption of or in exchange for an equal amount of any of the present outstanding bonds of the United States known as the five-twenty bonds, and may be issued to an amount, in the aggregate, sufficient to cover the principal of all such five-twenty bonds, and no more.

SEC. 2. That there is hereby appropriated out of the duties derived from imported goods the sum of one hundred and thirty-five millions of dollars annually, which sum, during each fiscal year, shall be applied to the payment of the interest and to the reduction of the principal of the public debt in such a manner as may be determined by the Secretary of the Treasury, or as Congress may hereafter direct; and such reduction shall be in lieu of the sinking fund contemplated by the fifth section of the act entitled "An act to authorize the issue of United States notes, and for the redemption or funding thereof, and for funding the floating debt of the United States," approved February twenty-fifth, eighteen hundred and sixty-two.

SEC. 3. That from and after the passage of this act no percentage, deduction, commission, or compensation of any amount or kind shall be allowed to any person for the sale, negotiation, redemption, or exchange of any bonds or securities of the United States, or of any coin or bullion disposed of at the Treasury Department or elsewhere on account of the United States; and all acts or parts of acts authorizing or permitting, by construction or otherwise, the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint any agent, other than some proper officer of his department, to make such sale, negotiation, redemption, or exchange of bonds and securities, are hereby repealed.

Another proposition, which received some favorable consideration, was to postpone the payment of any part of the principal of the public debt until the national resources should be so increased as to make the payment more easy.

The opinion has heretofore been steadily maintained by the Treasury Department, that a reduction of the paper circulation of the country until it appreciated to the specie standard was the true way out of the financial embarrassments of the country. This policy was decidedly condemned by Congress, and an act passed limiting the amount of reduction which might be made. It is now, therefore, abandoned by the Department, which recommends as the next best step that coin contracts should be legalized. At present* the courts will not enforce contracts or agreements made for the payment of coin. In all the States except California, coin contracts made before the passage of the legal-tender acts, as well as those

* The legality of coin contracts was sustained by a decision of the Supreme Court in February, 1869.

executed since, are satisfied by the payment of the amount called for in depreciated notes. "Perhaps," says the Secretary, "no law could be passed which would be productive of better results, with so little private or public inconvenience, as an act legalizing specific contracts to be executed in coin." In his opinion it would check the outflow of specie to other countries by creating a necessity for the use of it at home; it would encourage enterprises extending into the future, by removing all uncertainty in regard to the value of the currency with which they are to be carried on. It would also remove a formidable embarrassment in the foreign trade of the country, and familiarize the people again with specie as the standard of value, and show how groundless is the apprehension so generally existing, that a withdrawal of depreciated notes, or the appreciation of these notes to par, would produce a scarcity of money, by proving that specie, expelled from the country by an inferior circulating medium, will return again when it is made the basis of contracts, and is needed in their performance. The Secretary also recommended that it be declared that after January 1, 1870, United States notes shall cease to be a legal tender on any contract, or for any purpose whatever, except Government dues, for which they are at present receivable. The act making this declaration should also authorize the conversion of these notes at the pleasure of the holders into bonds of the same rate of interest with other funded bonds. The amount of Government notes outstanding has been as follows:

	November, 1867.	November, 1868.
U. S. Notes	\$357,164,844	\$356,021,073
Fractional Currency	30,706,633	33,413,985
	<hr/> \$387,871,477	<hr/> \$389,435,058

The circulation of the national banks has been as follows: October, 1867, \$303,988,971; October, 1868, \$295,684,244. Thus the total circulation of legal tenders, fractional currency, and national banks, was \$685,118,302, being \$6,742,146 less than at the same period of the previous year.

The existence of such a large amount of irredeemable paper money in the country has produced two classes of unfavorable consequences: One, affecting the business and the morals of the people, has been heretofore noticed. The other, comprising the commercial relations of the United States to other countries, is too important to be overlooked. This is so well presented by the Secretary of the Treasury in his annual report as to be very appropriately inserted here. He says:

The receipts from customs for the last three years have been as follows:

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1866....	\$179,046,651
" " " " " 1867....	176,417,810
" " " " " 1868....	164,464,599

While it appears from these figures that the customs receipts since the commencement of the fiscal year 1865 have been, in a revenue point of view, entirely satisfactory, the question naturally arises, what

do these large receipts, under a high tariff, indicate in regard to our foreign trade and to our financial relations with foreign nations?

It is impossible to ascertain with precision the amount of our securities held in Europe, nor is there any perfectly reliable data for ascertaining, even, what amount has gone there annually since the first bonds were issued for the prosecution of the late war. In his report of 1866 the Secretary estimated the amount of United States securities of different kinds, including railroad and other stock, held in Europe, at \$600,000,000. He soon after became satisfied that this estimate was too low by from one hundred to one hundred and fifty millions. It would be safe to put the amount so held at the present time, exclusive of stocks, at \$850,000,000, of which not less than \$600,000,000 are United States bonds, nearly all of which have left the United States within the last six years. The amount is formidable, and little satisfaction is derived from the consideration that these securities have been transferred in payment of interest and for foreign commodities, and just as little from the consideration that probably not over \$500,000,000 in gold values have been received for these \$850,000,000 of debt. In this estimate of our foreign indebtedness railroad and other stocks are not included, as they are not a debt, but the evidence merely of the ownership of property in the United States. Fortunately, for some years past, individual credits have been curtailed, and our foreign and domestic trade, in this particular, has not been unsatisfactory. In addition, then, to the stocks referred to and the individual indebtedness, of the amount of which no accurate estimate can be made, Europe holds not less than \$850,000,000 of American securities, on nearly all of which interest, and on the greater part of which interest in gold, is being paid. Nor, under the present revenue systems and with a depreciated paper currency, is the increase of our foreign debt likely to be stayed. With an abundant harvest and a large surplus of agricultural products of all descriptions, United States bonds are still creating, to no small extent, the exchange with which our foreign balances are being adjusted. We are even now increasing our debt to Europe at the rate of \$60,000,000 or \$70,000,000 per annum in the form of gold-bearing bonds.

The gold and silver product of California and the Territories, since 1848, has been upward of \$1,300,000,000. Allowing that \$100,000,000 have been used in manufactures and that the coin in the country has been increased to an equal amount, the balance of this immense sum—\$1,100,000,000—has gone to other countries in exchange for their productions. Within a period of twenty years, in addition to our agricultural products and to our manufactures which have been exported in large quantities, we have parted with \$1,100,000,000 of the precious metals; and are, nevertheless, confronted with a foreign debt of some \$850,000,000, which is steadily increasing; and all this has occurred under tariffs in a good degree framed with a view of protecting American against foreign manufacturers. But this is not all. During the recent war most of our vessels engaged in the foreign trade were either destroyed by rebel cruisers or transferred to foreigners. Our exports as well as our imports are now chiefly in foreign bottoms. The carrying trade between the United States and Europe is almost literally in the hands of Europeans. Were it not for the remnant of ships still employed in the China trade, and the stand we are making by the establishment of a line of steamers on the Pacific, the coastwise trade, which is retained by the exclusion of foreign competition, would seem to be about all that can, under existing legislation, be relied upon for the employment of American shipping.

There are many intelligent persons who entertain the opinion that the country has been benefited by the transfer of our bonds to Europe, on the ground

that capital has been received in exchange for them, which has been profitably employed in the development of our national resources; and that it matters little whether the interest upon the debt is received by our own people or by the people of other countries. This opinion is the result of misapprehension of facts, and is unsound in principle. It is not to a large extent true that capital, which is being used in developing the national resources, has been received in exchange for the bonds which are held in Europe. While many articles, such as railroad iron, machinery, and raw materials, used in manufacturing—the value of which to the country is acknowledged—have been so received, a large proportion of the receipts have been of a different description. Our bonds have been largely paid for in articles for which no nation can afford to run in debt—for articles which have neither stimulated industry nor increased the productive power of the country, which have in fact added nothing to the national wealth. A reference to the custom-house entries will substantiate the correctness of these statements. Two-thirds of the importations of the United States consist of articles which, in economical times, would be pronounced luxuries. The war and a redundant currency have brought about unexampled extravagance, which can only be satisfied by the most costly products of foreign countries. No exception could be taken to such importations if they were paid for in our own productions. This, unfortunately, is not the fact. They are annually swelling our foreign debt without increasing our ability to pay it. How disastrous such a course of trade, if long continued, must be, it requires no spirit of prophecy to predict.

The state of the country, like the circumstances of a debtor, becomes a subject of the first consideration in estimating the future. Many circumstances of a favorable aspect have appeared since the close of the war. The foreign immigration since July 1, 1865, had reached about the number of a million at the end of 1868. Their indirect value, estimated at half the value of a laborer at the South before the war, would be \$500,000,000. To this should be added \$80,000,000 as the amount of money brought into the country by immigrants, which generally averages \$80 per head.

The increase in the products of domestic industry has been equally favorable. The number of cotton spindles, which at the close of the war was about 5,235,727, has increased, as shown by recent returns, to 7,000,000. This is a gain of 31.78 per cent. The increase in the woollen manufacture of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota, since 1860, has been \$3,831,260 in the amount of capital invested, and 700 in the sets of machinery. The increase in the annual product of pig-iron has been as follows:

	Tons.
1864.....	1,135,497
1866.....	1,351,143 9.50 per cent.
1867.....	1,447,771 7.16 per cent.
1868 (estimated).....	1,550,000 7.06 per cent.

The product of copper, chiefly from the mines of Lake Superior, which in 1860 was 6,000 tons, had increased in 1865 to 10,790; in 1866 to 10,375; and in 1867 to 10,735.

The export of petroleum, being about 30,000,000 gallons in 1865, increased in 1867 to 67,052,020; and in 1868 to 97,179,919 gallons.

The increase in the production of anthracite

coal, which may be taken as a measure of the product of all American coal, has been from 7,499,550 tons in 1862, to 12,379,490 tons in 1866; 12,650,571 in 1867; and 13,500,000 tons in 1868.

There has also been a continued increase of the agricultural products of the country, which is not less important. The crop of Indian corn is estimated to increase at an average of three and a half per cent. per annum, which would make the crop of 1868 amount to 1,100,000,000 bushels, and would net, if sold at 46 cents per bushel, over \$500,000,000.

The cotton crop of the Southern States has been, since the close of the war, as follows: 1865-'66, 2,154,476 bales; 1866-'67, 1,954,988 bales; 1867-'68, 2,498,895 bales; 1868-'69, estimated at 2,700,000 bales.

The crop of tobacco increased from 183,316,953 pounds in 1865, to 325,000,000 pounds in 1866, and to 250,000,000 in 1867.

The number of miles of railroad extension since the close of the war has been nearly 8,000. The tonnage of merchandise transported is estimated to have increased from 6,000,000 in 1851, to 48,000,000 in 1867, which is a rate of increase during this period of 800 per cent. The annual value of the tonnage thus moved is increased from \$486,816,505 in 1858, to \$1,723,330,207 in 1867.

An evidence of the prosperity of the country appears in the reduction made in State debts incurred by the war, during the year. Thus the debt of New Hampshire was reduced 6.9 per cent.; Vermont, 16.2 per cent.; Rhode Island, 13.7 per cent.; Connecticut, 3.4 per cent.; Kentucky, 21 per cent.; Ohio, 4.5 per cent.; Michigan, 6.4 per cent.; Indiana, 23 per cent.; Illinois in 1867-'68, 30.5 per cent.; New York, 12 per cent.

Although there exists this apparent prosperity in all the branches of industry since the close of the war, and there is clearly a great increase in the resources of the country, yet the peculiar fact appears that there is hardly a single domestic article or product, agricultural or manufactured, in behalf of which the claim, either directly or indirectly, has not been made within the last two years, that the same could be produced to greater advantage or profit in some other country than the United States. An increased protection, under the form of a tariff, has been demanded for oil painting, rough building-stone, Indian corn, firewood, bibles, and ice. For the last, the protection asked for was to the extent of 15 per cent. in gold. The consequence is thus represented to be, that the United States is unable to exchange its products on terms of equality with those of any other country, except its product of precious metals.

This unusual condition of affairs is brought to the notice of the public by the special Commissioner of Revenue. It is ascribed by him as beyond a question due "to the greatly increased cost of nearly all forms of labor and

commodities, as compared with the price for the same which prevailed previous to the war." This increased cost is further considered as due to three agencies growing out of the war, viz.: irredeemable paper currency; unequal and heavy taxation; and a limited supply of skilled labor. The influence of an irredeemable paper currency to increase the cost of manufactures is thus forcibly illustrated by the commissioner, David A. Wells:

The statement is furnished to the commissioner by a manufacturer of furniture in one of the Middle States, who, previous to the war, had built up an extensive export business to the West Indies, Central and South America, of a variety of "cane-seated" and "cane-backed" furniture suited to warm latitudes.

Thus on the 1st of March, 1861, gold and currency being at par, \$1,000 in gold possessed a purchasing power sufficient to obtain for the South American importer 111½ dozen of what are termed in the trade "ordinary square-post cane-seat chairs." About the 1st of January, 1862, gold began to demand a premium, and advanced during the next three years with great rapidity. This movement was not, however, participated in at first, to any considerable extent, by either labor or commodities, and in consequence the purchasing power of gold greatly increased; so much so that on the 1st of July, 1864, the \$1,000 gold, which in 1861 bought 111½ dozen chairs, then bought 143 dozen. Under these circumstances, as was to be expected, trade increased, as the foreign purchaser found the American market by far the best for his interest; but from July, 1864, a movement commenced in an exactly opposite direction, gold receding and labor and commodities advancing in very unequal ratios. Thus in January, 1865, the \$1,000 gold, which four years previous had a purchasing power of 111½ dozen chairs, and on the 1st of July, 1864, of 143 dozen, then commanded but 126½ dozen; in February, 1866, a still smaller number, viz., 91½ dozen, and ultimately attained its minimum in January, 1867, when the purchasing power of the sum named was only 89½ dozen. From this point the purchasing power has gradually increased, and for the past year, 1868, has remained at the rate of about 102 dozen, or nine dozen less than could be bought with the same money in 1861.

The result has been that the foreign purchaser now goes to France or Germany; while the products of American industry, in the form of furniture, being no longer available to exchange for sugars, spices, or dyewoods, gold has necessarily been substituted; and, to use the words of the manufacturer describing his condition, "unless there is a speedy return to specie payments, custom will soon so fix the channels and currents of trade that any attempt on my part to divert them will be attended with great difficulty;" and what has thus been shown to be the case in respect to the export trade of the United States in furniture, may be accepted as true of almost every other manufactured product, which, as a nation, we were accustomed, before the war, to exchange for foreign commodities.

So far as regards the fluctuation of prices, investigations appear to have established the fact that up to the commencement of the year 1867 the general effect of the agencies growing out of the war had been to occasion an average advance in the price of commodities to the extent of about 90 per cent., while the corresponding average advance in wages was not in excess of 60 per cent. Later investigations, as to the year 1867, in the Eastern, Middle, and some of the Western States, respecting the increase of prices since 1860-'61, have shown that the ad-

vance in the price of groceries and provisions was, on an average, a little in excess of 86 per cent.; of domestic dry-goods, including clothing, 86½ per cent.; of fuel, 57 per cent.; of house-rent, 65 per cent. in the Eastern States, and 90 to 100 per cent. in New York, Newark, Philadelphia, and Pittsburg. The average increase of all the elements which constitute the food, clothing, and shelter of a family during the year 1867 and the first half of the year 1868 has been about 78 per cent. as compared with the standard prices of 1860-'61.

A comparison of the increase of wages for the same period shows it to have been 50 per cent. for unskilled mechanical labor, and 60 per cent. for skilled mechanical labor. The average aggregate weekly earnings in 1867 of families of various sizes in different parts of the country, one or more members of each of which were employed in some branch of manufacturing industry, their average weekly expenditure for provisions, fuel, house-rent, etc., and the balance remaining to them over and above such expenditure, available either for accumulation and capital or for the purchase of clothing or articles of enjoyment, are presented in the following statement, prepared by the commissioner from indisputable data:

SIZE OF FAMILIES.	Average weekly expenditures for prov'ns, house-rent, etc.		Average weekly earnings.		Surplus for clothing, housekeeping goods, etc.
Parents and one child.....	\$10 24		\$17 00		\$6 76
Three adults.....	8 35		17 52		9 17
Parents and two children.....	12 26		18 75		6 49
Parents and three children.....	15 02		19 50		4 48
Parents and four children.....	17 79		23 33		5 54
Parents and five children.....	15 23		17 11		1 88
Parents and six children.....	11 67		13 50		1 88
Parents and seven children.....	23 78		25 00		1 22
General average of the above..	14 29		18 96		4 67

The average weekly expenditures of families of varying numbers in the manufacturing towns of the country for the years 1860 and 1867 respectively are shown in the following statement, founded upon data gathered from the same sources as the preceding statement. It serves to show whether the large increase in wages has brought any real net gain to those employed in manufacturing establishments:

SIZE OF FAMILIES.	Average weekly expenditures for prov'ns, house-rent, clothing, etc.				Surplus in 1860.
	In 1867.	In 1860.	In 1867.	In 1860.	
Parents and one child...	\$17 00	\$12 17	\$17 00	\$9 96	\$2 21
Three adults.....	17 52	12 00	17 52	10 31	1 60
Parents and two children	18 75	11 50	18 75	10 79	71
Parents and three children.....	19 50	12 41	19 50	11 33	1 06
Parents and four children.....	23 33	14 15	23 33	13 18	97
Parents and five children	17 11	10 37	17 11	9 46	91
Parents and six children	13 50	9 50	13 50	7 67	1 83
Parents and seven children.....	25 00	15 17	25 00	14 09	1 98
General average of the above.....	18 96	12 16	18 96	10 85	1 31

For the purposes of comparison it is assumed that the general average weekly wages obtained in 1867 (viz., \$18.96) were entirely expended, and in the following proportions: \$14.29 for provisions, meat, fuel, etc., and the balance (\$4.67) for clothing, domestic dry-goods, housekeeping articles, etc. The same quantities and qualities of provisions, groceries, clothing, rent, fuel, and housekeeping articles could have been obtained in 1860-'61 for the respective sums indicated in the adjoining column. This shows an average weekly cost of \$10.85 in 1860, as compared with \$18.96 in 1867, and leaving a balance in the former year of \$1.31 (gold) per week in favor of the operative, as against no accruing surplus whatever in 1867-'68. From these facts, which are drawn from a wide field of details, the commissioner concludes that the condition of the working men and women, in a majority of the manufacturing towns of the United States is not as good at this time as it was previous to the war, notwithstanding that their wages are greater, measured in gold, in 1867-'68 than they were in 1860-'61. Most of the persons above referred to were skilled workmen, receiving an advance in wages of about 52 per cent. in 1867 as compared with the amount received in 1860. If their condition has not improved, the condition of the large class of unskilled workmen, such as day-laborers, teamsters, watchmen, and the like, is even worse.

A comparison of a large number of returns from the proprietors or superintendents of furnaces, mills, foundries, and factories of every description, in almost all sections of the country, establishes the fact that the average weekly wages of laborers and other unskilled workmen for the years 1860-'61 and 1867-'68 respectively were as follows. The effect is manifestly shown in the following table of the average weekly expenditures of laboring-men in various manufacturing establishments in those periods:

ARTICLES.	1867-'68.	1860-'61.
Flour and bread.....	\$1 40	\$0 74
Meat of all kinds	1 50	81
Butter	45	24
Sugar and molasses	50	27
Tea.....	37	19
Coffee.....	10	5
Soap, starch, etc.....	22	14
Lard	18	12
Milk.....	32	20
Eggs	20	12
Salt and spices.....	5	3
Potatoes and other vegetables.....	50	29
Fruits, fresh and dried.....	10	7
Coal, wood, etc.....	50	32
Oil, or other light.....	8	10
Other articles.....	82	51
House-rent.....	1 25	75
Clothing, housekeeping goods, etc..	1 00	57
	\$9 54	\$5 52
Weekly wages.....	9 54	6 04
Excess in 1861.....		52

This shows an available surplus of 52 cents per week in 1860-'61.

If flour is made the basis of the comparison, the result is, that the wages which in 1860 purchased one and a half barrels of flour, now pay for about one and a quarter barrels; that is, the workman is not as well off in 1867 as he was in 1861, by at least 20 per cent.

The conclusion drawn from these facts, with many others of a similar character, is, that the purchasing power of the irredeemable paper money of the country is not nearly equal to what it was in the immediate years before the war, and that the working men and women of the country do not receive as much in return for their labor as before the war. Although the aggregate wealth of the country is increasing as rapidly as at any former period, yet it does not follow that there is the same increase in the general prosperity.

The system of direct taxation, adopted during the war, has been greatly modified since its close. Within the last three years, all taxes which discriminated against prudence and economy, as the taxes on repairs; against knowledge, as the taxes upon books, paper, and printing; against capital and thrift, as the differential income tax; against the transportation of freights by boats or vehicles, and against the great leading raw materials, as coal and pig-iron, cotton, sugar, and petroleum, have been swept from the statute-book. Nor are any direct taxes now imposed upon any manufactured product, with the exception of distilled spirit, fermented liquors, tobacco, gas, patent medicines, perfumery, cosmetics, and playing-cards, all of which may be regarded in the light of luxuries. These changes, by which an annual revenue of at least \$170,000,000 has been relinquished, have brought no permanent detriment to the Treasury. With some further changes the entire system of internal revenue would become subordinate to the more important end of creating national wealth, and present no direct obstacle, whatever, on the part of the Government, to prevent the domestic producer from placing his product upon the market at the lowest possible cost. These changes should embrace the taxes levied upon telegraph and express companies; upon the gross receipts of railroads, steamboats, and other common carriers for the transportation of passengers; and the percentage taxes on sales of merchandise.

The basis of the present indirect taxation, or the tariff, is found in the act of March 2, 1861, which virtually repealed all former duties by imposing 10 per cent. on all raw or unmanufactured articles imported, and 20 per cent. on all articles manufactured, in whole or in part, and not enumerated in said act. There have subsequently been eleven amendments, essentially affecting rates of duty. So that the rate of duty imposed by the present tariff, on the invoice value in gold of the dutiable goods imported, has averaged for the last three years

about 48 per cent. If to these rates, freights, insurance, and commissions be added, the average of duties will be still further increased from 10 to 15 per cent. Subsequent to the increase of the tariff in 1861, the demand for revenue, arising from the necessities of the war, caused the adoption of an all-pervading system of internal taxation. To prevent the increase of the tariff from being neutralized by taxes levied on the products of domestic industry, it became necessary to increase correspondingly the rates of duty levied on the importation of competing products. This was chiefly effected in the acts of June, 1864, and March, 1865. Since July, 1866, the internal taxes on all domestic products with few exceptions have been substantially removed, without any corresponding change in the tariff. The effect of this action has been to increase gradually, and as it were insensibly, the percentage of the tariff, to an average of 5 per cent. for domestic products excepting some articles, such as liquors, upon which the increase is equivalent to 40 per cent. These extreme rates, higher than ever existed before in this country, or in any civilized nation in modern times, fail, however, in a great degree to check importations, or to give that degree of protection to nearly all branches of domestic industry which they have claimed as their due.

These results are ascribed to the toleration and use of an inconvertible paper currency, and to an indiscriminate and injudicious increase of duties. The effect of legislation subsequent to the war has been to make revenue subordinate to protection. The rule adopted would seem to be "the assumption, that whatever rate of duty could be shown to be for the advantage of any interest, the same would prove equally advantageous to the interests of the whole country."

Such are some of the causes which are supposed to interfere with the rapid development of the country. The question, therefore, presented to the Government, relates to the policy of legislation likely to prove hereafter most advantageous to the revenue, and most certain to establish the credit and industry of the whole country on a sound and substantial basis. Three ends were considered as necessary to be attained: First, the full restoration of the national credit, and resumption of specie payments; second, the refunding of the national debt at a lower rate of interest; third, the reduction of the cost of national production, with a view of enabling the products of American industry to compete on terms of greater equality with the products of foreign nations than is now possible. The mode and facilities for reaching these results are discussed at length by the commissioner. An estimate is made, by which it is shown that, under a proper management of the finances, an available surplus of \$100,000,000 to \$150,000,000 can be had at the close of the next fiscal year. If one-half of such surplus, or from two to two

and a half per cent. on the whole debt, were applied regularly, month after month, and year after year, to purchase in the open market, and to the cancellation of the gold-interest-bearing obligations of the Government, so long as those obligations can be obtained at a discount from their par value in gold; and if, at the same time, the legal-tender notes were, under certain restrictions, as to time and quantity, made convertible, at the pleasure of the holder, into interest-bearing bonds, the value of both bonds and currency might be so greatly and so rapidly enhanced as to make a resumption of specie payments a matter of less difficulty than it appears to be.

After the national bonds and the legal-tender notes have once been brought to par with gold, and the national credit thus fully restored, the gradual refunding of the debt at a lower rate of interest becomes then, for the first time, really practicable.

If a portion of this anticipated surplus is applied to the reduction of taxation, the effect would be a reduction of the cost of national production if this subject is kept in view. This result would remove those impediments which so greatly restrict, and in many instances prevent, the free exchange of the products of American industry with the needed products of other nations. That is, the application of the proposed reduction of taxation should be made so as to remove obstacles in the way of the domestic producer reaching his market.

Such is a general aspect of the financial affairs of the country. Whether such changes as are consistent with the views of the executive officers of the country shall be adopted remains to be seen. Those questions which have engrossed the attention of the Government and people before all others are rapidly losing their importance, and making way for others of a financial and commercial character.

The total value of the bullion deposited at the mint and branches during the last fiscal year was \$27,166,318, of which \$25,472,894 was in gold, and \$1,693,423 in silver.

The coinage for the year was in gold coin, \$18,114,425; gold bars, \$6,026,810; silver coin, \$1,136,750; silver bars, \$456,236; one, two, three, and five cent pieces, \$1,713,385; total, \$20,964,560. A new mint has been completed at Carson City, Nevada.

The subsequent tables, for which we are indebted to that valuable monthly, *Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*, conducted by Mr. William B. Dana, show the prices of merchandise; the movement of treasure at New York; the course of the New York Stock Exchange in 1868; the daily price of gold, and the monthly range of Government securities.

In the table which follows, a comparison is made of the prices of the principal articles of commerce in the New York market about the first of January in the past eight years:

	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Ashes, pots.....100 bls.	\$6 25	\$8 25	\$8 50	\$11 75	\$9 00	\$8 25	\$8 37	\$7 87½
Pearls.....	6 25	8 25	9 75	13 00	11 00	12 00	10 50	9 25
Breadstuffs—								
Wheat flour, State Ex....bbl.	5 50	6 05	7 00	10 00	8 25	11 00	10 00	7 00
" ex. West. & St. Louis "	7 50	8 75	11 00	15 00	14 00	17 00	16 00	12 00
Rye flour, Genesee.....	3 87½	4 45	6 65	9 00	6 10	7 85	8 75	7 00
Corn meal, Jersey.....	3 00	4 00	5 65	8 80	4 25	5 00	6 15	5 00
Wheat, white Mich.....bush.	1 50	1 53	1 83	2 70	2 75	3 05	3 20	2 80
Chicago, Spring No. 1. "	1 30	1 33	1 48	2 22	1 85	2 45	2 45	1 70
Rye, Western.....	83	96	1 30	1 75	1 05	1 25	1 75	1 51
Oats, State.....	42	71	93	1 06	62	69	87	78
Oats, Western.....	42	69	93	1 09	62	64	84	77
Corn, Western mixed.. "	64	82	1 30	1 90	95	1 12	1 41	1 10
Cotton, mid. upland.....lb.	35½	68½	82	1 20	52	34	16	27
" mid. New Orleans.....	36	68½	—	1 21	53	35	16½	27½
Fish, dry cod.....qtl.	3 50	4 50	6 70	9 00	9 88	6 50	5 50	6 80
Fruit, layer raisins.....box.	3 20	3 50	4 20	6 25	4 50	3 85	3 80	3 55
" currants.....lb.	9	13	15	21	15	13	12½	10½
Hay, shipping.....100 lbs.	77½	85	1 45	1 55	75	1 25	1 20	90
Hops.....lb.	20	23	33	50	60	60	60	20
Iron—Scotch pig.....ton.	23 00	33 50	45 00	63 00	52 90	50 00	35 00	41 00
" —English bars..... "	57 00	65 00	90 00	190 00	130 00	115 00	86 00	87 00
" —American pig, No. 1. "	—	—	—	59	51	49	89	41 00
Laths.....per M.	1 25	1 45	1 50	2 40	5 00	3 25	3 00	3 12½
Lead—Spanish.....ton.	7 00	8 00	10 50	15 00	6 38	7 00	6 50	6 37½
" —Galena..... "	7 12½	8 00	10 50	16 00	—	—	—	—
Leather—Hemlock, sole.....lb.	20½	27	30	42	36	32	25½	29
" —Oak..... "	23	23	42	51	31	87	38	40
Lime, common Rockland.....bbl.	65	85	1 35	1 15	1 70	1 70	1 50	1 60
Liquors—Brandy, cogc.....gal.	4 00	5 25	6 10	15 00	6 00	6 00	6 50	8 00
" —Domestic whiskey..... "	20½	39	94	2 24	2 27½	2 38	2 35	97
Molasses, New Orleans..... "	53	55	70	1 43	1 15	90	85	76
Naval Stores—								
Crude turpentine.....bbl.	10 00	—	—	—	9 00	6 00	3 75	3 83
Spirits turpentine.....gal.	1 47½	2 60	2 95	2 10	1 05	67	50	50
Common rosin.....bbl.	6 00	13 00	32 00	23 00	6 50	5 00	3 00	2 45
Oils—Crude whale.....gal.	48	81	1 10	1 48	1 60	1 30	70	1 95
" —Crude sperm..... "	1 40	1 75	1 60	2 13	2 50	2 60	2 15	1 75
" —Linseed..... "	86	1 25	1 47	1 50	1 45	1 34	1 03	98
" —Petroleum, crude.....gal.	—	1 25	31½	51	40	18	16½	—
" —Refined in b'd, S. W..... "	—	47½	46½	73	62	30	24	—
Provisions—								
Pork, old mess.....bbis.	12 00	14 50	19 50	43 00	23 50	19 25	21 15	27 25
" prime..... "	8 50	12 50	14 50	36 25	23 50	17 25	18 50	23 00
Beef, prime mess..... "	5 50	13 00	12 00	—	—	—	16 00	14 00
" extra mess..... "	11 00	20 00	23 00	23 00	24 00	21 00	21 00	19 50
Beef hams, extra..... "	14 50	15 00	18 30	27 00	35 00	35 00	32 50	32 00
Hams, pickled.....lbs.	6	7	11	30	16½	12½	13	16
Shoulders, pickled..... "	4½	5½	8½	13	14	13	8½	11½
Lard, Western..... "	8½	10	13	23	19	13	12½	17½
Butter, prime Western..... "	15	22	24	43	35	30	38	40
Butter, prime State..... "	19	24	20	55	43	41	45	—
Cheese, prime factory..... "	7	12	15½	24	18½	17½	16	19½
Rice, prime.....100 lbs.	7 00	8 75	10 00	13 00	12 50	9 25	8 75	9 25
Salt, Liverpool, ground, sack.	86	1 23	1 85	2 47	2 50	2 00	2 00	2 10
" Liverpool, fine, Ashtons "	1 70	2 15	2 80	4 75	4 10	3 70	3 90	3 85
Seeds, clover.....lb.	7½	10½	12½	27	14	14	12½	—
Sugar, Cuba, good..... "	8½	10	12	19	12	10	11½	—
" refined, hards..... "	10½	13½	16	28½	18½	15	6½	—
Tallow..... "	9½	10½	12	18	14	11	10½	11½
Wool, Ohio fleece, double ex. "	50	60	80	95	70	60	60	58½
American gold.....	Par	133½	152	227	144½	133	133½	135½

The fluctuations in the preceding table are such as always appear during the existence of a paper currency, issuable by a large number of private institutions. The question of a resumption of specie payments is discussed in a very practical manner by a correspondent (George Walker) of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, of which the following is an extract:

If I am right in believing that the truest economy would consist in using only the precious metals (with some form of circulating paper, like gold notes, for convenience of handling and transmission), the time for making so considerable a change in the habits of the country is not yet come. Any such change must be gradual, and it must be made with due regard to rooted opinions, as well as vested interests. We have a good way yet to travel before we get back to specie payments; and still another stage to arrive at the more solid ground occupied by European nations. When we have reached that point, we can

take counsel together, and see if the time has not come for trading at home as we always trade with other nations, on the basis of real money.

To get back to specie payments is the first object, and I know no other way of doing it than by the way once attempted and afterward suspended, namely, by the painful process of contraction. It is useless to talk of growing up to the dimensions of the present circulation. Taking bank-notes, legal tenders, and fractional currency together, the outstanding amount in the hands of the people is in the neighborhood of \$585,000,000. In the face of all past experience of this and other countries, what possible justification can there be for such an increase of paper money over the figures of 1860? If left to the operations of natural laws, would the circulation have attained any such limits? Most certainly it would not; and the moment the touchstone of specie redemptions is applied to it, the volume of paper money will shrink to its natural proportions. To wait till we need so much circulating money would be to wait for years—an indefinite period; on the other hand, to force a resumption of specie payments, with so much paper afloat, would cause such a sud-

den fall of prices as would inevitably lead to a crisis, and involve the ruin of many innocent persons. The only method left is to contract the circulation preparatory to redeeming it, to require beforehand a certain accumulation of specie in the banks, and I incline to believe also, to make the redemption partial to begin with. This might be done by redeeming at first only notes of certain dates or denominations, or by redeeming in gold, estimated at a higher price than par, as was done in England in 1820.

Contraction is not an agreeable process, for it involves a fall of prices; and as such a fall is never equal, some property and some people will suffer more than others. But so it was in the war, when the unavoidable losses and burdens to the nation were most unequally distributed among individuals. The restoration of a sound currency is one of the duties resulting from the war; it is a tax we have got to pay, and it cannot be adjusted with exact equality. The burden of contraction cannot, however, at its worst, fall as unequally upon the people as the burden of a depreciated currency. With a depreciated money and a fluctuating standard of value, the condition of industry can never be healthy. Values are all unsettled, and the fluctuations sudden and violent; both labor and capital have irregular employment, and there is a feverish habit imparted to all industries. So inseparable are these incidents from a depreciated currency, that if the national debt could be paid off to-morrow by an issue of legal-tender notes, and there were no considerations of good faith or national integrity involved in the question, it would be a most disastrous measure to the country, crippling its business to a degree far more burdensome, in the present and in the future, than honest payment, according to the intention of the contract. If there is to be any repudiation, let it be by a square refusal to pay the bonds, principal and interest, as well as the notes, to be followed by a repeal of the legal-tender act. Large numbers of people would doubtless be ruined, and the national credit destroyed; but not more surely than by the greenback method of repudiation, which adds the vice of hypocrisy to the crime of dishonesty; while, on the other hand, the private business of the country, after the first violent shock, would be gradually resumed on a solid basis.

The heaviest burden of depreciated money falls upon the poor. As you have shown in your annual reports, and as all the evidence still goes to demonstrate, the laboring man is the heaviest tax-payer under our existing currency system. All the elements of his living have risen fully 20 per cent. above the rise in his wages. What capitalist has to suffer so severely as this? And it is not to be forgotten that the capitalist, because he is a capitalist, pays his taxes out of his abundance—the laborer out of his living. It is one of the worst features of a debased money that it widens the space between the rich and the poor; to those that have it gives more, and to those that have not it takes away even what they have.

Treasure Movement at New York, for 1868, and for the last Ten Years.—The following statement of the movement of treasure at New York shows the amounts received from California, foreign ports, and the interior, and the amounts shipped to foreign ports and to the interior monthly and yearly for the year ending December 31, 1868; also, a recapitulation of the same for the last ten years; also, the amount in banks and the Sub-Treasury at the commencement and close of each month:

MONTHS, ETC.	Treasure in Banks and Sub-Treasury on 1st of Month.	ACCESSIONS OF TREASURE DURING MONTHS, ETC.					TREASURE WITHDRAWN FROM MARKET.			
		Received from California.	Imported from Foreign Ports.	From all other Sources and Hoards.	Aggregate Accessions.	Total Supply of Treasure for Months, etc.	Exported to Foreign Ports.	Returned Inland to Hoards.	Aggregate withdrawn.	Treasure in Banks and Sub-Treasury on last of Month.
January.....	\$99,623,898	\$1,941,169	\$136,574	\$16,161,042	\$18,238,785	\$117,862,613	\$7,249,622	\$7,249,622	\$110,512,991
February.....	110,512,991	4,122,079	415,875	222,264	4,760,218	115,273,209	3,203,895	4,203,895	111,069,384
March.....	100,835,948	3,696,196	1,209,776	5,347,316	4,995,972	116,005,356	6,004,912	\$11,534,496	15,229,408	100,835,948
April.....	111,069,384	3,755,381	571,079	9,973,676	110,809,624	6,005,179	6,005,179	104,714,445
May.....	104,714,445	3,923,385	477,485	1,293,597	5,294,467	110,008,912	15,936,231	15,936,231	94,072,681
June.....	94,072,681	3,492,286	898,111	4,771,397	98,844,078	11,823,628	16,989,929	81,854,149
July.....	81,854,149	3,510,596	126,442	10,459,326	14,096,364	95,950,513	10,584,558	10,584,558	85,395,955
August.....	85,395,955	3,220,226	846,321	5,042,948	9,320,005	94,485,960	4,690,989	4,690,989	89,794,971
September.....	89,794,971	3,844,950	906,558	4,251,508	94,046,479	1,954,723	4,761,653	89,284,816
October.....	89,284,816	902,778	554,892	556,927	2,014,567	91,299,383	1,608,739	1,608,739	89,600,644
November.....	89,600,644	1,200,770	220,316	1,421,076	2,014,567	91,111,120	1,181,085	5,081,994	86,029,726
December.....	86,029,726	784,019	301,490	10,293,153	11,468,662	97,498,388	1,717,905	1,717,905	95,780,493
Year 1868.....	\$99,623,898	\$23,944,825	\$7,035,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1869.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1870.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1871.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1872.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1873.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1874.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1875.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1876.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1877.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1878.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1879.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1880.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1881.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1882.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1883.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1884.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1885.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1886.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1887.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1888.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1889.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1890.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1891.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1892.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1893.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1894.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1895.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1896.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1897.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1898.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1899.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493
1900.....	\$99,623,898	\$25,944,825	\$7,085,389	\$49,376,473	\$90,406,697	\$190,030,525	\$70,841,396	\$23,408,646	\$94,250,042	\$95,780,493

STATEMENT SHOWING THE LOWEST AND HIGHEST SALE PRICES OF SHARES AT THE NEW YORK EXCHANGE BOARD IN EACH MONTH OF THE YEAR 1898.

STOCKS.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1. RAILROAD-SHARE LIST.												
Central of New Jersey.....	114½-117½	115-117	117-118	114½-118½	116-130	1107½-136	130-134	118-121	120-134	119-132½	116-121	110½-117
Chicago and Alton.....	120-136	136-138	136-138	129-138½	127½-138	139-138	137-138	136-144	141-138½	150-155½	134-151	140-147
Chicago and Alton, preferred.....	131-140	138-139	139-139½	125-130	123-129½	130-130	133½-135	138½-145	141-138½	156-163	135-150	138½-146½
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy.....	138-143½	143-144	140-141	130-130	129-130	151-151	143-143	170-173	168-171	168-171	169-170	170-175
Chicago and Northwest.....	68½-69½	68½-69½	68½-69½	68-69	68-69	65½-66	73-73	80-83½	84-90½	88½-97½	73-90½	70½-80½
Chicago and Northwest, preferred.....	70½-76	72½-75½	72½-75½	70½-75	70½-75	77½-80½	78-81	79-83½	83½-88	88-96½	77-91	75½-88½
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific.....	69½-100½	96½-102½	91-101	90-101	90-101	94½-105	97-106	97-112	100½-104	102-109½	101-100½	105½-118
Clev. Col. and Ind. Indiana.....	87½-98½	98½-98½	98½-98½	97-100	97-100	89½-91	88-90	88-90	89-91	87-90	75-78	77
Cleveland and Pittsburg.....	97½-114	103½-113	102½-108	97-106	105-110	109½-113	109-110	98-102½	100-103½	104½-106½	81-89	82-88½
Cleveland and Toledo.....	110-112	111-115	113½-114	114-115	117-117	123-124	118-118	118-120	118-122	121-132	126-130	125-131
Del. Lack. and Western.....	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½	107½-107½
Erie.....	71½-78½	78½-78½	65½-81½	65½-75	68-72	68-72	67½-71	65-68½	66-72	68-70½	65-68	67-71
Erie, preferred.....	72-83	78-83	74-80½	69-75	74-77	75-78	71-75	68-73½	68-73	68-70½	65-68	67-71
Hudson River.....	132½-147	140-140	130-135	129½-140	136-144	138-144	138-140	133-140	133-140	134-139	120-138	124½-135½
Illinois Central.....	130½-136½	133½-139	136-140	137-147½	145-148½	149-158	144-150	143-151	143-146	143-147½	141-141	140½-144½
Michigan Central.....	106½-119	111-114	112-114	113-115½	118-121	117½-121	116-119	118-121	118-119	118-119	111-118	115-120
Michigan Southern.....	85-89½	88½-94	87½-92½	85-91	89½-91½	89½-91½	88-93	88-93	83-86	83-91	80-90	84-89½
Milwaukee and St. Paul.....	47-52½	46½-51	51-56½	55-64½	62-64	62-64	65-77	69-71	67-71	67-71	61-66	63-70½
Milwaukee and St. Paul, preferred.....	63-67	64-68	66½-75	68-77	74-78	76-79	78-85	79-84	81-84	83-111	76-96	81-89
New Jersey.....	130-135	133-133	132-133	132-133	133-133	133-133	133-133	133-133	133-133	133-133	133-133	133-133
New York Central.....	117½-132½	125-134½	117½-131	110½-130	127½-134	133½-136½	131-136	122½-132½	123-130	123-130	131-134	133½-138½
New York Central and Harlem.....	119-130	120-131½	117-131	110-130	127-134	133-136	131-136	122-132	123-130	123-130	115-129½	133-138
New York and New Haven.....	133-133	133-133	140-141	137-149	150-159	145-151	145-145	143-145	140-141	141-143	140-143	130-120½
Ohio and Mississippi.....	90-94	93-93	90-91	98½-99½	99-101	91-91	90-90	98½-99	98-98	98-98	98-98	98-98
Ohio and Mississippi, preferred.....	70-74½	73-78	76-77	78-78	79-80	79-80	78-79	77-79	78-79	78-79	79-79	79-79
Panama.....	290-310	315-345	330-346	295½-316	315-320	320-330	330-330	340-368	330-360	330-345	330-330	327½-340
Philadelphia and Reading.....	91-97	92½-96	88½-94	86½-91	90-96	93-106½	94-101	88-95	89-95	88-100	92-99	96-98½
Pittsburg, Ft. Wayne and Chi.....	97-104½	99½-103	99-103	99-105	104-116	109½-116	106½-110	105-110	107-111	108-117	105-113	109-114
2. COAL-SHARE LIST.												
Cumberland.....	32½-38½	33-37½	30½-35½	29-33	23-35½	33½-35½	33-35	29-31	29½-35	33-35	34-41	36-39½
Delaware and Hudson Canal.....	147-148½	145½-150	147-153½	155½-160	156½-165	153-163½	150-161	149½-151	127-131	128-130	127-133½	130-134
Pennsylvania.....	173-173	180-180	147-153½	155½-160	156½-165	153-163½	210-210	200-200	210-210	210-220	220-220	220-220
3. STEAMSHIP SHARES.												
Atlantic Mail.....	95½-115	95½-99	85½-99½	98-97½	91½-97	90-96	98-98	15-107	20-21	110-130	112-121	91-91
Pacific Mail.....	96½-115½	108-114½	102½-111	86-104	90-95	95-103½	97-101	149-104	101-113	110-130	112-121	111-120½
Union Navigation.....	96½-115½	108-114½	102½-111	86-104	90-95	95-103½	97-101	149-104	101-113	110-130	112-121	111-120½

DAILY PRICE OF GOLD IN 1888.

DAY OF MONTH.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1.....	<i>Holiday.</i>	140½-1407½	S. 1407½-1411½	138½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	144½-145½	144½-145½	139½-140½	S. 139½-1399½	135½-135½
2.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
3.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
4.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
5.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
6.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
7.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
8.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
9.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
10.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
11.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
12.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
13.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
14.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
15.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
16.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
17.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
18.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
19.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
20.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
21.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
22.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
23.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
24.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
25.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
26.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
27.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
28.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
29.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
30.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
31.....	139½-1399½	1407½-1411½	1407½-1411½	137½-1388½	139½-1399½	139½-1399½	140½-1407½	145½-146½	145½-146½	139½-140½	139½-1399½	135½-135½
Month	133½-142½	139½-144	137½-141½	135½-140½	139½-140½	139½-141½	140½-145½	143½-150	141½-145½	133½-140½	132-137	134½-136½

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE RANGE OF PRICES MONTHLY AND YEARLY.

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Year.
1863.....	101½-103½	102½-104½	101½-103½	101½-102½	102½-104½	103½-105½	108½-110½	119½-121½	116½-118½	119½-121½	120-122½	123½-125½	101½-124
1864.....	125½-127½	126½-128½	125½-127½	125½-127½	126½-128½	127½-129½	132½-134½	137½-139½	136½-138½	137½-139½	138½-140½	139½-141½	125½-141½
1865.....	127½-129½	128½-130½	127½-129½	127½-129½	128½-130½	129½-131½	134½-136½	139½-141½	138½-140½	139½-141½	140½-142½	141½-143½	127½-143½
1866.....	129½-131½	130½-132½	129½-131½	129½-131½	130½-132½	131½-133½	136½-138½	141½-143½	140½-142½	141½-143½	142½-144½	143½-145½	129½-145½
1867.....	131½-133½	132½-134½	131½-133½	131½-133½	132½-134½	133½-135½	138½-140½	143½-145½	142½-144½	143½-145½	144½-146½	145½-147½	131½-147½
1868.....	133½-135½	134½-136½	133½-135½	133½-135½	134½-136½	135½-137½	140½-142½	145½-147½	144½-146½	145½-147½	146½-148½	147½-149½	133½-149½

THE MONTHLY RANGE OF GOVERNMENT SECURITIES, AS REPRESENTED BY DAILY SALES AT
THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE, DURING THE YEAR 1868.

	6's 1881.		6's (5-20 YEARS), COUPON.						5's (10-40 years), coupon.	7-30, Second series.
	Coupon.	Regist'd.	1862.	1864.	1865.	New.	1867.	1868.		
January—										
First.....	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	106	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	102	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	106	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	101 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$
February—										
First.....	111 $\frac{1}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{4}$	109 $\frac{1}{4}$	110	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	104 $\frac{1}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{1}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	108
Last.....	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{1}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
March—										
First.....	111	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	110 $\frac{1}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	107	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	101 $\frac{1}{2}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	111	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	107	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
April—										
First.....	111	111 $\frac{1}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	107	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	111	111	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111	109	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	102 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111	109	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	102 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$
May—										
First.....	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	107	109	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	103	107 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	112	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{1}{2}$	112	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
June—										
First.....	116 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	112	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	116 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	118	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	117 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	110	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110
July—										
First.....	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	109	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	113	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	107	108 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$
August—										
First.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109	109	108 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	116	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	114	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	109
September—										
First.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
October—										
First.....	113	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	113	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	116 $\frac{3}{4}$	115	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112	106 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	114	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$
November—										
First.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	112	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	108	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	106
Lowest.....	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	104
Highest.....	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115	113 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	115	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	106
December—										
First.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	110	105
Highest.....	115	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111	111	105 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	109	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	102 $\frac{3}{4}$
Year 1868—										
First.....	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	106	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	102	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Lowest.....	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	105 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	100 $\frac{3}{4}$	104 $\frac{3}{4}$
Highest.....	118	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	115 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	112 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	112	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$
Last.....	114 $\frac{3}{4}$	109	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	107 $\frac{3}{4}$	110 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	111 $\frac{3}{4}$	102 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{3}{4}$

FLORIDA. In this State, more perhaps than elsewhere in the South, the principal business that engaged the people during the year 1868 was the moulding of the new organic law, as required by the reconstruction acts of Congress, as a condition for readmission within the Union, and participation, through their representatives, in the administration of the Federal Government. The contest thus raised was even pushed to the last extremities, and appears not to have ended with the close of the year; though Florida had been actually recognized as a State in the Union since the month of June. It seems worthy of notice that

this conflict was from the beginning, and is still carried on, not so much between opposite parties, as between the members of that party which favored reconstruction, and was the dominant political power in the State.

Shortly before the end of the year 1867, a general election having been held, and delegates chosen to meet in a convention for the purpose of framing a new State constitution, to be then submitted to the people for their ratification or rejection, General Pope, commander at the time of the Third Military District, in which the State of Florida was comprised, issued an order dated December 28,

1867, calling by name the delegates returned in the lists of said election, and enjoining them to assemble in that capacity at Tallahassee, on January 20, 1868.

Ten days before the 20th, however, a lengthy remonstrance, signed by a number of prominent citizens of Florida, was laid before General Meade, who had succeeded General Pope in that command, stating that his predecessor, by whose order the said election was conducted and closed, had prescribed for it a mode of apportioning representation which was in direct and open violation of that prescribed by Congress in the reconstruction acts themselves; besides that, both in the registration of voters, and in the voting, manifest frauds had been practised to a large extent. On these grounds, which rendered the election null in its beginning as well as in its process and final result, the petitioners "invoked his interposition to stay the assembling of said delegates in their capacity of a Constitutional Convention," as "with the universal conviction prevailing that frauds were committed in the registration and in the election—that the vote on the question of a convention was actually against it—and that the law of Congress was unquestionably and clearly departed from in apportioning representation,—the people can regard it in no other light than as an illegal body." The correspondence hereupon reported in the public papers of January 21 and 23, 1868, makes it appear that General Meade, considering the importance of the facts stated, and the gravity of the matter, applied to the army headquarters at Washington for instructions concerning a postponement of the day appointed for the meeting of said convention, and that, the answer from Washington having left the matter to his own discretion, he replied to the petitioners "that he had no authority to undo what had been done," and so the thing was allowed to take its course. Complaints having been made to the district headquarters of criminal acts frequently perpetrated, and information given by competent persons that the civil authorities took no proper steps for proceeding against the offenders to bring them to trial and condign punishment if found guilty, General Meade, intending to sustain the power of the State courts in cases pertaining to them, and being determined at the same time to comply with his own duty, to see justice rightly administered within the district under his command, if they failed to perform theirs, issued on January 15th the following order:

General Orders, No. 10.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT }
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, FLORIDA, AND ALABAMA, }
ATLANTA, GA., January 15, 1868. }

The frequency of reported outrages, and the accompanying expression of opinion of subordinate officers, that no justice is to be expected from the civil authorities, require notice and action on the part of the major-general commanding.

I. The commanding general desires it to be understood that the trial and punishment of criminals

is to be left to the civil authorities, so long as the said authorities are energetic, active, and do justice to the rights of person and property without distinction of race or color. Whenever the major-general commanding is satisfied from evidence produced that the civil authorities fail to do their duty—then prompt action will be taken by him both for the punishment of criminals and the removal from office of derelict civil officers.

II. The military are to coöperate with and aid the civil authorities in the detection, capture, and custody of criminals, and they are further authorized, in cases where they have reason to believe the civil authorities are not disposed to do their duty, to retain criminals in custody until the fact becomes evident whether the civil authorities will or will not perform their duty—immediately reporting their action on all such cases to these headquarters.

III. Writs of *habeas corpus* issued against criminals in the custody of the military will be obeyed so far as to produce the body of the prisoner in court, and the making of a respectful return setting forth the grounds and authority by which the prisoner is held—should the court fail to respect the authority under which the prisoner is held—the custody of the criminal will not be transferred to the court without a reference to these headquarters.

IV. The major-general desires to impress on the officers under his command, the exercise of a sound discretion and good judgment. It is his determination to afford the civil authorities every opportunity to discharge their duties untrammelled by any action on the part of the military but such as they, the civil authorities, may invite and desire. He makes this public notice to the civil authorities that they may be governed thereby—assuring them they shall be respected in the exercise of their powers so long as impartial justice is meted out to all; but the commanding-general is determined to exercise to the fullest extent the plenary powers with which he is intrusted, to secure protection of persons and property in the district he commands.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General, A. D. C.

On January 20th, the delegates met at Tallahassee, and organized the convention. Of the 46 returned in the lists of election, and named in General Pope's order, 41 answered the call and took their official oath, some twenty of them being negroes. Belonging generally to the Republican party, they disagreed amongst themselves on most weighty points, even the right of four of their number to sit in convention. These and their adherents asserted that the fact of their being elected by large majorities, and individually recognized as delegates by General Pope in his order enjoining the meeting of the convention, firmly secured their right to seats and rendered it unquestionable; while the others, who were a majority, affirmed that General Pope, before whom their claims had been contested, had left the decision to the convention, which was the proper judge of the qualifications of its own members, and pointing to the undisputed fact that the former were non-residents of Florida, they contended that the law of both the State and Congress in the reconstruction acts excluded them in express words from the possibility of being voted for, as of their voting for others.

This brought out and nourished a steadily-increasing discord in the convention, as the debates, under cover of discussing a point of

fact or at law, could not possibly be kept free from personal animosity. The majority seemed, indeed, disposed to overlook the ineligibility of the four, and let them occupy their seats, if they (who were regarded as extremists) would agree with it in other matters; but this they appeared not inclined to do. Hence in a few days the dissension widened so as to assume the shape of actual division, and the assembly was split into two portions; the one greater, as to numbers, the other greater in strength, because of its members being individually vested with a larger measure of official power in the convention. They belonged largely to the most important standing committees, and these four delegates, to whom the right of sitting in the convention was denied, were the most influential persons in it, the one being its president, and the other three forming by themselves alone the Committee "on Privileges and Elections," and that "on Eligibility."

On January 26th this committee presented a report, the general terms of which might be so construed as to aim at securing the seats of its own members. After a long and hot discussion, the majority won the point that the report should be recommitted to the same committee, and two members added to it; but the consequence was that, on January 28th, the chairman submitted another report, stating that "all the delegates named in General Pope's order No. 110 are eligible to seats in this convention; and that when seats are contested, and not until then, can this convention act in the matter; such matter in all cases being the special business of this committee." This report was signed by four of the now five members, the dissenting one objecting not to the substance in the first sentence, but to "the concluding part of it," and because he thought that "there was no matter before the convention calling for a report of the committee." It having been proposed to adopt the report, or lay it on the table, the greater number finally voted to lay it on the table "until the 23d of February," a time before the arrival of which the convention would have probably adjourned, as it actually did. The same result attended the motion made by one of the majority, of admitting John W. Butler to sit in convention as delegate of the first district. The committee reported that the delegate elected and returned for the first district was not Mr. Butler, but George Walker, though the latter had not as yet presented himself to take his seat; it was said that he intended not to do so. The majority insisted and obtained that this report also should be recommitted, and three more members added to the committee, one of them being the leader of the party opposed to the original three. The president added still another afterward, thus making nine. A majority of this committee reported, on January 30th, that "from the evidence in the case it appeared that George Walker was the

person for whom the majority vote was cast in the first district and the intention of the electors was so plain that he could present himself and claim his seat, and that the vacancy could be filled by none other. The committee held that, while it would be manifestly improper and illegal to vacate the seat of any member by virtue of General Pope's order, and not clearly made ineligible by the reconstruction acts, it would be equally illegal to fill any vacancy by any person claiming to be a delegate, who received but a small minority of the votes of his district, and who does not claim a seat by order of the commanding general of the military district." The motion here made of further recommitment was followed by a more than stormy debate of two days, and finally carried by a vote of 26 yeas and 11 nays, on February 1st; but the chairman of the committee having immediately moved "that the claims of George Walker and Mr. Butler be postponed until the 1st of March," this motion also was carried at the same sitting, and so the whole matter ended.

Thus the minority outmanœuvred and kept in check the majority; though the members of the latter used every means to lessen the influence attached to the official position of those belonging to the former, especially by introducing numerous changes in the standing rules governing the management of the convention or the manner of voting. But, upon the occasion of their defeat in reference to Mr. Butler, the convention having adjourned to the 4th of February, fifteen delegates, all belonging to the said majority, resolved not to attend the sessions any further, and, without asking leave or giving notice, absented themselves, as it were, in a body.

The remaining members, however, at their first sitting after the adjournment, on February 4th, adopted concerning the absentees the following preamble and resolution:

Whereas, The following named delegates elected and returned to this convention by General Pope, to wit: George J. Alden, Lyman W. Rowley, W. J. Purman, J. W. Childs, T. W. Osborn, John W. Powell, Roland T. Rombauer, Thomas Urquhart, Horatio Jenkins, Jr., Auburn Erwin, E. D. Howse, Samuel Pearce, C. E. Mobly, and David Mizell, have intentionally and wilfully absented themselves from this body, to prevent and obstruct reconstruction: therefore,

Be it resolved by the people of Florida, in convention assembled, That Colonel F. F. Flint, commanding the post of Tallahassee, be and he is hereby requested to arrest such absent delegates and compel their attendance upon this body.

For the rest, they continued sitting and deliberating, as if nothing had happened. Though there were in the hall only twenty-one or twenty-two delegates present, this number they regarded, and afterward declared in express terms, to be "a legal quorum." They thus not only transacted business by adopting resolutions and passing ordinances on numerous matters, but completed also the work for which the convention had been called

together. They actually framed, voted upon, and adopted the new State constitution, on February 6th, as appears from the following:

Resolved, That the president be empowered to telegraph Major-General George G. Meade that we are through our labors, and have formed a constitution, and await his further instructions.

The following is the dispatch sent by the president to General Meade:

CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION, }
TALLAHASSEE, FLORIDA, February 6, 1868. }

Gen. Geo. G. Meade, commanding Third Military District, Atlanta, Georgia:

I have the honor to inform you that we have completed our labors in forming a constitution for this State, and await your further orders.

D. RICHARDS, President.

With a view to secure the validity of the enactments passed after the fifteen delegates had arbitrarily absented themselves, the Convention adopted, on February 7th, the following preamble and resolution:

Whereas, after a session of fourteen days, we find that forty-one delegates have taken and subscribed to the oath adopted for delegates by this convention, therefore be it

Resolved, That a majority of that number is a legal quorum of this body.

By another resolution, adopted on the same day, the assembly adjourned as a Constitutional Convention to the next day, and immediately organized itself into a Nominating Convention (the president being the same in either), for the purpose of nominating "the State officers provided for in the constitution." The result of this meeting was the nomination of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, and that of other high officers of the State, as well as of the member of Congress, mostly out of their own number.

On February 8th, the delegates, twenty-one in number, subscribed their names to the new constitution, whereupon they adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That this convention send to General Meade a special member from this convention, who shall take with him a corrected copy of the proceedings, and make before General Meade a full statement of the facts.

One from amongst themselves was here appointed for the said mission to General Meade, when they adjourned to the 15th of February. No sooner had this adjournment taken place, than the fifteen absentees, who seem to have been watching the movements of those sitting in the convention, returned to Tallahassee, late in the night of the next day, accompanied by nine more delegates, and went directly to the House of Representatives, where a protest was read by one of them, charging Daniel Richards, hitherto president of the convention, with heavy offences in the exercise of his office. The protest was signed by the twenty-four delegates present, who then deposed Mr. Richards from the presidency, and elected Horatio Jenkins in his place. Mr. Jenkins having immediately taken the chair, all the former officers of the convention, ex-

cept the secretary and the chaplain, were replaced by others, and all the standing committees appointed anew. The convention being thus thoroughly reorganized, it was adjourned to the afternoon of February 10th.

On the 11th the new Committee "on Eligibility" presented their report, stating that Daniel Richards, mentioned above, as well as Liberty Billings, William U. Saunders, and C. H. Pierce (who composed the former Committee "on Privileges and Elections," and that "on Eligibility"), being non-residents of Florida, were by the law of both State and Congress in the reconstruction acts expressly declared ineligible as delegates to the Constitutional Convention, and therefore to be removed from their seats in it. This report, together with the accompanying resolutions, was unanimously adopted by the twenty-six delegates present. Thus were the four named persons unseated, while Messrs. Hart, Davidson, Hill, Stearns, and Wells, whose claims had not been previously acted upon, and in favor of whom the said committee had now reported, were admitted and sworn at the same time.

These proceedings could not but increase the flame of discord which already existed between the two parties. The four expelled not only asserted their right to sit in convention, but they and their adherents claimed for themselves to be the convention, and to have in that capacity framed and adopted the new State constitution; while the other party as firmly denied all this, and claimed the same thing for itself. The contention spread, and rose in its violence to such a point that, in order to prevent disastrous results, which common prudence must have apprehended, the military power presently interposed its authority, and on February 17th General Meade personally appeared at Tallahassee. After hearing both parties, he recommended mutual agreement on the disputed points, proposing at the same time that both presidents should resign their positions, and that the delegates assemble to organize the convention anew, that Colonel Sprague, the commander of the sub-District of Florida, preside in the assembly till the reorganization should be effected. In his efforts to bring about a reconciliation, the General was so far successful that the members of both parties, after separate consultation amongst themselves, recognized his plan to be preferable to all others. The two presidents actually resigned (Richards under protest), and on February 18th the delegates met at the Convention Hall, Colonel Sprague occupying the chair. The resignations of the two presidents having been read, Horatio Jenkins was, on motion, elected permanent president by a vote of thirty-two yeas to twelve nays. The chair being now occupied by Mr. Jenkins, the secretary and other officers were appointed, and many resolutions adopted in quick succession, mostly pertaining to a permanent organization of the body, until the

convention peaceably adjourned to the next day. This convention, both before and after its reorganization, was fitly addressed by Colonel Sprague and General Meade.

On February 19th, the regular standing committees were newly appointed, and in the afternoon of the same day the Committee "on Eligibility," which was now composed of five members, submitted a majority report in respect to Messrs. Billings, Saunders, and Pierce, and a separate one concerning Mr. Richards, repeating the above-mentioned reasons why neither of them could be allowed to sit in the convention. Hereupon a long and most stormy debate, approaching very near to a combat, took place, chiefly between the leaders of the two opposite parties, till, the reports being put to the vote, they were adopted by a large majority. The beforenamed persons were thus ousted, and left the hall.

On February 20th, and the few succeeding days, the convention proceeded in its regular business, but principally in the work of framing the new constitution. This was submitted to the House, voted upon and adopted by a good majority, on February 25th. The delegates being then invited to sign the instrument, eight did so under protest, and nine refused altogether. This circumstance might serve as an indication to show the number of those who opposed the new constitution, either in regard to its general or particular measures. But a resolution having been adopted and spread on the journal, "that such members as refused to sign the constitution should not receive per diem, nor mileage," several among them reluctantly subscribed their names to the document, while the others still refused.

The chief provisions of this instrument, as distinguished from the constitution formerly obtaining in Florida, and those of other States, are the Bill of Rights and the article on franchise, as they refer to the negro, who is here recognized to be politically and socially equal to the white man. The same was the purport of that other constitution, which this same convention (or that part of it who remained in session during the absence of the fifteen delegates) had framed and adopted three weeks before. The Democratic papers of the State pronounced the second instrument to be less rigid and objectionable than the first, and a large portion of the Republican party condemned it indeed as being too mild, so much so, that a committee of ministers of the African Methodist Episcopal Church issued a circular, and dispatched a number of speakers, to persuade the negroes throughout the State to prefer living "under military rule, guided by the reconstruction acts of Congress," and to oppose the ratification of the State constitution framed by the late convention, chiefly on account "of its enlargement of the franchise in favor of the disloyal," namely, the whites who had fought for secession, or their sympathizers. The second constitution seems

certainly milder in prescribing the formula of the test-oath which it imposes on the electors before they are registered, it being both more simple and shorter; as appears from the first of the following sections of the article "on suffrage and eligibility:"

Section 1. Every male person of the age of twenty-one years and upward, of whatever race, color, nationality, or previous condition, who shall, at the time of offering to vote, be a citizen of the United States, or who shall have declared his intention to become such in conformity to the laws of the United States, and who shall have resided and had his habitation, domicile, home, and place of permanent abode in Florida for one year, and in the county for six months, next preceding the election at which he shall offer to vote, shall in such county be deemed a qualified elector at all elections under this constitution. Every elector shall at the time of his registration take and subscribe to the following oath:

I, —, do solemnly swear that I will support, protect, and defend the Constitution and Government of the United States, and the constitution and government of the State of Florida, against all enemies, foreign or domestic; that I will bear true faith, loyalty, and allegiance to the same, any ordinances or resolution of any State convention or Legislature to the contrary notwithstanding. So help me God.

Yet, concerning the equality of negroes and whites in political rights, as well as in every part of common and social life, the intent of the framers of the first constitution could not have been fuller nor more comprehensive than is expressed in the following resolution, offered by the leader of the party called Conservative, who framed the second, and, on his motion, adopted by them:

Resolved, That no Legislature shall ever have the power to prohibit by law any class of persons, on account of race, or color, or previous condition, from having and exercising equal rights and privileges on all public conveyances, in all places of public worship and amusement, and in all public conveniences and accommodations created by charter or license under the laws of this State, nor to pass any law that would, in the least, infringe upon that civil and political equality of all citizens, established and secured forever by the provisions of our constitution: And be it further Resolved, That in all counties where the white and colored populations are equal, or where the colored predominates, the venire for all jurors shall be made up of an equal number of jurors from each population, and in counties where the colored is less than the white population, the venire for jurors shall be made out in the proportion of the two populations.

This second constitution, which the fifteen delegates had, perhaps, prepared at Monticello during their absence from the convention, as it seems too full and elaborate to admit of its contents having been digested in three days, goes into details through all the departments of organic State law. It provides also that the State of Florida shall ever remain under the Federal Government of the United States. We subjoin the section containing this provision and a few others, taken from the Declaration of Rights, as follows:

DECLARATION OF RIGHTS.

All men are, by nature, free and equal, and have certain inalienable rights, among which are those of enjoying and defending life and liberty, acquiring, possessing, and protecting property, and pursuing and obtaining safety and happiness.

Section 2. All political power is inherent in the people. Government is instituted for the protection, security, and benefit of its citizens; and they have the right to alter or amend the same whenever the public good may require it, but the paramount allegiance of every citizen is due to the Federal Government, and no power exists with the people of this State to dissolve its connection therewith.

Section 3. This State shall ever remain a member of the American Union: the people thereof a part of the American nation, and any attempt from whatever source, or upon whatever pretence, to dissolve said Union, or to sever said nation, shall be resisted with the whole power of the State.

In compliance with an ordinance purposely inserted in this organic law, as soon as a majority of the delegates had voted for its adoption, their president gave public notice through the press that the new State constitution would be submitted to the people for their ratification or rejection in a general election to be held on the first Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of May, 1868. Having thus completed its work, the convention adjourned. Before adjourning, however, it organized itself again into a Nominating Convention, the president of the former presiding also in the latter, but not all the delegates were admitted in it. This exclusion was stoutly opposed by several even of those who were admitted, and who, on that account, left the assembly, refusing to take part in its proceedings. This meeting nominated Harrison Reed for Governor, William G. Gleason for Lieutenant-Governor, C. M. Hamilton for member of Congress, all three outside of the Constitutional Convention. It nominated also the three presidential electors from among its own members. No other State officers were nominated, since the new constitution confers upon the Governor the power of appointing all of them in every department of State administration, constables only excepted. These, it is ordained, "shall be elected by the registered voters," each county being "entitled to at least two constables." The number of State officers to be appointed by the Governor (and confirmed by the Senate), with the salaries assigned to some of them, was condensed in a list, published in the papers of April 9, 1868, as follows:

One Chief and two Associate Justices for life, with salaries of four thousand dollars per annum.

Seven Circuit Judges for eight years, salaries of three thousand five hundred dollars per annum.

A Secretary of State, Attorney-General, Comptroller, Treasurer, Surveyor-General, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Adjutant-General, and Commissioner of Immigration, for four years, with salaries of three thousand dollars per annum.

All commissioned officers of the militia.

And the following county officers:

ASSESSORS OF TAXES, Collectors of Revenue, County Treasurers, County Surveyors, Superintendents of Common Schools, and five County Commissioners in each county, "each of whom shall hold his office for two years;" and "such officers shall be subject to removal by the Governor when in his judgment the public welfare will be advanced thereby."

County Court Judges to hold office four years.

"As many Justices of the Peace as he may deem necessary;" and "Justices of the Peace will hold their

offices during good behavior, subject to removals by the Governor at his discretion."

Seven State Attorneys, one in each judicial circuit, to hold office four years.

County Sheriffs and Clerks of Circuit Courts to hold office four years.

The general election, to be held on the ratification of the new constitution, was ordered and its conduct provided for, by General Meade, in the following order of March 16, 1868:

General Orders, No. 41.

HEADQUARTERS, THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT }
(DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, FLORIDA, AND ALABAMA), }
ATLANTA, GA., March 16, 1868. }

I. *Whereas*, The Constitutional Convention recently assembled in Tallahassee, Fla., in compliance with General Orders No. 110, issued from these headquarters, December 28, 1867, did, in pursuance of the Acts of Congress mentioned in said orders, proceed to frame a constitution and civil government for the State of Florida, and provide for the publication of said constitution; and did further, by an ordinance of said convention adopted February 25, 1868, submit for ratification to the persons in said State registered and to be registered as voters under the Acts of Congress specified in said General Orders, at an election to be conducted according to the provisions of said acts, to be held in the various counties of said State, on the first Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of May, A. D. 1868;

II. *And whereas*, By an Act of Congress which became a law March 12, 1868, it is provided that, hereafter, any election authorized by the Acts of Congress aforesaid, shall be decided by a majority of the votes actually cast; and at the election, in which the question of the adoption or rejection of any constitution is submitted, any person duly registered in the State may vote in the election district where he offers to vote when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding such election upon presentation of his certificate of registration, his affidavit, or other satisfactory evidence of registration, under such regulations as the district commander may prescribe;

III. *And whereas*, Said Acts of Congress provide that the election for ratification of said constitution shall be conducted by the officers or persons appointed or to be appointed by the commanding general, and at the date fixed by said convention:

IV. *It is ordered*, That an election be held in the State of Florida on the first Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of May, 1868, at which the registered voters of said State may vote for or against the constitution submitted to them by the ordinance aforesaid. Those voting in favor of the constitution shall have written or printed on their ballots the words "For the Constitution," and those voting against the constitution shall have written or printed on their ballots the words "Against the Constitution."

V. *It shall be the duty* of the Boards of Registration in Florida, in accordance with said Acts, commencing fourteen days prior to the election herein ordered, and giving reasonable public notice of the time and place thereof, to revise, for a period of five days, the registration lists, and upon being satisfied that any person not entitled thereto has been registered, to strike the name of such person from the list, and such person shall not be allowed to vote. And such Boards shall also, during the same period, add to such registry the names of all persons who, at that time, possess the qualifications required by said Acts, who have not been already registered.

In deciding who are to be stricken from or added to the registration lists, the Boards will be guided by the Acts of Congress relating to reconstruction, and their attention is especially called to the Supplementary Act which became a law July 19, 1867.

VI. Said election shall be held in each county in said State under the superintendence of the Boards

of Registration, as provided by law, and polls will be opened, after due and sufficient notice, at as many points in each county, not exceeding three, as, in the opinion of said Boards, may be required for the convenience of voters. And in any city, or other place, where there is a large number of voters, it is hereby made the duty of said Boards to open as many polls as may be necessary to enable the voters to cast their votes without unreasonable delay.

VII. Any person, duly registered in the State as a voter, may vote in any county in the State where he offers to vote, when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding the election. When he offers to vote in the county where he was registered, and his name appears on the list of registered voters, he shall not be subject to question or challenge, except for the purpose of indentification, or as to residence. And any person so registered, who may have removed from the county in which he was registered, shall be permitted to vote in any county in the State to which he has removed, when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding the election, upon presentation of his certificate of registration, or upon making affidavit before a member of the Board of Registration, or a judge or manager of the election, that he is registered as a voter, naming the county in which he is so registered; that he has resided in the county where he offers to vote for ten days next preceding the election, and that he has not voted at this election. Blanks for such affidavits will be supplied by the Boards of Registration, and the name of the voter making oath must be indorsed on his ballot, and all such affidavits must be forwarded with the returns of the election.

VIII. The polls shall be opened at each voting-place, during the days of election, at 7 o'clock A. M., and close at 9 o'clock P. M., and shall be kept open between those hours, without intermission or adjournment.

IX. All public bar-rooms, saloons, and other places for the sale of liquor at retail, at the several county seats, and at other polling-places, shall be closed from 6 o'clock of the evening preceding the election, until 6 o'clock of the morning after the last day of the election. Any person violating this order shall be subject to fine or imprisonment. Sheriffs and their deputies and municipal officers will be held responsible for the strict enforcement of this prohibition by the arrest of all persons who may transgress the same.

X. The sheriff of each county is hereby required to be present at the county seat, and to appoint deputies to be present at each polling-place in his county, during the whole time that the polls are kept open, until the election is completed, and is made responsible that no interference with the judges of election, or other interruption of good order, shall occur. And any sheriff, or deputy sheriff, or other civil officer, failing to perform with energy and good faith the duty required of him by this order, will, upon report made by the judges of the election, be arrested and dealt with by military authority, and punished by fine or imprisonment.

XI. The commanding officer of the District of Florida will issue, through the Superintendent of Registration for this State, such detailed instructions as may be necessary to the conduct of said election in conformity with the Acts of Congress.

XII. The returns required by law to be made of the result of said election, to the commanding general of this military district, will be rendered, by the person appointed to superintend the same, through the commanding officer of the District of Florida, and in accordance with the detailed instructions already referred to.

XIII. No person who is a candidate for office at said election shall act as a registrar, judge, inspector, manager, clerk, or in any other official capacity connected with conducting election.

XIV. Violence, or threats of violence, or any oppressive or fraudulent means employed to prevent any person from exercising the right of suffrage, is

positively prohibited, and every person guilty of using the same shall, on conviction thereof before a military commission, be punished by fine or otherwise.

XV. No contract or agreement with laborers made for the purpose of controlling their votes, or of restraining them from voting, will be permitted to be enforced against them in this district.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

By a separate order dated March 17th, the General extended the provisions of the foregoing to the election for State officers also, prescribing "that at the same time and place at which an election shall be held in the State of Florida upon the ratification of the constitution submitted by said convention, an election shall also be held for the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, one member of Congress, State Senators and Representatives, and county officers," and that the last-named election "shall be conducted by the same persons and in the same manner" as the first.

The results of these elections were that the new constitution was ratified, and the above-named Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and member of Congress elected by the people with a large majority of votes, notwithstanding the seemingly strong opposition early set on foot, and long continued, on the part of the Democrats to hinder them. Complaints of illegality and fraud in the registration, or voting, were made after the election, and affidavits that false-bottomed boxes had been used in it were published by Democrats under the names of those who had constructed them; but counter-affidavits of the same persons, declaring the former to be false, were also published by the Republicans; and even a special committee of the Democratic party, "to whom was referred the matter of inquiring into the frauds committed at the late election," finally reported that "it would be utterly impossible for them to ascertain the number or quantity of said frauds."

As to the State Legislature, however, not a few of its members, both in the Senate and House of Representatives, were elected from among the Democrats; they being so styled in the return lists published at the time by Republican papers, to distinguish them from the other members whom they called after the name of their own party.

This Legislature, for whose first session the new constitution had fixed the 1st of June, 1868, met, and adopted the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, commonly known as "Article fourteen." In consequence of this, Florida was recognized as a State, and her representatives were allowed to take their seats in both halls of the Federal Congress, notwithstanding the veto of the President, who, on June 25th, returned the bill unsigned.

On June 29th, General Meade provided for the surrender of the government of Florida by the military power of the United States to the civil authority of the State, as follows:

General Orders, No. 92.

HEADQUARTERS, THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT }
 DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, FLORIDA, AND ALABAMA, }
 ATLANTA, GA., June 29, 1868.

Whereas, Official information has been received at these headquarters from the Governor-elect of the State of Florida, that the Legislature of said State, elected under the provisions of General Order No. 43, current series, from these headquarters, have assembled, and complied with the requisitions of the Act of Congress which became a law June 25, 1868, entitled "An act to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, to representation in Congress;" and *whereas* said act states that, on compliance with the conditions therein set forth by any State, the officers of said State, duly elected and qualified under the constitution thereof, shall be inaugurated without delay: *It is therefore ordered*,

1. That all civil officers, holding office in the State, whether by military appointment or by failure to have successors qualified, shall promptly yield their offices, and turn over to their properly elected and qualified successors all public property, archives, books, records, etc., belonging to the same.
2. Whenever the military commander of the sub-District of Florida is officially notified of the inauguration of the State government-elect, military authority under the Acts of Congress, known as the reconstruction laws, will bear an end in said State; and it is made the duty of the sub-district commander to transfer every thing appertaining to the government of said State to the proper civil officers, and to abstain in future upon any pretext whatever from any interference with or control over the civil authorities of the State in the persons and property of the citizens thereof.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

On July 1st, the civil governor, who held his office by virtue of the State constitution obtaining since 1865, notified the Governor elected under the auspices of the new constitution, as follows:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, TALLAHASSEE, FLA., }
 July 2, 1868.

His Excellency Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida:

SIR: I have this moment received an order from General Meade to surrender the government of the State to you, and I am ready to make the surrender accordingly.

Please call at the Executive office.

Yours, most respectfully,

D. S. WALKER.

The change of persons occupying the chair of the State government took place on the same day.

On July 2d, the new Governor addressed to the military commander of the sub-District of Florida the following communication:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, TALLAHASSEE, FLA., }
 July 2, 1868.

COLONEL: I have the honor to inform you that the State government provided under the new constitution for the State of Florida, in accordance with the reconstruction laws of Congress, has been duly inaugurated, and all the conditions precedent to the admission of the State into the Federal Union have been complied with, and our Representatives admitted to Congress.

With high respect, I am, colonel,

Your obedient servant,

HARRISON REED, Governor.

To Colonel JOHN T. SPRAGUE,

Commanding District of Florida, Jacksonville.

The 4th of July, 1868, was celebrated in

Florida in an unusual manner. On that day, and in the same hour, by one continued act, her State government was both formally surrendered by the military to the civil power, and inaugurated in the person of the Governor newly elected by the people. The ceremony took place within the hall of the House of Representatives, in the presence of the members of both branches of the Legislature, who had assembled there in joint session for the occasion, and of as many people as the room could hold.

On July 27th the War Department at Washington issued the following order:

The commanding generals in the Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Military Districts, having officially reported that Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida have complied with the reconstruction acts, including the act of June 25, 1868, and that consequently so much of the act of March 2, 1867, and all acts supplementary thereto, providing for military districts, subject to the military authority of the United States, as therein provided, have become incorporated in said States, and commanding generals have ceased exercising military powers conferred by said acts; therefore, the following changes will be made in the organization and command of military districts and geographical departments:

First. The Second and Third Military Districts having ceased to exist, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida will constitute the Department of the South, General Meade to command, with headquarters at Atlanta, Georgia.

In execution of this arrangement, and by direction of General Meade, Colonel Sprague, the sub-commander in Florida, issued an order dated August 4th, declaring her condition in military matters to be now changed from sub-district into district, and this to be officially called after her own name. By a further order of the 5th, the colonel made a new distribution of the United States force under his command, by establishing three military posts at different points within the State, concentrating and stationing in each of them a sufficient number of men and officers to do duty.

The first session of the Legislature of Florida under the new constitution lasted for about two months, and on August 6th both Houses adjourned to the 3d of November. During that period they had transacted a vast amount of business on almost every matter of public interest.

As the opening of the next regular session, fixed by the constitution for the first Tuesday of January, 1869, was drawing near, while several Senators and Representatives had in the mean time resigned, or been appointed to offices whose functions were by the constitution declared incompatible with those of members of the Legislature, Governor Reed and George J. Alden, Secretary of State, issued, on October 28th, a joint proclamation, declaring the seats before occupied by said Senators and Assemblymen vacant, and ordering that, in the districts and counties represented by them, an election should be held on December 29, 1868, for filling up their respective vacancies in either House.

According to their adjournment of August 6th, the Legislature met on November 3d. By a proclamation of this date, however, Governor Reed convened them for that same day at eight o'clock, P. M., in extraordinary session, to deliberate on special matters, as follows:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, TALLAHASSEE, FLA., }
November 3, 1868.

Whereas, There has been no appropriation made for the expenses of the joint convention for the appointment of electors of President and Vice-President of the United States; and whereas, Serious obstacles to the administration of justice exist on account of the want of general power in the courts to empanel juries under existing laws; and whereas, Power should be granted for the appointment of a Board of Commissioners to equalize and secure uniformity in the value of taxable property throughout the State:

Now, therefore, In order that such legislation may be had as will secure these ends, I, Harrison Reed, Governor of the State of Florida, by virtue of the power in me vested by the constitution of this State, do hereby convene the Legislature in extraordinary session in the capitol at Tallahassee, on Tuesday, the third day of November, at 8 P. M., for the purpose above-mentioned, and for the confirmation of such appointments as may be submitted to the Senate.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the great seal of the State to be affixed this third day of November, A. D. 1868.

HARRISON REED, Governor of Florida.

By the Governor:

Attest—GEORGE J. ALDEN, Secretary of State.

By a message sent to both Houses on the same day, the Governor called their attention to the fact, that the senate as yet could do no business, the constitution fixing the number of its members at twenty-four, and ordaining that a majority of the House constitutes a quorum, whereas, those who had now presented themselves as Senators were twelve, and even four of these could have no part in the business, they having been appointed to, and actually holding offices, whose functions the constitution itself declares incompatible with those of Senators. Among these four was George J. Alden, the Secretary of State, who had issued the said joint proclamation, declaring the vacancy of his own seat in the Senate, and ordering an election in his district to fill it; and Horatio Jenkins, Jr., who was County Judge of Alachua and Levy Counties.

A bill providing for a per diem and mileage to be paid the members of the Legislature for this session passed both Houses soon after their meeting, and was sent to the Governor for his signature. On November 5th, he returned it unsigned, with the following message:

STATE OF FLORIDA, EXECUTIVE OFFICE, }
TALLAHASSEE, November 5, 1868. }

TO THE ASSEMBLY: I am reluctantly compelled by constitutional obligations to return, without my approval, the bill originating in the Assembly, entitled "A bill to provide for the pay and mileage of the members and officers, and other expenses of the convention."

On the 6th day of August last, the two Houses of the Legislature met in joint convention, and adjourned to meet again on the 3d day of November instant. It was a self-imposed duty as members of the

Legislature. The constitution limits the pay of the members of the Legislature to five hundred dollars *per annum*. That sum was drawn by each member during the first quarter of his official term, and no further pay can, in my judgment, be received without a palpable violation of the constitution. This bill seeks to pay each member in attendance five dollars per diem, and five dollars for every twenty miles travelled, in addition to the constitutional mileage.

Again, the official record discloses the fact that the Senate passed this bill while sitting without a constitutional quorum, there being but seven members of a body constituted of twenty-four.

I fully recognize the right of each member in attendance to receive from the treasury "ten cents per mile for each mile travelled from their respective places of residence, and the same to return."

Very respectfully, etc.,

HARRISON REED, Governor.

This bill was immediately voted upon and passed again by a two-thirds vote in both Houses, "the objections of his Excellency the Governor to the contrary notwithstanding."

On November 6th the above-named Mr. Jenkins, who still continued sitting as Senator, appeared before the House of Representatives as a citizen of the State of Florida, and preferred charges for the impeachment of Governor Reed, as follows:

Inasmuch as I, Horatio Jenkins, Jr., a citizen of Florida, having obtained much and sundry knowledge proving that Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, has been guilty of many crimes and misdemeanors, and the proof being such that I sincerely believe him to be guilty, I prefer these reasons for impeachment:

1. He has been guilty of falsehood and lying, while transacting business with members of the Legislature, and other officers of the State.

2. I charge him with incompetency, inasmuch as he has filled commissions to officers in blank, and other irresponsible persons have issued them.

3. He has issued a proclamation declaring many seats of the Legislature vacant, before the members duly elected and returned had resigned or their legal term of service expired.

4. He has been guilty of embezzlement, having taken from the State Treasury securities and money, and sold such securities, and then failed to return a portion or all of the proceeds of the sale to the Treasury.

5. He has been guilty of corruption and bribery, having bartered and sold prominent offices in the State to sundry persons for money to him in hand paid, and nominated such persons to the Senate for confirmation. For and in consideration of these and many other crimes and misdemeanors which have come to my knowledge, I ask at the hands of the Assembly the impeachment for high crimes and misdemeanors of Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida.

HORATIO JENKINS, JR.

Hereupon the House, by a vote of twenty-five yeas and seven nays, "Resolved, That Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, be, and he is hereby, impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors in office." A committee of three was then appointed, who proceeded to the bar of the Senate, and, in "the name of the Assembly and of all the people of Florida, impeached Harrison Reed, Governor of the State of Florida, of high crimes and misdemeanors in office, and demanded of the Senate that they should take order to make him appear before that body to answer for the same, and announced

that the Assembly would present articles of impeachment, and make them good." Another committee of three was appointed "to prepare and report articles of impeachment against Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, with power to send for persons, papers, and records, and to take testimony under oath." The sergeant-at-arms was sent to serve on Mr. Reed "a certified copy of the charges and resolution relative to his impeachment;" while a committee of two was appointed "to wait immediately upon the Lieutenant-Governor, and furnish him with a copy of the resolution in reference to the impeachment of the Governor," and the Clerk ordered to "deliver to the Comptroller of Public Accounts, the State Treasurer, and the Secretary of State, a certified copy of the resolution, as passed the Assembly, relative to the impeachment of Harrison Reed, Governor." This being done, the Assembly adjourned to an early hour next morning.

In the evening of November 6th, the Lieutenant-Governor, who in this capacity was also president of the Senate, asserted his claim to the Executive Department and the exercise of the functions of Governor by the following proclamation:

EXECUTIVE CHAMBER, TALLAHASSEE, FLA., }
November 6, 1868. }

Whereas, The Assembly of Florida, as a duly-organized body, in extraordinary session, held by virtue of a proclamation issued by the Governor of Florida on the 3d day of November, A. D. 1868, have impeached Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, of high crimes and misdemeanors in office; and *whereas*, under the provisions of the Constitution of the State of Florida, the said Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, is debarred from exercising the functions of the Executive office of the State, and the administration thereof devolves upon the Lieutenant-Governor:

Now, therefore, I, William H. Gleason, Lieutenant-Governor of the State of Florida, do issue my proclamation taking possession of the Executive Department of the government in all its parts.

I hereby call upon all citizens of the State to support the government, obey the laws of the State, and preserve peace and quiet.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the great seal of the State to be affixed this 6th day of November, A. D. 1868. W. H. GLEASON,

Lieutenant and Acting Governor.

By the Lieutenant and Acting Governor:

Attest—GEORGE J. ALDEN, Secretary of State.

On November 7th the Assembly adopted a resolution, the Senate concurring, to adjourn "until the Tuesday after the first Monday in January, 1869, at 12 o'clock M.;" but the Senate refused to concur, when Mr. Gleason, assuming now to act as Governor, and using the power which the constitution gives the Governor in such cases, sent to both Houses a written message, "declaring the Legislature adjourned to the first Monday of January, 1869."

Governor Reed, however, stood his ground unmoved, and continued to perform the duties of his office, having, on November 6th, ap-

pointed Jonathan C. Gibbs, a negro, as Secretary of State, in the place of George J. Alden. He regarded his impeachment as not in existence, because, when the committee of the Assembly formally impeached him at the bar of the Senate, and the Senate entertained the act of impeachment, there were no more than eight Senators present. On November 7th, he issued, therefore, a proclamation, declaring that he was rightfully exercising the duties of Governor, and should do so "until the judicial tribunals of the State determined otherwise." Two days after, making use of a power expressly given the Governor by the constitution of Florida, Mr. Reed addressed to the Justices of the Supreme Court of the State a lengthy communication, wherein, laying before them the journals of the two Houses, with their official proceedings in regard to his impeachment, he pointed to the parts of the constitution that may have a bearing on the matter, stated the position which he had taken in it, and proposed the two following questions:

1. Whether a Legislature of the State of Florida, consisting of a "Senate" and "Assembly," vested with the legislative authority of the State, has convened in extraordinary session under the proclamation of the Governor, of November 3, A. D. 1868.

2. Admitting, under the several provisions of the constitution referred to, that a Legislature of the State, consisting of a Senate and Assembly duly organized and vested with the legislative authority of the State, had convened in extraordinary session, under the proclamation aforesaid, and were, under the constitution, competent to transact legislative business, are the proceedings of said Legislature, as shown by said exhibits B and C, in so far as they relate to my impeachment as Governor of the State of Florida, of constitutional validity of force, and am I, under section 15 of article v., and section 9 of article xvi., disqualified from performing the duties of my office, by reason of the proceedings had and taken, as aforesaid, in reference to my impeachment?

Upon these questions he requested them to give him their answers in writing, and urged them to do so on account of the situation of affairs, saying: "I am continuing to act as Governor, and the said Gleason is also assuming to act as Governor; the officers of the State do not know, in this unsettled and anomalous condition of things, whom to recognize as at the head of the Executive Department; the administration of the State government is obstructed, and the peace and welfare of the whole State jeopardized."

Not to mention upon this point the many occurrences which took place at Tallahassee in the night of November 6th and in the following days, the official paper of November 12th informed the public as follows: "Thus the matter stands at this writing—Governor Reed occupying the Executive Chamber, and Jonathan C. Gibbs occupying the Secretary of State's apartment in the Capitol, and Governor Gleason and Secretary Alden, who are under the constructive charge of the sheriff, performing their official duties in apartments at the City Hotel."

The paper which Governor Reed had sent to the Supreme Court on November 9th was com-

municated by them to Mr. Gleason, who answered that, "After Governor Reed's formal impeachment by the Assembly, and the recognition of himself as Lieutenant and Acting Governor by both bodies of the Legislature," the Supreme Court had nothing to do in the matter, and he therefore "declined to submit any questions connected with the matter of impeachment to their honors." On November 16th Mr. Gleason issued another proclamation, in which, after detailing many reasons to show that, pending the impeachment, Mr. Reed could not exercise the functions of the Executive, and that they must be performed by himself, he concluded as follows:

Now, therefore, I, William H. Gleason, Lieutenant and Acting Governor of Florida, do issue this, my proclamation, declaring that said Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, is deemed by the constitution "under arrest, and disqualified from performing any of the duties of his office until acquitted by the Senate," and that "the power and duties of said office" have devolved upon me:

I call upon all citizens to aid me in exercising the powers and discharging the duties thus devolved upon me by the constitution, and to put down the lawlessness and anarchy which must inevitably ensue if any man impeached or indicted, however exalted his station, may refuse to submit to the arrest imposed by the constitution, or to the only tribunal appointed by the constitution for his trial. If one man may do this, all may do it, and, this being done, law and order will cease to exist. Anarchy, lawlessness, and violence, will reign supreme. Against such a doctrine, leading most certainly to such dreadful results, I call upon all law-abiding citizens to sustain me, and stand by the constitution and laws of our State.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the great seal of the State to be affixed, this 16th day of November, A. D. 1868. WM. H. GLEASON,

Lieutenant and Acting Governor.

By the Lieutenant and Acting Governor:

Attest—GEORGE J. ALDEN, Secretary of State.

On November 24th the Justices of the Supreme Court gave their written answers, separately, to the first of the two questions proposed by Governor Reed. They, especially two of them, consider the subject-matter at length and thoroughly, in regard to fact as well as law and precedents, and, though they consider it from different points of view, all three arrive at the same conclusion, which is unanimous. Their answers were published in the papers of December 3d. Associate-Justice James D. Westcott says: "It is, therefore, my opinion upon the facts submitted in your communication and upon the authorities and precedents cited, that twelve Senators did not constitute a quorum to do business; and hence that there was no Senate within the meaning of this clause of the constitution, and that "a Legislature of the State of Florida, consisting of a Senate and Assembly, vested with the Legislative authority of the State," did not convene in extraordinary session under your proclamation of November 3, 1868."

Chief-Justice E. M. Randall, concurring fully in this, discusses the matter on his own ac-

count, and concludes: "We are, therefore, of the opinion that, even upon the assumption that the proceeding of impeachment is not properly "legislative business," and that it may be presented at a called session, without the actually-expressed consent of both Houses, there has not been an effective impeachment and suspension from the performance of official duties."

Associate-Justice O. B. Hart entirely agrees with both of the others, and for himself condenses the whole matter in this sentence: "Until a majority of the Assemblymen and Senators provided for by the constitution assemble, there can be no Legislature."

On a writ of *quo warranto*, a suit of ouster was instituted before the Supreme Court by the Attorney-General against Lieutenant-Governor Gleason, on the ground that, at the time of his election, he was ineligible, he being a non-resident of Florida. He denied the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court in his case; alleged, moreover, that he "could not obtain justice in this Court;" and used other means to escape; but these things availed not, and he having been granted a certain time "to show cause why final judgment of ouster should not be rendered against him," his counsel, on December 14th, filed a plea of eighteen counts, claiming that, before reconstruction, the constitution of Florida, and the State itself, did not exist, but was only provisional, and, therefore, that Mr. Gleason, though ineligible by the laws of Florida, was eligible by the law of Congress in the reconstruction acts, and by the order of the district military commander. After hearing his plea, the Supreme Court rendered against him a judgment of ouster, "restraining him from performing the duties of Lieutenant-Governor." Upon this he filed a writ of error, resting on the same ground with the plea referred to above, and appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States. Chief-Justice Randall refusing to sign a "writ of citation," Mr. Gleason proceeded to Washington, where he obtained of Associate-Justice Miller a "citation writ" returnable on the first Monday of December, 1869. This reinstated him as Lieutenant-Governor of Florida for the time.

The election ordered by Governor Reed's proclamation of October 28th, for the purpose of filling the many vacant seats in the Senate and House of Representatives, having been held on December 29th, and the vacancies filled, the Legislature assembled on January 5, 1869, the day fixed for its second session by the new constitution.

Upon their meeting in January, 1869, both the Senators and Assemblymen seemed animated by a quite different spirit from that which guided them in November, 1868, in reference to Mr. Reed's impeachment. Whatever its grounds, they now regarded it as not existing, and considered Mr. Reed to be in the legal possession of the Executive office of Florida. In the

Senate, wherein Lieutenant-Governor Gleason was presiding again, the first resolution offered, and adopted by a vote of ten yeas to one nay, was a plainly-implied condemnation of the impeachment proceedings, as follows:

Resolved, That the Senate recognize no other Journal of its proceedings for this session than the Journal commencing Tuesday, January 5, 1869, and that all other so-called Journals appearing in or attached to, be expunged from its records.

Before the voting on this resolution, another Senator had even proposed a substitute, though it was withdrawn, declaring that "there was no Legislature convened in the State in extraordinary session in November last." As to the House of Assembly, where the impeachment had originated, its very first act, upon its meeting, was the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the Speaker to wait upon his Excellency Harrison Reed, and notify him that the Assembly is in session, and ready to receive any communications he may wish to make.

On the first two days of the session, several resolutions and substitutes were indeed offered in the House, purporting the appointment of more or less numerous committees to investigate the charges preferred against Mr. Reed, preparing, as it were, materials for future impeachment, if there was cause; but they were successively postponed, or not acted upon, till, on January 6th, the following preamble and resolution were adopted by a vote of 30 yeas to 5 nays:

Whereas, It is known to this Assembly to be publicly alleged that Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, has done and committed acts wrongful and unlawful: therefore, be it

Resolved by the Assembly of the State of Florida, That a committee of five be appointed by the Speaker, to inquire into and investigate the conduct, acts, and doings of the said Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, and that the said committee be empowered and authorized to send for persons and papers, and take testimony upon oath in the premises, and that the said committee be required to report the results of its investigation at its earliest convenience during the present session, and that it accompany its report with the testimony taken in the said matter.

Even this, however, had no result, as a motion was immediately made "to reconsider the vote just taken, and that the reconsideration be laid on the table," which was agreed to.

As each House separately, amongst its own members, condemned the impeachment proceedings, and recognized Mr. Reed to be rightfully exercising the functions of Governor, so did they in joint action together. On January 7th the Assembly adopted the following resolution:

Resolved by the Assembly, the Senate concurring, That a committee of three be appointed by the Speaker, to act with a similar committee on the part of the Senate, to wait upon his Excellency the Governor, and inform him that the Senate and Assembly are organized, and ready to receive any communication that he may be pleased to make.

And shortly after the Senate sent a message to

the House that it had "appointed a committee of two to wait on the Governor, and inform him that both Houses are organized and ready to receive any communication he may wish to make." At noon on the same day the Senate entered the Assembly Hall for the purpose of receiving the Governor's message, when the president of the Senate took the chair, the State officers and some others being, on motion, invited to seats within the bar upon the occasion. A committee of three representing each House having then been appointed by the chair "to wait on the Governor, and inform him that the Legislature was assembled in joint meeting to receive any communication he might wish to make," they executed their mission, and on their return presented to the Assembly the Governor in person, when he delivered his message.

In this document Mr. Reed speaks hopefully, and exhibits a pleasing picture of the condition of Florida, especially in that the animosity of her citizens against each other for political opposition had lost much of its sharpness and intensity, and their minds appeared now mutually softened, saying: "Throughout our beloved State violent opposition to Federal authority and republican government has ceased, and all classes of the people yield obedience to the laws. The newly-enfranchised citizen of color sits side by side with his white fellow in the Cabinet, the halls of legislation, the jury-box, and on the Boards of Commissioners—occupies the magistrate's chair, and executes the decrees of courts, without exciting violence or occasioning asperity. The change since your last session is marvellous, and calls for grateful recognition. Political antagonisms still exist, and must ever exist among a free people; but toleration and concession have taken the place of intolerance and proscription."

As to the finances, he sets down the State bonded debt at \$578,045.08, and her resources, chiefly from new bonds and the estimated revenue for 1869, at \$525,000, leaving a small balance to be provided for. To the \$132,000 of the Florida bonds held by the United States Indian Trust Fund at Washington, he opposes her claim of nearly or quite that amount, against the United States, for expenditures in the Seminole war. The manner of paying her current expenses in scrip seems to have been highly detrimental to the State, since the Governor urges the necessity of forbidding all further issues of scrip and affirms: "If we once resume the payment of all expenses in cash, as they accrue, we shall reduce these expenses from 25 to 50 per cent., and place our bonds at par." He concludes this subject, saying: "Wise and judicious legislation at this session may establish the fact that no Southern State resumes its position in the Union under better financial auspices, or with more available resources."

On taxation, he recommends the establishment of a Board of Equalization, in order to

secure uniform valuation of property, the same class of lands being now valued in some counties "at one-half the amount it is in others." He recommends also the punishment of revenue officers, "by fine and imprisonment," who fail "to make returns at the time prescribed by law."

There being above ten million acres of the State domain yet undisposed of, and several millions more not even surveyed, the Governor calls upon the Legislature to take effective measures for making such vast resources available. As the best means for arriving at this result, he asks them to invite and encourage immigration of capital and labor into Florida, especially from the Northern States, even by ordering pamphlets to be gratuitously distributed, exhibiting distinctly "the resources and peculiar advantages of every portion of the State." In this connection he requests them to favor the promoters of a State Agricultural Society, which "is now in the full tide of successful experiment," and to encourage them by causing the "reports, transactions, essays, addresses, and other like papers of this society" to be published at the charge of the State.

He recommends the construction of two railway lines, the one surveyed since 1857, and for which 600,000 acres of United States land were granted, the other only projected; as both of them, by connecting most important points within the State, and facilitating the communication with others, would add immensely to her population, and, of consequence, to her traffic and general prosperity.

For a State penitentiary, Mr. Reed informs the Legislature that he has obtained from the proper authorities at Washington the use of the United States Arsenal property at Chattahoochee, where nine criminals are confined already, he having made for that purpose temporary arrangements; but says that "provision should be made at this session for fitting up the buildings with cells and accommodations for at least one hundred convicts."

He requests them also to provide a home for friendless and helpless persons, either by taking care of them all in one common building at the expense of the State, or of the counties from which they severally come, or even by granting to each of the counties a suitable tract of State land, requiring them "to make permanent provisions" for those among their respective inhabitants who are in that condition.

In regard to the militia, Governor Reed says that the presence of Federal troops rendered its organization unnecessary; adding, that "several volunteer companies of citizens, both white and colored, had been enrolled, and had selected their officers, but, in the sensitive condition of the popular mind, he had deemed it unwise to accept these organizations." He believes, however, that the establishment of republican government will soon take a firmer footing, "when a thorough enrolment and organization of the militia may be safely had."

He renews the recommendation of his previous message "for the amendment of the constitution, by striking out Section 27 of Article XVI." This section provides that "owners of property sold under the sequestration act of the so-called Confederate Congress, subsequent to January 10, 1861, and prior to May 1, 1865," are entitled "to file a bill in equity, and obtain judgment against the State for all damages sustained by said sale and detention of property."

In order to save for the State the cost of printing in matters which are brought before the Legislature, but in which she is not interested, the Governor recommends, "that all bills introduced for private or local purposes be required to be printed and furnished at the expense of the parties for whom the benefit is sought."

There seems to be good reason to hope that Governor Reed's anticipations concerning the welfare of Florida will be realized.

FORCE, PETER, an American historian, journalist and book-collector, born in New Jersey, November 26, 1790; died in Washington, January 23, 1868. When a child, he removed with his parents to New York City, where he learned the printer's art, and where he remained till he was twenty-five years of age. In November, 1815, he became a citizen of Washington, D. C., and five years later commenced the publication of the *National Calendar*, an annual volume of statistics, State and national, which he continued till 1836. Even before commencing the publication of this work he had begun to collect books and papers on American history and antiquities, and his views of the great importance and permanent value of a complete collection of every thing bearing on this subject were strengthened and increased with every year of his life. He was the earliest collector in the field on topics connected with American history, and his solicitude to obtain every thing relating to the subject ended only with his life. In 1823 he commenced the publication of the *National Journal*, a political newspaper, which was the official journal during the administration of John Quincy Adams. He continued to publish this paper until February, 1830. From 1836 to 1840 he was mayor of the city of Washington, and in 1840, on the organization of the National Institute for the Promotion of Science, he was elected its first president. In 1833 he made a contract with the United States Government for the preparation and publication of a Documentary History of the American Colonies; a work for which his careful research, and his already large collection of newspapers, pamphlets, and official documents of the period of the Revolution and the years which preceded it, eminently qualified him. It was his plan, in the inception of this vast work, to collect, in six series of six or more volumes each, all the documentary history of this country, from its

discovery in 1492, to the adoption of the Federal Constitution in 1789; but to secure the more ready coöperation of Congress—since no private means were adequate for such an undertaking—he commenced with the fourth series, covering the Stamp-Act controversy, and the initial history of the American Revolution (1765–1775). He prosecuted his work with so much vigor, that, between 1837 and 1844, he had completed this series in six folio volumes. He then entered with equal zeal upon the preparation of the fifth series, which was to extend from 1775 to 1778, and by the summer of 1853 had published three more volumes, bringing the history down to 1776, and had prepared for the press most of the remainder of this series, when the work was suddenly stopped by the refusal of Mr. Marcy, then Secretary of State, to approve the volumes thus prepared. Mr. Force was at this time sixty-three years of age, and this unexpected act of Secretary Marcy stunned him. He could not be persuaded to go on with the work, or to make any effort to have the Secretary's decision reversed. Thus it came to pass that the one man whose knowledge on this subject was encyclopædic, and whose collections and notes for its preparation were more complete than any other's could be, was prevented from putting into available shape the material from which our early national history must be drawn. But though Mr. Force never resumed the studies which had occupied him for twenty of the best years of his life, he had not lost his interest in American history, as the publication of four large volumes of historical (political) tracts, of the Revolutionary period, and his eager investigations of all points of the early history of the country, fully evinced. Meantime his accumulation of books relative to the history of America went on. Five spacious rooms of a large building were occupied with his books and pamphlets, the former numbering over twenty thousand, and the latter thirty thousand; in addition to these he had over eight hundred volumes of newspapers, besides files innumerable, occupying the entire basement of his house. He had in person or through his agents ransacked the bookshops, and the farm-houses and garrets, from Maine to Savannah, for historical books and pamphlets, and though much of his collection was procured at a moderate expense, he never hesitated between paying a large price for a valuable book, and letting it pass out of his reach. He had actually mortgaged his real estate to obtain the means of making his collection more complete. It was, of course, rich in autographs, maps, portraits, and engravings, and among other things contained a copy of every army order issued by the War Department. But it is not so generally known that he had made another collection, on a different subject, which was more complete than perhaps any other in this country. He had a passion for the art of printing (his own early-

chosen profession), and had procured a ~~very~~ large number of books printed in the infancy of the art; thus he had nearly two hundred folios and quartos printed between 1467 and 1500, most of them remarkably fine copies, and several hundred volumes illustrating the printing of the sixteenth century.

In 1866, the librarian of Congress began to agitate with great earnestness the question of purchasing this vast, valuable, and unique library, to be incorporated with the library of Congress. Mr. Force had hitherto been unwilling to dispose of it, during his lifetime, but, feeling the desirableness of having it kept together and in a place of safety, he finally consented to accept from Congress the price which had been offered by parties in New York, and refused—one hundred thousand dollars. The bill making the appropriation passed through Congress without an objection, and in the spring of 1867 the library was removed to its future home. But the loss of his accustomed companions preyed upon the spirits of the venerable old man, and though he was as free to use the library of Congress, and his own collection as a part of it, as if it had still been in his possession, he gradually pined away, losing his appetite and strength, homesick for the loss of what had been the ruling passion of his life, till at last he passed away quietly and peacefully.

FRANCE, an empire in Europe. Emperor, Louis Napoleon (Napoleon III.), born April 20, 1808; chosen hereditary Emperor by the *plébiscite* of November 21 and November 22, 1852. Heir-apparent, Napoleon Eugene Louis Jean Joseph, born March 16, 1856. The area amounts to 209,428 square miles.

A remarkable fact in the movement of population is the decrease in the agricultural districts. It appears, from the tables of the last census (1866), that the population of France has increased in 178 arrondissements, and diminished in 185. This does not include the three departments annexed in 1860. In 50 arrondissements it has even considerably advanced, and in 128 the population has remained stationary. The specially agricultural arrondissements have suffered a diminution of two, four, six, eight, ten, and eleven thousand inhabitants. Thus, that of Argentin, in the Orne, has lost, during the twenty years, 14,000 (in 1846 it reckoned 110,000, and in 1866 only 96,000), and that of Vésoul suffered a decrease of 12,000 within the same period. On the other hand, all the arrondissements of which the population has increased possessed either important towns or some very active centres of manufacture. In the departments, in which an arrondissement includes a large town or manufacturing district, and in which there are also agricultural arrondissements, we find that the population increases in the former and diminishes in the latter.

The following table exhibits the population of each department (according to the census of

1866), and the number of deputies to which each department will be entitled during the next legislative period, which begins in 1869:

Departments.	Inhabitants.	No. of Deputies.	Departments.	Inhabitants.	No. of Deputies.	Departments.	Inhabitants.	No. of Deputies.
Ain.....	371,643	3	Gers.....	295,692	3	Puy de Dome....	571,690	5
Aisne.....	565,025	4	Gironde.....	701,856	6	Pyrénées (Basses)	435,486	3
Allier.....	376,164	3	Hérault.....	427,245	4	Pyrénées (Hautes)	240,252	2
Alpes (Basses)...	143,000	1	Ille-et-Vilaine...	592,609	4	Pyrénées-Orientales	189,490	2
Alpes (Hautes)...	122,117	1	Indre.....	277,860	2	Rhin (Bas).....	588,970	4
Alpes Maritimes...	198,818	2	Indre-et-Loire...	325,193	3	Rhin (Haut).....	530,285	4
Ardèche.....	387,174	3	Isère.....	581,386	5	Rhône.....	678,648	5
Ardennes.....	326,864	3	Jura.....	298,477	3	Saône (Haut)....	317,706	3
Ariège.....	250,436	2	Landes.....	306,693	2	Saône-et-Loire...	600,006	5
Aube.....	261,951	2	Loire-et-Cher....	275,757	2	Sarthe.....	463,619	4
Aude.....	288,626	3	Loire.....	537,103	4	Savoie.....	271,663	2
Aveyron.....	400,070	3	Loire (Haute)...	312,661	2	Savoie (Haute)...	273,768	2
Bouches-du-Rhône	547,903	4	Loire-Inférieure.	598,598	4	Seine.....	2,150,916	9
Calvados.....	474,909	4	Loiret.....	357,110	3	Seine-Inférieure.	792,768	6
Cantal.....	237,994	2	Lot.....	288,919	2	Seine-et-Marne...	354,400	3
Charente.....	378,218	3	Lot-et-Garonne...	327,962	3	Seine-et-Oise....	533,727	4
Charente-Inférieure	479,559	4	Lozère.....	137,263	1	Sèvres (Deux)...	338,155	3
Cher.....	336,613	3	Maine-et-Loire...	532,325	4	Somme.....	572,640	5
Corrèze.....	310,843	2	Manche.....	573,899	4	Tarn.....	355,513	3
Corse.....	259,861	2	Marne.....	390,809	3	Tarn-et-Garonne...	228,969	2
Côte-d'Or.....	382,762	3	Mayenne (Haute)...	250,096	2	Var.....	308,550	2
Côte-du-Nord....	641,210	5	Mayenne.....	367,855	3	Vaucluse.....	266,091	2
Creuse.....	274,057	2	Meurthe.....	428,387	3	Vendée.....	404,473	3
Dordogne.....	502,673	4	Meuse.....	301,653	3	Vienne.....	324,527	3
Doubs.....	298,072	2	Morbihan.....	501,084	3	Vienne (Haute)...	326,087	2
Drôme.....	324,231	3	Moselle.....	452,157	3	Vosges.....	418,998	3
Eure.....	394,467	3	Niévre.....	342,773	3	Yonne.....	372,589	3
Eure-et-Loire....	290,753	2	Nord.....	1,392,041	9			
Finistère.....	662,455	5	Oise.....	401,274	3			
Gard.....	429,747	4	Orne.....	414,618	4			
Garonne (Haute)...	493,777	4	Pas de Calais....	749,777	6			
						Total.....	38,067,094	292

The population of Algeria, according to the census of 1866, was as follows:

PROVINCES.	Europeans.	Natives.	In the Establishment.	Total of settled pop'n.
Algeria.....	89,588	103,032	7,440	200,060
Oran.....	71,523	69,392	5,387	146,302
Constantine...	56,879	78,626	4,405	139,910
	217,990	251,050	17,232	486,272
Native nomads.....				2,434,974
Total population exclusive of 67,774 of French military.....				2,921,246
Total population in 1861.....				2,999,124

The population of the colonial possessions of France was, in 1868, reported as follows:

ASIA.—India—Pondicherry, Karikal, Mahe, Yanam, Chandernagor (1865).....	275,063
Cochin China—the three old provinces.....	502,116
“ the three new provinces (Vinhilong, Chaudoc, and Hattien).....	477,000
Possessions in Asia.....	1,206,179
AFRICA.—Senegambia.....	607,398
Gold Coast.....	133
Gaboon.....	186,000
Island of Reunion (1865).....	207,886
Islands of Mayotti and Mossi-Be (1865).....	29,717
Island of St. Marie (1865).....	6,110
Possessions in Africa, exclusive of Algeria.....	1,023,244
OCEANIA.—New Caledonia.....	29,000
Loyalty Islands.....	15,000
Marquesas Islands.....	10,000
Possessions in Oceania.....	54,000

AMERICA.—St. Pierre and Miquelon (1865)...	3,799
Martinique (1865).....	139,109
Guadeloupe and dependencies (1865)...	151,594
Guiana (1865).....	25,432

Possessions in America..... 318,934

Total of French colonies..... 2,607,357

Under the protectorate of France are the kingdoms of Cambodia (1,000,000 inhabitants); Porto Novo, on the Gold Coast in Africa; Tahiti, Gambier, and other islands in Oceania, together with a population of 1,043,897. The aggregate population of colonies and countries under the protectorate amounts to 3,631,354. The apparent decrease of the population in the colonies, for which, in 1867, a population of 3,061,888, exclusive of the three new provinces in Cochin China, was reported, arises from the fact that a census in Cochin China showed the population to be considerably inferior to the former estimates. The territory of the Gaboon colony, on the African west coast, was enlarged, in 1868, so as to extend to the Fernand Bay River, in consequence of treaties concluded with the kings and chiefs of the Kamma and the Rembo.

In the “Definite Budget, for 1867,” the revenue appears as 2,155,133,049 francs; expenditures, 1,971,527,231 francs; deficit, 183,605,818 francs, which will be met from the new loan of 450,500,000 francs, contracted in 1868. The “Rectified Budget, for 1868,” gives the receipts and expenditures each as 1,981,995,692 francs; but 126,701,850 francs of the loan of 450,500,000 francs are employed for the budget of ex-

traordinary expenditures. The budget for 1869, as voted by the Senate and Legislative body, is as follows: Regular receipts, 1,700,948,247; specie budget, 272,959,763; extraordinary budget, 102,882,787; total receipts, 1,995,404,666; total of expenditures, 2,128,340,645; deficit, 132,935,979, which will be covered by a portion of the loan of 440,500,000 francs. The public debt, in 1868, amounted to 12,993,298,000 francs. The following details of the public debt in May, 1868, given by a Paris writer, Louis Plée, are interesting: "The public debt is divided into three parts—consolidated, reduced or converted, redeemable debt, and life annuities. The first (consolidated) is composed of four and one-half, four, and three per cent. rentes. The annual interest paid on the four and one-half amounts to 37,453,098 francs; on the four, to not more than 446,096 francs; and on the three, to not less than 305,900,742 francs; total interest of the funded debt, 343,799,936 francs. The expense of the redeemable debt consists in the interest of capital of which the state is the depositary, such as caution-money, interest on money borrowed annually for the service of the Treasury, and periodical payments for the redemption of dues, or for territory to foreign governments. The interest on caution-money, of which the state is the depositary, amounts to 8,700,000 francs, and which, at three per cent., gives a capital of over 290,000,000 francs, and indicates the large number of functionaries holding places for which they give security. The interest of the floating debt is 26,000,000 francs, or a capital of more than 866,000,000 francs at three per cent. The periodical payments, rents, or *redevances*, amount to 248,832 francs for the Sound and Belt tolls, and another of 20,000 francs to Spain. The *Dette Viagère*, or life annuity, is of several kinds. It comprises fourteen articles, some of them important. First, are the military pensions, which amount to 45,000,000 francs; the second, civil pensions, as fixed by the law of the 9th of June, 1853, amounting to 52,455,000 francs; the third, retiring allowances, or superannuation pensions, amounting to 5,500,000 francs. Then come gratuities to old soldiers of the first republic and empire, which are set down at 2,700,000 francs; civil pensions, fixed by the law of 1790 at 1,779,000 francs; yearly indemnities on the same account, 910,000 francs; pensions on the old civil list, 539,000 francs; pensions granted by way of national recompenses, 508,000 francs; pensions on account of the Mont de Milan, 311,700 francs; pensions of the great functionaries of the empire, 288,000 francs; and some other less important items. The previous budgets comprised the dotation of Marshal Pelissier, but which ended with him.

The army, according to the new law of February 1, 1868, consists of the active army and the reserve, each numbering four hundred thousand men. The active army is composed as follows:

	Men.	Horses.
Staff	1,875	152
Gendarmes	24,548	15,701
Infantry	251,423	309
Cavalry	60,689	46,803
Artillery	37,959	19,133
Engineers	7,845	913
Military Equipage	8,954	7,710
Administration	11,165	264
Total	404,428	90,985

A "Garde Nationale Mobile," which will number about 550,000, was to coöperate for the defence of fortresses, coasts, and frontiers. The National Guard has a military organization, and is placed under the Minister of War. It comprises 250 battalions, having each eight companies of 2,000 men, and 125 batteries of 200 men. Together, the active army, the reserve, and the National Guard number 1,350,000 men.

According to the French "Blue Book," published in January, 1869, the condition of the army of France at the end of December, 1868, was as follows:

Total available military forces	1,028,980
Number of regular troops	700,000
Active army at home	378,852
" in Algeria	64,531
" in Italy	5,328
Total in active service	448,712

The French fleet, on July 1, 1868, was composed as follows: Vessels afloat, 360; in the course of construction, 92; the number of guns was, on January 1, 1867, 6,784; the steamers together had 706,241 horse-power. The marine force consisted of 72,403 men. Of the condition of the fleet at the close of the year the "Blue Book," published by the Government in January, 1869, gave the following information:

The fleet was composed on the 31st December, 1868, of 430 vessels, of which 331 were steamers, with a total of 76,165 horse-power. There are, besides, in course of completion, afloat, seven others of 8,710 horse-power, and on the stocks 31 more of 12,405 horse-power, and one sailing transport. This total is divided into two distinct portions, the first including the vessels which form part of the new fleet, to be constituted in accordance with the programme in course of execution since 1857; and the second, composed of the remains of the old navy, considered unfit to take place in the new, either directly or after transformation. The new naval force, the only one that constitutes the real maritime strength of the empire, counts, as completed, 314 steamers and 10 sailing-vessels. A table shows: 1. Iron-clads to the number of 50, of various classes. 2. The unarmored fighting-ships, 96 screw-steamers. 3. 91 small steamers, dispatch-boats, tenders, etc. 4. Transports, 95 of various sizes; and finally, the two training-schools, one for gunners and the other for naval pupils. Of the old fleet there still remain 17 steamers and 29 sailing-ships.

The works undertaken for the enlargement of the buildings and increase of the mechanical power in the two foundries of Ruelle and Nevers have been actively pushed forward. In the latter place they are very advanced; in the former they may be considered as terminated. These two establishments are now in full course of fabrication of large artillery.

The pieces of 19, 24 and 27 centimetres (7½ to 10½

in.) calibre which they have completed are already in number sufficient to arm all the iron-clad vessels capable of immediately putting to sea, and the battery of the frigates is even augmented in force by the entire substitution of cannon of 24c. for those of 19c. The wooden screw-vessels have also had their military value increased by a new armament of guns of 16c. and 19c. of the most recent type. Subjected to numerous trials at Gavres and at sea, this naval weapon has given results satisfactory upon the whole. France incessantly pursues, moreover, like other nations, the studies intended to improve it in augmenting its power. These experiments seem now to point more particularly to a profound modification in the manufacture of gunpowder. As to portable arms, the Naval Department has been already able to give the muskets of the 1866 model to its sailors and soldiers, and there is reason to hope that the new armament, actively urged forward, will be very soon terminated.

The special commerce* of France with America and some European countries was, in 1866, as follows (value expressed in francs).

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
AMERICA—		
United States.....	191,900,000	173,000,000
Central America.....	4,300,000	39,300,000
Hayti.....	24,300,000	8,100,000
Spanish Colonies.....	35,200,000	28,500,000
Brazil.....	57,100,000	81,300,000
Argentine Republic.....	59,600,000	51,600,000
Uruguay.....	35,700,000	34,500,000
Chili.....	15,200,000	17,500,000
Peru and Ecuador.....	26,200,000	26,400,000
U. S. of Colombia and } Venezuela..... }	16,500,000	22,700,000
Other American States..	3,200,000	11,000,000
Total America....	469,200,000	493,900,000
EUROPE—		
Great Britain.....	637,300,000	1,140,500,000
Belgium.....	304,700,000	262,300,000
Zollverein and Meck- } lenburg..... }	195,200,000	187,000,000
Switzerland.....	111,100,000	226,300,000
Italy.....	234,300,000	230,500,000
Turkey.....	129,500,000	58,400,000
Spain.....	63,000,000	123,700,000
Total Europe....	1,962,400,000	2,386,000,000
AFRICA,.....	99,000,000	71,200,000
ASIA,.....	90,700,000	18,900,000
OCEANICA,.....	100,000	6,400,600
Algeria.....	65,700,000	129,900,000
Other Colonies.....	105,500,000	73,900,000
Total.....	2,793,500,000	3,180,600,000

The following is a summary of the movement of commerce from 1827 to 1866 :

YEARS.	SPECIAL COMMERCE.		SPECIE & PRECIOUS METALS.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Ex'ts.
1866.....	2,799.5	3,180.6	1,065	554
1865.....	2,641.8	3,088.4	659	433
Ann'l av'ge 1862-'65	2,517.7	2,815.7	705	536
" 1857-'61	1,883.2	2,044.5	670	469
" 1847-'56	1,001.0	1,204.0	162	302
" 1837-'46	776.0	713.0	150	53
" 1827-'36	480.0	521.0	144	41

* By special commerce those imports are understood which are intended for consumption in France, and those exports which are produced in France.

The movement of shipping in 1866 was as follows :

FLAG.	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
French .	11,835	2,090,000	12,660	2,203,000
Foreign.	20,866	3,621,000	20,930	3,620,000
Total.	32,701	5,711,000	33,590	5,832,000

The merchant navy, on December 31, 1866, comprised :

Sailing-vessels.....	15,230	915,034
Steamers.....	407	127,777
Total.....	15,637	1,042,811
Coasting-vessels.....	8,829	66,698

An official report of the ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and Public Works gives the following information of the different lines of railway working at the close of 1867, and their receipts during the year, as compared with 1866: The total length of railway open on the 31st of December, 1867, was 15,669 kilometres (five-eighths of a mile each), and of which 7,524 formed the old network, and 7,809 the new, while the remaining 336 belonged to private companies; the extent of lines at the close of 1866 was 14,530 kilometres, there being an increase of 1,139 kilometres in 1867. The total receipts in the two years respectively were as follows: In 1867, old network, 499,687,007 francs; new, 152,141,793 francs; other companies, 4,665,288 francs—together, 656,494,088 francs. In 1866, old network, 469,894,060 francs; new, 132,452,382 francs; other companies, 3,334,001 francs—together, 605,680,443 francs. The augmentation in 1867 was consequently 50,813,645 francs.

The legislative session, which had been opened in November, 1867, closed in July, 1868. It was the longest since 1852, having comprised 141 public sittings, whereas that of 1867 consisted of 89 only. The discussion on the budget alone occupied not fewer than 25; in 1867 the debate lasted only 21. For the first time since 1852 the Assembly heard nine ministers take part successively in the public discussions, M. Rouher, M. Baroche, M. Pinard, the Marquis de Moustier, M. de Forcade la Roquette, Marshal Niel, Admiral Rigault de Genouilly, M. Duruy, and M. Vuitry coming forward and defending their departments. One only, Marshal Vaillant, minister of the Emperor's household, took no part in the labors of the Legislative body. The Senate met 34 times in its bureaux and 66 in general sittings. The former had to examine one demand for an interpellation, as well as several petitions, proposing modifications in the Constitution; they appointed 75 committees, the labors of which were as follows: One to examine a *Senatus Consultum*; 63 for the investigation of bills; one to consider a demand for authorization to prosecute a senator; nine to prepare reports

on petitions, and one charged with the examination of the accounts of the Senate. The Assembly deliberated on a *Senatus Consultum* relative to an exchange of land between the crown and private individuals; voted 116 bills, among which were 68 concerning the departments, communes, or private individuals; and 48 of general interest; it also set aside, by the previous question, the application for authorization to institute proceedings against a member.

Among the most important acts approved during the session belong the law on the right of meeting and the law on the press. The law on the right of meeting was adopted by the Legislative body by 209 yeas against 22 nays; and in the Senate by 86 yeas against 24 nays; and the law on the press, in the Legislative body, by 242 yeas against 1 nay; and in the Senate by 93 yeas against 27 nays. (*See FRANCE, PRESS OF.*)

The execution of the law concerning the reorganization of the French army produced considerable trouble in several places. In no place were the disturbances so serious as in Bordeaux. On March 21st a numerous band paraded the Rue de la Trésorerie, singing the "Marseillaise." The commissary of police of the quarter presented himself, and attempted to take away a red flag carried by one of the party. A scuffle ensued, and the commissary was badly knocked about. A grocer, who came to the aid of the officer of justice with an iron rod in his hand, was disarmed and beaten. Subsequently the police made several arrests. In the St. Nicholas quarter a sergeant-de-ville was ill-treated. On the 22d the young men ordered to appear before the council of revision in the Place Tourny presented themselves with big carrots in their button-holes and in their hands. These pacific emblems of agriculture threw ridicule upon the proceedings, and provoked great guffaws from the crowd. The police showed themselves in great force everywhere, and many agents went about in plain clothes. In the Place Tourny a picket of regular troops was obliged to aid the police. These disturbances of the 21st and 22d took place subsequently to the trial, on the 20th, by the tribunal of correctional police, of three young men arrested for singing the "Marseillaise" and crying "Vive la République" on the 19th. One of these, who excused himself for carrying a red flag on the ground that he had seen one paraded in the streets on the day before, which nobody interfered with, was sentenced only to four days' imprisonment; but the two others, one of whom publicly harangued the mob and spoke against the army bill, were sentenced respectively to three months' and one month's imprisonment.

In August M. Magne, the Minister of Finance, addressed a report to the Emperor touching the success of the loan of 440,500,000 francs, which the Government had made. The report states the number of subscribers to the loan at 781,292, and the aggregate of their subscriptions at

660,000,000 of rente, being equal to a capital of fifteen milliards of francs, or little short of thirty-four times the amount called for. The subscriptions received at Paris and in the departments, being not subject to reduction, amount to 3,141,170 francs rente. The moneys deposited to insure an allotment exceed the sum of 660,000,000 francs.

According to a table published by the Paris *Epoque*, the result of fifty-two partial elections for the Legislative body, which have taken place from 1863 (the last general elections) to 1868, was as follows: The official candidates, who in 1863 obtained 1,032,367 votes, received only 849,759, while 525,290 have been given to the opposition aspirants, in place of 307,295 in 1863. Therefore, since the general election, and in fifty-two circumscriptions alone, the Government has lost 182,608 votes, while its opponents have gained 218,000, constituting nearly double the number they obtained five years back. On examining the definitive results, it is found that 36 candidates of the administration have been elected to 16 independents.

On March 17th, a pamphlet was published at the imperial printing-press, under the title *Les Titres de la Dynastie Napoléonienne* ("The Claims of the Napoleonic Dynasty"), having for its object to show, among other facts, that in 1799, as well as in 1852, the imperial dynasty, without upsetting any Government, ascended the throne of France, vacant at each of these dates, with the almost unanimous sanction of the people. The following extracts give a review of the principal elections, which elevated Napoleon I. and Napoleon III. to the throne, and of the changes which have taken place in the Constitution of the Second French Empire, since 1852:

The opposition to the presidential election in 1848 had been 1,918,841 votes; on the 20th of December, 1851, it had declined to 641,351 votes. Against the creation of the empire the nays were only 253,145.

But that which this exposition above all sets forth, is, that six times within half a century the Napoleonic dynasty has received the consecration of universal suffrage. The uncle and the nephew have gone through the same historical cycle; both have rescued France from chaos; each, three times acclaimed, held office for a limited period, soon prolonged, and both took their seats on a throne which they found vacant. The consulate and the presidency both merged in the empire—a unique spectacle in history at fifty years' interval, in spite of so many events that intervened to keep it down. The will of the people, like a river swallowed up by sand, bursts forth from the lower layers of society, and resumes its level of independence and national greatness. The *plébiscite* of 1852 answers as an echo to the *plébiscite* of 1804. The 4,000,000 of voters which amazed the historians (of the First Empire) increased to 8,000,000; and he who was called to the throne by virtue of the constitution of the First Empire becomes the chief of the Second, uniting in his person hereditary with elective rights. From 1799 to 1804 Napoleon received 10,000,000 of suffrages. From 1804 to 1852 Napoleon received 20,000,000 of votes—30,000,000 of voting papers signed by the French people—those are the title-deeds of the Napoleonic dynasty.

In the measures which followed the 2d of December, it may have been seen that the Prince-President

did not confine himself to apply to the nation for extraordinary powers, with a view to devising a remedy for a temporary ailment, but that he set forth a whole system of government appropriate to the permanent requirements of the country. He only consented to undertake the burden of leading the destinies of France on the condition that that system, reverting to the consular tradition of the year VIII., was favorably received by the nation. Never was a condition more explicitly stated nor more unanimously fulfilled. The principles whence the Constitution is derived were, therefore, the result of a freely-consented compact.

But if these bases be fixed, if they cannot be modified without a *plébiscite*, the work itself involves progressive improvements; it is perfectible. The Emperor openly proclaimed that fact as early as the 31st of December, 1851, when he said he intended to inure the country to the wise practice of liberty. Let us add, that the decree of November 24, 1860, and the letter of January 19, 1867, have fulfilled that promise.

The Constitution of the 14th of January, 1852, has, it is known, become the Constitution of the empire. The change effected in the form of government has resulted in abrogating or amending several articles which were no longer in harmony with the new state of things. It has appeared to us useless to point out these differences. The intelligence of the reader will at once supply that want.

As for modifications of another order, they are the result of various *Senatus Consultis*; and, as they mark, so to speak, the stages of the Emperor's Government in the liberal path it has entered on, we will confine ourselves to mentioning the most important, and enumerating the great measures which have been their almost immediate consequence.

We will mention (1) the act which has made public in the papers the debates of the Senate, and has permitted the reproduction *in extenso* by shorthand of the discussions in the two Chambers; (2) the sending of ministers to the Chambers by special delegation; (3) the extension to the Corps Législatif of the right of amendment; (4) the power attributed to the Senate to send back to the Corps Législatif, for fresh examination, bills which appear to it to be defective; (5) the voting of the budget by large sections; (6) the abandonment by the Emperor of the power of opening, in the absence of the Chambers, supplementary or extraordinary credits; (7) the law on the liberty of the press; (8) the law on coalitions, and (9) finally, the bill which is now before the Legislature, and whose object is the right of meeting.

The whole of these dispositions emanate, so to speak, from the womb of that Constitution, which lends itself to every movement of liberty, and which, in this respect, has been an innovation as hardy as fruitful. To appreciate the liberal character of this Constitution, we have only to compare it with the Constitutions of preceding monarchies.

An imperial decree in the *Moniteur* announced the abrogation of the eighteenth article of the commercial treaty between France and Mecklenburg. The concessions accorded by the Zollverein to France were a reduction to 20f. of duty on the 100 kilogrammes of wine in casks and bottles, and to 20 per cent. on cotton tissues, light, transparent white or prepared, and 8f. 75c. on various other articles. Another decree approved of the declaration signed 21st February, 1868, between France and Italy, concerning privileges granted to French subjects in Italy and Italian subjects in France. The subjects of either country shall be respectively exempt from all service in the army, navy, national guard, or militia, from all judicial or municipal functions, forced loans, and military requisition.

The ratifications of the treaty concluded between France and the kingdom of Siam were exchanged in due form at Bangkok on the 24th of November, 1867. On the following day M. Duchesne de Bellecourt laid before the King the presents sent by the Emperor Napoleon. His Majesty testified his gratitude, and declared that he was resolved to neglect nothing to secure the good-will of the European governments.

On the 16th of June a French outpost of twenty-five soldiers, at Rach-gia, Cochin China, was surprised by a roving party of 1,000 Anamite robbers. Only one of the soldiers escaped with his life, when this news reached the garrison. Five days afterward, an expeditionary force, increased by bodies of native militia, who volunteered their services, was sent out to pursue the perpetrators of the massacre, upon whom they inflicted severe loss.

At the end of April the consul-general of France in Tunis broke off diplomatic relations with the Government of the Bey. The difficulty was settled by a mixed commission, presided over by a Frenchman, and diplomatic relations were renewed in May.

The "Blue Book," published by the Government in January, 1869, remarks, with satisfaction, on the conclusion of the labors of the international commission on the boundary question between France and Spain. These labors, which have continued for fifteen years, were brought to an end at the very time when the Spanish revolution broke out. It notices, also, the settlement of the division of the Pontifical debt with the Italian Government, interrupted by the events of which the Roman frontier was the theatre last year. The arrangement concluded then was satisfactory to the Government of the Pope. The attempt since made to suspend its effects afforded an occasion to the Cabinet of Florence to declare its firm desire to cause those engagements to be respected; and the approval given by the Italian Parliament to the declarations of the minister is regarded as unequivocal testimony of a better state of public feeling.

The following paragraph, in the "Blue Book," relates to the Eastern question. After mentioning the difficulties attending it, and the necessity for Europe to maintain the state of things as established by treaties, it says:

Thus, when, in presence of the complications which occurred between the Turkish Government and the Cabinet of Athens, in consequence of the Candote question, Prussia took the initiative in a proposition for submitting to the powers which signed the treaty of Paris the difference which so seriously menaced the tranquillity of the East, we did not hesitate to recommend that combination to all the courts interested. We have had the satisfaction of seeing it accepted. Already, in the mean time, the good offices rendered by a ship of the Imperial Navy in the Greek waters had prevented all danger of an immediate conflict between the naval forces of Turkey and Greece. Since then a conference met in Paris. Thanks to the spirit of conciliation with which their labors were carried on, the plenipoten-

tiaries agreed on the principle of international right, and the Emperor's Government will soon be able to make known the definitive result of the amicable intervention of the powers.

The relations between France and the United States, according to the "Blue Book," have continued to be cordial; and the French Government had no hesitation in seconding the efforts of the Washington Cabinet in reestablishing peace between Spain and the republics of the Pacific.

As was mentioned last year, the American Government having again proposed its mediation between the belligerents, we thought, as well as England, that the maintenance of our previous offers might become an embarrassment for the Cabinet to which we addressed ourselves first, and retard the arrangement which all the neutral powers desired. We lost no time in declaring that our propositions should not be an obstacle to the success of the American mediation, and desiring, above all, the reestablishment of peace, which became still more necessary after the calamities which occurred on the coast of the Pacific, we are disposed to support the measures, from whatever quarter they come, that appear most likely to attain that favorable result.

As a fresh proof of its friendly sentiments toward the two republics in the South, the French Government has accredited to them diplomatic agents of a rank superior to those who hitherto represented it.

The "Blue Book," in conclusion, thus refers to the remonstrances of France on behalf of the native Christians of Japan:

The Government of the Mikado must have been convinced on a recent occasion that the French Government, which resolved to exact the strict execution of treaties, will not pass the limit which these acts mark out for it, and, in order to avoid exceeding its rights, it has done violence to its sympathies. Hardly had the struggle which he had entered upon with the Tycoon been ended than the Mikado prohibited to his subjects the exercise of the Christian religion, and an edict imposed severe penalties on the Japanese Christians who refused to abjure their faith. The treaties which guarantee to strangers the full liberty of professing their faith, wherever they are authorized to reside, containing no stipulation of a nature to justify the active intervention of the Christian powers in favor of Japanese subjects, we limited ourselves, as well as the Cabinets of Washington and London, to tendering counsels of moderation to the Government of the Mikado, and representing to him that his reverting to the errors of the past would affect the consideration he was held in by other nations. We cannot affirm that a power, which, perhaps, owes a part of its prestige to the influence of theocratic ideas, will at once consent to reconsider an act so grave; but we may be permitted to hope that the measures of repression, already less cruel than those enforced in former times, will be more and more mitigated in practice until such time as they fall into complete desuetude.

FRANCE, THE PRESS OF, IN 1868. The year 1868 is of special importance in the history of France as regards the newspaper press of the country. For sixteen years past the Draconic Press Law of February 17, 1852, with its system of *communiqués*, warnings, previous authorization, stamp-tax, caution-money, and all those illiberal features which rendered it in every respect more oppressive than the press laws of any other European country, with the

exception of Russia and the two Mecklenburgs, had weighed down journalism in France and prevented its healthy growth and development. In consequence of the discretionary powers given to the Minister of the Interior and to the prefects of the departments, with whom it was left optional whether or not they would allow new papers to be established, sixty departments, at the beginning of the year 1868, had no other political journals than small official or semi-official sheets, all attempts to start independent or opposition papers having been thwarted by the minister or the prefects. Even in the largest provincial cities of the empire, such as Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Lille, Toulouse, Nantes, and Rouen, the condition of the newspaper press was so deplorable, that these seven cities, with an aggregate population of upward of 1,300,000 inhabitants, had on the 1st of January, 1868, only eleven daily papers, with a total circulation of less than 180,000 copies. Only in Paris, where the imperial Government could not entirely disregard public opinion, the rigorous provisions of the Press Law of February 17, 1852, were not enforced as inexorably as in the provincial cities and towns; still, the tone of even the organs of the most advanced wing of the opposition was singularly mild and cautious, and, although the old saying that "Paris is France" is most decidedly true so far as its newspaper press is concerned, nearly all the Paris dailies having as many subscribers in the departments as in Paris, the aggregate circulation of all the daily political journals published in Paris, on the 1st of January, 1868, fell short of 300,000 copies; and the profits of even the most successful of these dailies, such as the *Siècle* and *Liberté*, with respectively forty and thirty thousand subscribers, and with a heavy advertising patronage, remained comparatively insignificant.

In the celebrated letter which the Emperor Napoleon had addressed on the 19th of January, 1867, to M. Rouher, the Minister of State, he had promised that "a law should be proposed for assigning the jurisdiction over offences against the press laws exclusively to the correctional tribunals, and thus suppress the discretionary power of the Government." The semi-official organs of the imperial Government had added to this letter comments evidently proceeding from official sources, and promising in the most emphatic and unequivocal manner that the imperial Government, besides the reforms granted to the political journals of the country in the Emperor's letter, would at the earliest moment submit to the Senate and Corps Législatif an act modifying many of the most burdensome paragraphs of the Press Law of February 17, 1852, and thus place France, in this respect, too, on a footing of equality with the most liberal states on the European Continent.

For a long time, notwithstanding the most urgent appeals of the organs of the opposition, these promises remained unfulfilled, and ap-

prehensions that the importunities of the reactionary party at the imperial court, which was known to be bitterly hostile to the reforms which the Emperor had granted, might induce him not to redeem his promises, were constantly gaining ground, although the semi-official journals from time to time tried to reassure the public by asserting that the delays in the publication of the draft of the new law arose solely from the profound and protracted discussions to which the examination of all the questions bearing upon the subject had given rise in the meetings of the imperial Cabinet and the Council of State. They pointed also to the comparatively lenient course which the Minister of the Interior, the Marquis de Lavalette, had been pursuing toward the Paris papers since the publication of the imperial letter of January 19, 1867.

At length, in the early part of January, 1868, the Government submitted the new press law to the Corps Législatif. This law provided in its first paragraph that the French press should be free, but subjected it in its subsequent sections to so many oppressive restrictions that the independent and liberal journals, with one accord, pronounced it utterly unsatisfactory, and even went so far as to declare that it was very doubtful if the existing state of affairs was not preferable to the condition in which the new law would place the French press. While the new law, it is true, put an end to the discretionary power of the Minister of the Interior and the prefects of the departments over the political press, and abolished the system of authorization for those who wished to start newspapers or establish printing-offices, it proposed no reduction of the burdensome caution-money, lessened the still more burdensome stamp-tax but very slightly, fixed the fines, which the correctional tribunals were empowered to impose upon editors, publishers, and printers, for the most trifling press offences, at the most unheard-of rates, and added to the existing press régime so many new and odious features, that Emile de Girardin, editor-in-chief of *La Liberté*, indignantly pronounced the new law a "hateful trap" (*un piège odieux*), and the first impulse of all the opposition papers was to call upon the representatives of their party in the halls of the Corps Législatif to reject the law *in toto*.

The majority of the Corps Législatif, on its part, did not seem to be very anxious to pass the new law. Largely composed as it was of ultra-conservative members, it was seriously dissatisfied with what few additional liberties the new law granted to the press, especially with the section which permitted every Frenchman, of good repute and in the full possession of his civil and political rights, to establish political journals without previous authorization on the part of the Government. It was thought that, in consequence of this paragraph, liberal journals would spring up in all rural districts, and by their influence secure the election of a

great many opposition deputies in districts then represented by conservative adherents of the second empire. Many of the department prefects added to the reluctance of the majority of the Corps Législatif by their protests against the new press law, which they asserted in their reports to the Minister of the Interior would give fresh vitality to the revolutionary (i. e. anti-Bonapartist) element in the country, and greatly lessen their influence over the electoral body in the provincial districts. The reactionary club of the so-called *Arcadians*, embracing upward of one hundred members of the Corps Législatif, resolved at one time to vote for the rejection of the entire law; and the reactionists at the imperial court were incessantly dinning into the ears of Napoleon III. that the "revolutionists" would use the new law as a powerful engine for overthrowing his dynasty.

In the mean time, however, the opposition journals had thought better of the matter, and deemed it advisable to accept the new law, which was, after all, a slight progress toward liberty; and when the committee, to which the draft of the new law submitted by the Government had been referred, after a very long delay finally reported it back to the Corps Législatif, they urged their political friends in the Legislature to vote in such a manner as to secure the adoption of the law, without regard to its illiberal features. The amendments proposed in the report of the committee added to the oppressive character of the law. The non-authorization clause in regard to the establishment of new printing-offices, the reduction of the stamp-tax, and other liberal features, had been struck out from the drafts submitted by the Government, and in their places had been inserted paragraphs rendering the position of political editors, correspondents, publishers, and printers of newspapers, more precarious and difficult than before.

The debates on the press law in the Corps Législatif were exceedingly stormy. The opposition orators fought its oppressive paragraphs step by step, but did not succeed in wresting any concessions from the conservative majority, and giving a more liberal character to the important law. On the contrary, the so-called Guillaumet amendment, which was carried by a very large majority, in rendering more stringent the responsibility of editors, reporters, and publishers, in regard to articles written about the affairs of private persons, added another most burdensome feature to it. At the final vote on the law it was carried by an overwhelming majority, only seven of the *Arcadians* voting against it; the majority of the colleagues of the latter, yielding to the urgent wishes of the Government, had voted for the law. The Senate passed the law likewise, though not without gloomy predictions on the part of many of its reactionary members; and on the 11th of May the law was promulgated. The following circular, which M. Pinard, the

Minister of the Interior, issued a few days afterward to the prefects of the several departments in regard to the new press law, shows the important changes which it introduced in the legal condition of the political journals :

M. LE PRÉFET: In realizing the promise of January 19, 1867, the new press law puts an end to the discretionary power of the administration. The necessity of previous authorization and the disciplinary powers of the minister are at the same time abolished. Henceforth the press will only have as its judges the judges of every citizen. It will no longer be under tutelage.

Henceforth it is incumbent upon the Guardian of the Seals to give detailed instructions to the public prosecutors as to the execution of a law which only maintains the repressive action of the tribunals toward the press. But if the part of the administration is profoundly changed, it remains none the less considerable ; it is transformed and does not disappear.

What is this part as toward the judicial authority ? What, as toward the writer ? In what degree shall you concur, as administrative power, in the application of the new law ? Brief explanations will suffice to settle upon these three points the character and the nature of your intervention.

When the judicial authority has to begin a prosecution having a political character, it is essentially desirable that it should be in agreement with you. It alone has to decide the question of legality, but you will often have to give your opinion as to the question of opportuneness. This situation implies that frequent relations and an understanding will be more than ever necessary between you and the public ministry. It also requires that you should not point out any article to the bar without having previously referred it to me, and that you should keep me fully acquainted with the phases as well as the results of every prosecution.

Toward the writer, who does not come under the application of the repressive laws, you have a double duty to fulfil—the duty of surveillance and the duty of good relations. The duty of surveillance is indispensable to place you in a position to rectify erroneous facts. The more the control of the press is extended to the acts and intentions of the authorities, the more it becomes important to establish its truth. You have at your disposal either the *communiqué*, a direct reply to the journal that has led the public into error, or the contrary asserted insertion in another journal. These two methods of rectification possess no serious value save when they are made use of immediately. They only strike the mind of the reader when they put on a brief, a taking form, when they avoid the warmth of controversy and the length of discussion. They should confine themselves to correcting the erroneous figures of the inexact fact. As previously, you will be good enough to submit to me in advance every *communiqué* together with the article by which it is called forth. The duty of good relations is the best means of defence. It compromises neither the dignity of the Government nor the independence of the writer. You will understand how to keep up these relations with all those who shall address themselves loyally to you. When essential questions do not divide us, these relations may often prove the cause of voluntary rectifications. In bringing men closer together, they may bring ideas closer also ; they may, at any rate, obtain more justice in appreciating intentions ; they may cause private wounds to be avoided, and may take from controversy that aggressive character which sometimes separates men more widely than the contradiction of principles.

You will have, M. le Préfet, to assist in the application of the law by watching over the execution of three new regulations. These refer to the declaration, to the deposit, and to the authorization of special printing-offices.

The declaration is to be made upon stamped paper.

It must precede the publication of the journal by at least fifteen days, and must be accompanied by evidence establishing its sincerity. Article 2 sets forth all that this declaration must contain. The declaration only gives the right of publishing a journal to those who are at the same time Frenchmen and of full age, and in enjoyment of their civil and political rights. The declaration once received, you will deliver a receipt to the declarant, and you will employ the fifteen days elapsing between the declaration and the expiration of the term fixed for publication in verifying the capacity of the declarant. You will demand for this purpose bulletin No. 2 from the judicial file at the public prosecutor's office in the declarant's original domicile. You will first communicate to me the declaration, and ultimately the evidence you will have gathered as to the declarant in the course of this examination.

The deposit of two copies of the journal, as prescribed by Article 7, shall be made at Paris at the ministry of the Interior. In the departments it must be made at the prefecture in the chief town of the department, at the subprefecture in the chief town of the district, and at the mairie for other towns. One of these two copies must be sent immediately by the préfet, the sub-préfet, or the mayor, to the ministry of the Interior (departmental press-office). A similar deposit is required, by the second paragraph of Article 7, for the office of the public prosecutor. In towns where there is no tribunal of first instance, this deposit must be made at the mairie, and the mayor must immediately send to the public prosecutor's office the two copies of this second deposit. You will be good enough to watch that these various deposits are made with the greatest regularity. The more liberty is extended, the greater the necessity for the surveillance of the Government.

Every manager of a journal shall be authorized, when he may request it, to have a printing-office reserved exclusively for printing his newspaper. The Legislature has not yet settled the question by the monopoly of liberty of printing and publishing, but it has desired that, previous to this definitive solution, the journalists might always be certain of having a printer. It promises, henceforth, an authorization, and the Government would not be able to refuse it either to the manager of the industrial, the literary, or the purely political journal. Furthermore, this printing-office could not be diverted from its object. It is created for no other purpose than to secure the free establishment of the journal. It must only print that journal itself, or any thing forming an essential element of its publication, as prospectus, posters, postage bands, subscription lists, and receipts. It could not go beyond this without encroaching upon establishments now in existence, and whose monopoly is still maintained by law.

This arrangement shows you, M. le Préfet, the liberal intentions animating the Emperor's Government and the Corps Législatif in this matter. If the Legislature holds that the manager of a journal should always find a printer, it is a logical and legitimate consequence to favor the establishment of new printing and publishing offices wherever it might be justified by serious needs. Thus, in making proposals to me upon this point, you will have to take into account at the same time the guarantees candidates must offer, and the degree of utility the issue of new privileges would present in certain localities.

I confine myself, M. le Préfet, to these brief explanations. It would be useless to revert to the other arrangements of the decree of February 17, 1852, which still remain in vigor, and over the execution of which you have watched up to this day. Should the stamp right disappear in some cases, should it be restricted in others, the application of these arrangements comes more especially within the province of the Minister of Finance, who will instruct his agents upon this point.

No change is imported either into the amount of

the caution-money or into the rules accompanying its payment. You will have, as formerly, to place the declarants in a position to deposit at the office of the Treasurer-General of your department the caution-money to which they are subjected, and you will transmit the receipt of the payment to the Finance Minister. PINARD, Minister of the Interior.

No sooner had the new press law been promulgated, than a great many new papers were started both in Paris and in the departments. Up to the 1st of July, 1868, sixty-four new journals, mostly weeklies, had been established in the departments, and seven new dailies and twenty-three new weekly papers in Paris. A very noteworthy fact was, that most of these new papers were organs of the most advanced wing of the Liberal party. Public opinion in France was evidently awakening from its long torpor, and not a few of the newly-established papers used a more defiant language toward the Government than had been heard for long years past. These audacious sheets were so eagerly read by the people, that some of them obtained in the course of a few days a truly enormous circulation. Especially was this the case with *La Lanterne*, a weekly politico-satirical paper, whose wonderful success marks an era in the history of French journalism, and which immediately found a great many rivals and imitators, none of which, however, were able to gain an equal degree of popularity. *La Lanterne*, issued every week in pamphlet form, consisted entirely of spicy little paragraphs written by Henri Rochefort, a young journalist of strongly democratic views, whose satirical attacks and *mots* upon all the "dark spots" of the Second Empire were greatly relished by vast numbers of French readers. The first nine issues of *La Lanterne* reached the enormous aggregate circulation of 1,155,000 copies, and its subscription list was rapidly increasing when the heavy sentences imposed upon the editor and proprietor by the Sixth Chamber of the Correctional Tribunal of Paris caused M. Henri Rochefort to remove the office of the paper from Paris to Brussels, and Aix-la-Chapelle, where it is now issued alternately, and where every week upward of one hundred thousand copies of the *Lanterne*, printed on very thin letter-paper, are sent in sealed envelopes to the subscribers of the paper in Paris.

Of the numerous imitators which *La Lanterne* found among the other newly-established Paris papers, *La Cloche*, edited by Ferrayus (Louis Ulbach), and *Le Diable à Quatre*, edited by Villemessant, Lockroy, and other eminent journalists, were the most successful; *La Cloche* reaching a circulation of eighty thousand copies, and *Le Diable à Quatre* selling about sixty thousand copies.

The increasing boldness with which the organs of the opposition criticised many acts of the Government, led to a large number of prosecutions of liberal papers. Especially numerous were the press trials which took place before the Sixth Chamber of the Cor-

rectional Tribunal of Paris. The worst fears of the opposition, in regard to the servility of these correctional judges, were more than verified. A prosecution of a newspaper before them, with very rare exceptions, was equivalent to a condemnation, and the sentences, as a general thing, were so severe as to create the most marked dissatisfaction in the minds of the people. Despite the fines and imprisonments imposed upon editors and printers, the tone of the Liberal papers grew daily more independent; and at the beginning of November, when the Government tried to prevent them from advertising subscriptions for the erection of a monument in honor of Baudin, one of the illustrious victims of the *coup d'état*, whose humble grave, until then unknown, had been recently discovered, the whole independent press of Paris, with one accord, bade defiance to the Government and refused to obey its behests. The prosecutions which were instituted in consequence of this bold attitude against the *Reveil*, the *Temps*, the *Journal de Paris*, the *Avenir National*, and other leading journals, resulted in severe sentences against their editors and publishers; but these sentences had been wrung from the correctional tribunal only by the peculiar construction of the old Law of General Security; and in several other cities of France, especially in Clermont and Castres, editors were acquitted on the same charges on which their Parisian colleagues had been convicted. Besides, the language which the counsel of the prosecuted journalists used at these trials in criticising the *coup d'état* and Bonapartism in general, was so scathing and bitter that public opinion became greatly exasperated, and when M. Pinard, the Minister of the Interior, who had been the soul of these press prosecutions, made himself and the Government an object of ridicule by the vast display of military precautions on the 3d of December, in order, as he pretended, to nip in the bud a contemplated rising of the revolutionists, the Emperor dismissed him on the 18th of December in a somewhat abrupt manner, and appointed in his stead M. de Forcade, who is generally believed to be in favor of a more liberal and moderate course toward the press.

Among the other noteworthy events which took place in the affairs of French journalism in 1868 is the change which the *Moniteur Universel* underwent toward the close of the year. Already in the early part of 1868 the Emperor Napoleon had ordered his Minister of State to take steps for severing the connection of the Government with the *Moniteur*, which had been its official organ, as well as that of all the preceding régimes, and for establishing a new official journal. M. Rouher and his colleagues vainly tried to dissuade the Emperor from his purpose, and the efforts of M. Dalloz on the part of the proprietors of the *Moniteur* remained equally unsuccessful. In the autumn of 1868 active preparations were made for

establishing the new official journal, which was to bear the name *Moniteur Officiel*. M. Dalloz appealed to the courts to enjoin the Minister of State from applying the name *Moniteur* to the new paper, and a permanent injunction to this effect was granted, whereupon M. Rouher decreed that the new Government paper should be entitled *Journal Officiel de l'Empire Français*; the offer of M. Dalloz to let the Government use the name *Moniteur* upon the payment of 2,800,000 francs having been previously rejected. The *Moniteur Universel*, which, it is believed, is now controlled by the princes of the Orleans dynasty, will be published, as heretofore, twice a day.

The list of press trials in France from the promulgation of the law of May 11, 1868, down to the 31st of December, 1868, shows that the defendants were convicted in sixty-four cases, and that they were sentenced to undergo terms of imprisonment amounting in the aggregate to sixty-six months, and to pay fines footing up to 121,957 francs. The two most severe sentences were those passed upon Henri Rochefort, who was condemned to be imprisoned for twenty-nine months, and fined 26,000 francs.

According to the official reports published on the 15th of October, 1868, 1,668 journals are published in the French empire. Paris has 69 political and 710 non-political journals.

The *Siècle*, the organ of the Democratic bourgeoisie, has still the largest circulation of any political paper in France, its daily sales being rarely less than 42,000 copies. Its advertising receipts are upward of nine hundred thousand francs. In the autumn of 1868 it sustained a heavy loss in the death of its principal stockholder and managing editor, M. Havin, to whose judicious management the *Siècle* is indebted for much of its prosperity. Louis Jourdan remains the leading editor. The *Temps*, another organ of the moderate democracy, circulates about ten thousand copies, and is noted for the great ability of its editorial staff, which embraces some of the most illustrious names of French journalism. The *Avenir National*, advocating the principles of the more advanced wing of the Democratic party, had a circulation of eight thousand copies on the 1st of July, 1868, which its publishers claim has been nearly doubled in November and December. It has sustained heavy losses in consequence of repeated prosecutions on the part of the Government. Its managing editor is M. A. Peyrat. The *Journal des Débats*, the organ of the liberal Orleanists, has a circulation of nine thousand copies. It maintains its high reputation for literary ability, Prevost-Paradol, Edouard Laboulaye, Michel Chevalier, Jules Janin, and other eminent writers being among its editors and contributors. *La Liberté*, Emil de Girardin's journal, claims the largest circulation next to the *Siècle*. At the beginning of 1868 it had upward of thirty thousand subscribers, but it is said to have

lost over ten thousand of them in the course of the year. Its advertising receipts are over eight hundred thousand francs a year. *Le Figaro*, Villemessant's paper, a gossip, but able and brilliant sheet, has also a very large circulation. The rival of the *Figaro* is the *Gaulois*, which was started in the spring of 1868 and acquired great popularity by the articles of Edmond About and the enterprise it displayed in obtaining early and reliable news about the Spanish revolution. In November M. Henri de Pène, one of the founders of the *Gaulois*, withdrew from that journal and established a similar one, called *Paris*, which has as yet not obtained a very marked success. The *Opinion Nationale*, A. Guérout's paper, an advocate of moderate democratic principles, and not entirely hostile to the Second Empire, lost in 1868 much of its former popularity, its circulation having dwindled down in the course of the year from sixteen thousand copies to less than half that number.

The ultramontane and legitimist papers, the *Gazette de France*, the *Union*, the *Monde*, and the *Univers*, have only between three and six thousand subscribers each. Though edited with much ability, they are losing concerns, and are kept alive only by liberal contributions from wealthy members of their respective parties.

The *Patrie* and the *Constitutionnel* are the two leading semi-official papers. The *Constitutionnel*, with a circulation of ten thousand copies, is edited by M. Henri Baudrillart, the distinguished political economist, and Robert Mitchell, the son of an American, but naturalized in France. The *Patrie*, with a circulation of fourteen thousand copies, is now under the editorial control of Clément Duvernois, heretofore managing editor of the *Epoque*, a paper representing the principles of the liberal wing of the Bonapartists, but of very limited circulation. Ernest Dréolle, for many years the leading writer on the staff of the *Patrie*, was forced in October to leave that journal in consequence of a quarrel between two members of the imperial Cabinet, and he issued in November the first number of a new semi-official paper, named *Le Public*, which met with but very little success. The *Etendard*, with between three and four thousand subscribers, is edited by M. Aug. Vitu. The *France*, the organ of the Vicomte de Lagnéronnière, has six thousand subscribers; and the *Pays*, edited by Granier and Paul de Cassagnac, sells only between 800 and 1,000 copies daily, and is considered the most unpopular paper in France. The Cassagnacs pay to the owners of the *Pays* fifty thousand francs a year, and in return receive all the money paid in for subscriptions and advertisements. *La Presse*, now under the control of Mirès, the famous banker, circulates between 5,000 and 8,000 copies.

Among the first-class political weeklies established in Paris since the promulgation of the new press law, the *Electeur*, the organ of

Jules Favre and the members of the Left in the Corps Législatif, the *Tribune*, edited by Eugene Pelletan, and the *Reveil*, M. Delecluze's journal, deserve special mention. Their circulation on the 1st of November was, respectively, 25,000, 18,000, and 14,000 copies.

FRENCH EXHIBITION. In the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA of last year, under the head of the "French Exhibition," brief notices were given of some of the material and machines then exhibited, but there was a very important omission in one of the awards of the new prize.

The Emperor of France proposed ten awards of 10,000 francs each (nearly \$2,000 gold), or 100,000 francs in the aggregate, to ten different individuals or associations, who, in a series of years, had accomplished the most to secure a state of harmony between employers and their work-people, and most successfully advanced the material, intellectual, and moral welfare of the same. A special jury was appointed from the different countries represented in the exhibition. Five hundred applications were received from France and other countries on the Continent of Europe, from Great Britain and the United States.

Nine of the awards were given to France, Germany, and other countries in Europe, one to the United States, and none to Great Britain. The name of the Pacific Mills, Lawrence, Mass., was placed third in the list of ten successful candidates; this award was among the highest made at the Exposition, and the highest received by a citizen of the United States. The recompense awarded consisted of a gold medal with appropriate emblems, and motto, and name on it; nine thousand francs in money, and a diploma printed on medallion card suitable for framing.

The "Pacific Mills" is the corporate name of a joint-stock company, devoted to the manufacture, from the raw staples, of ladies' dress goods, of cotton wholly, of worsted wholly, and of cotton and wool combined, and the printing or dyeing of the same.

There are now in operation about 100,000 spindles for spinning cotton, with cleaning, picking, and carding machines to supply them, and about 16,000 spindles for worsted, with all the necessary preparing machines to occupy 3,500 looms for weaving the two classes of goods above-named and others, together with 22 printing-machines, producing a weekly average of about 700,000 yards. The machinery is propelled by 8 turbine wheels, of about 1,500 horse-power. About 3,600 work-people are now employed by the company; of these there are 1,680 men, 1,510 women, 80 boys between 10 and 12 years, 140 boys from 12 to 18 years, 40 girls from 10 to 12 years, and 150 girls from 12 to 18 years.

In the origin of the establishment the principle was adopted by the managers that there was to be a mutual dependence between employers and employed, each having rights which the other should respect. For the ma-

terial well-being of the laborers, special care was used, in the original construction of the work-rooms, to make them cheerful, comfortable, and well-ventilated. Houses were constructed, which should give to families residences at a moderate rent, that would secure the health and comfort of the work-people. The weekly rent for these houses is about equal to one-eighth of men's wages. Large buildings were erected for the use of single females whose residences were at a distance. The rooms are arranged for two persons each; well ventilated and lighted, and comfortably furnished. Unmarried men are never allowed to lodge in these houses, nor in any case a married man excepting he is accompanied by his wife, and even then but rarely. Females pay about one-third of their average wages for rooms in these boarding houses, including food, lights, and washing. It is common to provide coal, and sometimes flour, for the work-people, at the cost price of large quantities.

Each person employed by the company *must* be a member of an association called "Pacific Mills Relief Society," the entire management thereof being in the hands of the work-people, each officer being chosen by themselves from their own number, excepting the president, which office has always been filled by the resident manager. Each person, on commencing service, pays two cents per week to the relief fund. When the sum in the hands of the treasurer of the society, who is always the confidential clerk of the company, and keeps the deposit with the company for protection, has reached the sum of \$1,500, the weekly subscription of all persons who have been employed by the company three months ceases, while it continues with the new-comers. This condition of funds occurs so often that for nearly one-half the time the older employés are not assessed. Persons in the employment of the company three months become full members of the Relief Society, and entitled to certain privileges. If sickness occurs, preventing any from labor, the sick one becomes the special charge of certain appointed stewards, to see that a nurse and physician are secured, if necessary, and to draw from the wardrobe of the society such changes of personal and bed linen as the circumstances demand.

Each sick person (if the illness continues one week) who has paid two cents per week for at least three months, receives \$2.50 for the first ten weeks of sickness, and \$1.88 per week for longer-continued sickness. In cases of special need the officers of the society are authorized to make an extra allowance. Those who die poor have their funeral expenses paid, and are respectably buried in the beautiful lot in the city cemetery belonging to the society. In some cases the deceased has been sent to his native town, by the desire of his friends, without cost.

The total amount of money expended for the benefit of sick members in twelve years of its

existence, ending in April, 1866, has been \$25,-530.68, to 1,868 persons, and the amount paid to the fund has exceeded this sum by about \$1,200. The corporation contributes weekly to this fund, and also to meet individual cases which are especially aggravated.

To meet the protection of the large number of single females employed by the company, who are away from the guardianship of their friends, the boarding-houses are controlled by persons carefully selected for their ability to influence this class of work-people of established good character, who will secure the comfort of their boarders, save them from bad moral influences, and act as far as possible in the place of guardians. If a female gives any reason for suspicion that she is guilty of immorality, she is admonished, and, if reform is not immediate, she is discharged from the house and from employment. The doors are locked at ten o'clock at night, and no one is allowed to be out after that hour without a satisfactory excuse. Men of intemperate habits, or of general bad character, are excluded from the company's service.

When the company was first established, the directors appropriated \$1,000 for the purchase of suitable books for a circulating library, and provided a convenient room for it on their premises. The work-people have always been required to pay one cent each week during their services, and they thus become members of the "Pacific Mills Library Association," which is managed entirely by themselves. This weekly payment secures the privilege of the use of the library and reading-rooms of the society. One room is appropriated to males, and is supplied with newspapers, and scientific and literary serials, and is open from 6 A. M. till 9 P. M., warmed and lighted. It is in close proximity to the other room containing the library, now exceeding 5,000 vols., and also a cheerful, airy, comfortable, carpeted apartment for females, and made attractive by daily and weekly publications, and stereoscopes. It is open from 9 A. M. till 9 P. M. A large number of volumes of the library are in constant circulation, as the number of the work-people who cannot read or write does not exceed 50 in 1,000, and these are principally of foreign birth. The funds of the society are also used to purchase tickets of admission to lectures, and suitable popular amusements, which are distributed among the members.

It has often been stated that care of employers for the education and welfare of their operatives, especially to the extent herein shown, is incompatible with pecuniary success. Facts prove that this is not true with the Pacific Mills. There have been no strikes among the work-people, which are their curse, and the dread of employers. They have been encouraged to feel that any grievances will be patiently listened to, and frankly discussed. A higher class

of workmen has been secured. Those best able to appreciate the privileges enjoyed in connection with this company have been drawn thither for employment. Many of the work-people have invested their funds in savings banks, and this is specially encouraged.

Quite a number of the work-people own houses free of debt, while others have been partially assisted by the company, it receiving a portion of their wages each month in reduction of the debt. More than \$50,000 are thus invested. Others invest their funds in the bonds of the United States Government. Several of the workmen are owners of the stock of the company. Their stock has now a market value exceeding \$60,000. Investments of earnings in premiums on life insurance have been made by many of the workmen. More than one of the workmen has been a member of the city government in its Board of Aldermen and Common Council.

The least sum now paid in weekly wages to the youngest employé is \$1.82 in gold. Boys of sixteen years do not receive less than \$2.85 gold weekly. The least amount paid weekly to men is \$6.75 gold. Females receive from \$2.48 gold weekly, for the lowest, to \$6.72, while a few earn more. Spinners, weavers, and a few others, are paid in accordance with their products, some of them earning very large wages.

The stockholders have invested \$2,500,000 in the company. During the past twelve years they have received in dividends more than \$3,000,000, and the value of the fixed property is in excess of the capital stock; and in the hands of the treasurer, as cash capital, there is a very large amount of undivided earnings.

FULFORD, Right Rev. FRANCIS, D. D., Bishop of Montreal and Metropolitan Bishop of Canada, a prelate of the Anglican Church, born in Fulford, Devon, in 1803; died at Montreal, September 9, 1868. He was educated at Exeter College, Oxford, and was for some years a Fellow of that College. Resigning his fellowship on his marriage, he was preferred to the rectorship of Trowbridge, Wilts, and subsequently appointed minister of Curzon Chapel, May Fair. In 1850 he was consecrated Bishop of Montreal, and came to that city, which was thenceforth his residence until his death. He was active and zealous in his duties in this responsible position, possessing rare gifts of temper, judgment, prudence, and moderation; in administrative power he had few equals, and still fewer superiors. He was noted for his learning, and took an active part in the promotion of education throughout his diocese; yet his profound scientific and classical attainments were never paraded before the public. He was widely popular with all classes and ranks of people throughout Canada. In 1859 he was appointed, by royal letters patent, Metropolitan Bishop of Canada.

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GATES, Brevet Brigadier-General WILLIAM, colonel Third Artillery, U. S. A., a brave and meritorious army officer, born in Massachusetts, in 1788; died in New York City, October 7, 1868. He entered the Military Academy at West Point in 1801, and graduated in 1806, when he was appointed second lieutenant in the regiment of artillerists, and served in garrison at Atlantic posts until 1812; when the war with Great Britain commenced, he was appointed acting adjutant of a regiment of light artillery, and aide to General Porter. He had been advanced to a first lieutenancy in 1807, and in March, 1813, was promoted to be captain of the regiment of artillerists. He was engaged in the capture of York (now Toronto), Canada West, and in the bombardment of Fort George. In May, 1814, he was transferred to the corps of Artillery, and served in garrison and frontier duty for several years. On the reorganization of the army in June, 1812, he was made captain in the Second Artillery, and in 1823, brevet major. He remained in garrison duty till 1832, when, during the troubles in regard to nullification in South Carolina, he was stationed at Fort Moultrie, in Charleston harbor, with his command (he had been promoted to be major in May, 1832). He took an active part in nearly all the Indian troubles, having captured Osceola in person, and escorted the Cherokees to the Indian Territory; and, when the war with Mexico broke out, he accompanied the Third Artillery as colonel. In 1846, and for two years subsequent, he acted as Governor of Tampico, Mexico. Since then he had done many years' service in garrison. He retired from active service in 1863, and was brevetted brigadier-general in 1865, for long and faithful services. General Gates was one of the old school—one of the few remaining links that connect us with the past. He was engaged for sixty-two years in his country's service. General Gates was the father of seventeen children, only seven of whom survived him, the youngest being but seven years of age. He was buried on Governor's Island, New York harbor, by the side of his son Major Gates, who fell in the Mexican War.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES IN 1868. The year 1868 has been more remarkable for physical phenomena, earthquakes of a terribly destructive character, violent volcanic eruptions, and the depression of considerable tracts of the earth's surface, and for changes in political geography caused by revolutions, wars, etc., than for any of those great discoveries which have made some of the years of the past decade so conspicuous. No great exploration has been crowned with perfect success, so far as we are aware, during the

past year, except that of Carl Mauch, into the hitherto untrodden regions between the Limpopo and the Zambesi, which has resulted in the finding of extensive gold-fields, to which thousands have since been hastening. At this time we are uncertain whether Livingstone, now supposed to be slowly making his way to the Lower Nile, has definitely settled the question of the ultimate sources of the Nile; and we are equally in the dark as to the recent progress of that intrepid and daring traveller Gerhard Rohlfs, in his adventurous journey into the kingdom of Wadai, from Abyssinia and Eastern Africa. War, which sometimes, as in the case of the Abyssinian expedition, promotes our geographical knowledge, oftener tends to obscure and prevent it. In Central Africa, in South America, and in China, and Middle Asia, it has sadly hampered and delayed the movements of explorers, and often put them in great peril.

But the year, though not prolific in discoveries, has been one of more than ordinary mortality among the friends and promoters of geographical research. *Lieutenant Le Saint*, whose departure on an expedition across the African Continent, we chronicled in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, fell a victim to the deadly paludal fever of the Upper Nile, in April, 1868, at Abu Kûka, 120 miles north of Gondokoro. *Charles John Andersson*, a brave and intrepid explorer, whose "Lake Ngami" and "Okavango River" give evidence of his daring and his scientific qualifications as a geographer, had made his home in Herrero-Land, and, after encountering perils and wounds which had materially impaired his health, died of fever, near Ondonga—Southwest Africa. Rev. *Pierce Butler*, rector of Ulcombe, Kent, an accomplished geographer and physicist, who had made two very careful and thorough reconnaissances of the Sinaitic peninsula, and had arranged for a third and more complete exploration of that entire region, under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society, on which he was to have set out on the very day on which he died (February 8th), succumbed to a sudden attack of illness, greatly to the distress of his friends and the loss of science. *John Crawford*, a veteran traveller and geographer, more critically acquainted with the entire East-Indian Archipelago, Burmah, Siam, and British India, than any man of our time, a man whose careful research and fulness of knowledge on all geographical subjects had made him at times perhaps a little captious, and had caused his associates in the Royal Geographical Society to give him the title of Objector-General, but who was nevertheless a most accomplished scholar in all departments of physics, died very suddenly, though at the

great age of 85 years, in London, on the 11th of May. At the very beginning of 1869 (January 9th), *Viscount Strangford*, a learned traveller in the East, and a profound Orientalist, an active member of the Geographical Society, and said to be better acquainted with the entire range of Oriental literature than any other man in Great Britain, died at the early age of 43 years.

These losses it will be difficult to make up, for so wide is the range of geographical science, that few men can give it that thorough and life-long study which will qualify them to become authorities in regard to all subjects appertaining to it.

We turn now to the brief record of what has been accomplished in the way of exploration and discovery during the year 1868, and commence with the Arctic region, and the efforts to penetrate into the circumpolar space. The year was as prolific in theories and adventures, and as barren in accomplishment, as that which had preceded it. The German Arctic Expedition, projected and fitted out by Dr. Aug. Petermann, sailed from Bremen in the *Greenland* or *Germania*, a vessel of eighty tons burden, commanded by Captain Karl Koldewey. On the 24th of May they left Bergen, Norway, and on the 19th of July had penetrated as far north as $80^{\circ} 30' \text{ N. lat.}$ and $60^{\circ} 35' \text{ E. long.}$ from Greenwich, where they were seriously impeded by the ice. Captain Koldewey, while managing his little vessel with great skill, to avoid being crushed by the ice, made repeated efforts, both on that parallel and farther south, to reach the east coast of Greenland, but without success, though on the 10th of August they reached the meridian of $17^{\circ} 30' \text{ W. long.}$ in $\text{lat. } 73^{\circ} 23' \text{ N.}$, when they were not more than seventy miles distant from Cape Hold-with-Hope, and could see several of the rocky promontories of the coast, but the heavy solid ice prevented their penetrating any nearer. Finding progress in this direction impossible, Captain Koldewey turned the prow of his vessel toward the north coast of Spitzbergen, and on the 21st of August reached Cape Torell, $79^{\circ} 23' \text{ N. lat.}$, and $21^{\circ} 30' \text{ E. long.}$ from Greenwich, having passed through the Hinlopen Straits, though not without considerable difficulty. Here they were locked in by the ice for several weeks, but, by climbing the mountains, and using their powerful glasses, they were able to survey the greater part of the southern coast of the island of Northeast Land (the northeast island of the Spitzbergen group). They waited till the 10th of September for the breaking up of the ice, but, foul weather coming on, with snow and fog, they were reluctantly obliged to return homeward. By great exertion they succeeded in forcing a passage through the Hinlopen Straits into the sea north of the Spitzbergen Islands, and on the 14th of September reached $\text{lat. } 81^{\circ} 5' \text{ N.}$ on the 16th meridian of east long., the farthest point yet attained in this part of the Arctic

Ocean, though not so high by nearly two degrees as Wrangel's Land north of Smith's Sound, visited by Parry. On their return they reached the Fiord of Bergen on the 30th of September, 1868, and at Bremen were entertained with a banquet on the 16th of October.

An Arctic expedition was also dispatched from Stockholm by the Swedish Government in the summer of 1868. A powerful screw-steamer, expressly built for winter navigation, and provisioned for twelve months, sailed in July, and by the last of September had reached the latitude of $81^{\circ} 42' \text{ north}$ of Spitzbergen.

Captain Lambert, of the French Navy, whose projected voyage toward the polar regions, by way of Behring's Straits, was noticed in the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867, was delayed by various causes, mainly by the incompleteness of the subscription (the voyage being long and very expensive), and did not, as he had expected, sail in the autumn of 1868, but will probably commence his voyage during the year 1869.

Meantime, Captain Hall still remains in that frozen region, and has pursued his discoveries with considerable success. He has ascertained, beyond a doubt, that Captain Crozier and one other man of Franklin's party survived till 1864, and had heard of some traces of others of the party in Prince William's Land, which he was about to explore. His heroism and perseverance certainly deserve success. Of projected expeditions to the Polar Seas, the number is greater than ever before. Dr. Hayes is endeavoring to secure the means for another tour of exploration, by way of Smith's Sound, in search of that open Polar Sea which he has already twice essayed to reach; Captain Sherard Osborne is urging with great strenuousness another British expedition, also by way of Smith's Sound; the Russian Government propose to seek a route to the Pole by way of the New Siberian Islands or Nova Zembla; Captain Long, an intelligent and experienced captain of a whale-ship, whose discovery of new lands in high latitudes was chronicled last year, has demonstrated, in two or three well-written essays, that the attempt to enter the Polar Sea, and to reach the Pole by Baffin's Bay and Smith's or Jones's Sound, is futile, because the advance must be made against the strong current of water and ice flowing out of this sea through these channels, and down the east coast of Greenland; the result of the immense volume of water poured into it from the great rivers of Siberia and Arctic America; and he advises, as the only sensible course, to follow the current through Behring's Straits, and either along the route lying north of Siberia and Russia to its efflux into the Atlantic by way of Spitzbergen, or north of the extensive tracts of land to the north of our own continent to the Pole itself, and out by way of Smith's or Jones's Sound, and Baffin's Bay. Captain David Gray, an experienced Scottish whaling-captain, insists, and will at-

tempt the experiment this season, that the true way to the Pole is by the eastern coast of Greenland, thence there, being, he says, even in winter, field or floe ice, and always in motion, so that it is more easily penetrated than the attached ice of Smith's Sound. He urges also that this route is the one most readily and easily accessible, and that it can be reached so much earlier than any other as to give a much longer season for prosecuting the voyage.

With so many ardent explorers in the field, it is hardly possible that another year should pass without revealing to us the secrets so long sought, and demonstrating that it is not so very cold and dismal at the North Pole after all.

With a few words concerning some of the countries partially or wholly within the arctic circle, we will pass to warmer climes.

Mr. Edward Whymper undertook, in 1867, an exploration of the interior of *Greenland*, while his brother was ascending the Yukon in Alaska; but his expedition was somewhat unsuccessful, in consequence of an epidemic which delayed him until much of the route he had intended to traverse was impassable. He, however, made a considerable collection, mineral, botanic, and archaeological, and obtained partial vocabularies of some of the Indian and Esquimaux tribes.

In *Iceland* there was a violent eruption, in August, 1867, from the north side of the volcano Skaptár Jökull, which was visible for more than a hundred miles from the shores of the island. No lives were lost, nor was any serious injury sustained in consequence of it. The attention of Danish geographers and physicists has been of late called to the mountains of Iceland, which are more numerous than is generally supposed. Professor Schjellerup in 1867 published a list of twenty-one, giving the latitude and longitude of each, and its height above the sea in Danish feet, which differ but very slightly from English feet. Of these the Öræfa Jökull is the loftiest, being 6,241 feet above the sea-level. The next four in height are the Eyjafjalla Jökull, 5,432 feet; Herderbri, 5,290 feet; Hecla, 4,961 feet; and the Snaefells Jökull, 4,577 feet. None of the others rise above 4,000 feet; and the lowest, Ingólfshöfði, is but 260 feet in height. A considerable number of the whole are volcanoes.

Alaska, considering its remoteness, and how little was previously known concerning it, has within the past two years been explored more fully than most of the northern portion of the continent. Mr. Frederick Whymper ascended and descended the Yukon River for 1,300 miles, and explored other portions of the territory with great care and thoroughness. Mr. Dall and Mr. Thomas Kane (brother of the Arctic explorer), have both traversed considerable portions of it, and have given us a very fair idea of the commercial, agricultural, mineral, and zoological value of our new territory. That it has several large navigable rivers, great numbers of fur-bearing animals, some valuable

minerals and metals, and trees and shrubs of stunted growth, except in the interior, fisheries of considerable probable value, coal of good quality, and ice in great abundance, may be considered certain. Its native inhabitants seem to be, in about equal numbers, Esquimaux, or Innuits, and Indians; but the former, whose homes are nearer the coast, in striking contrast to those in the more eastern part of the continent, are men of large stature, finely formed, and considerably intelligent; while the Indians are smaller and some of them more degraded than most of the Indian tribes of the Pacific slope. Mr. Whymper, who visited also Kamtchatka and the coasts of Northeastern Siberia, obtained very full vocabularies of the languages of several of the Indian and Esquimaux tribes on both continents, and the great similarity of some of these indicates the close connection between the Esquimaux of Northern America and the Aborigines of Northern Siberia. His narrative of his travels, which is very interesting, has been republished here by Harper and Brothers. Mr. W. H. Dall, who was a companion of Mr. Whymper in a part of his tour, in a paper read before the Boston Society of Natural History, confined himself mainly to the physical geography of Alaska. He states that the Rocky Mountain range, about latitude 64°, turns westward, and meets the coast range in a confused, high, rolling country, where the distinctive characters of both ranges are lost. From these springs, however, one lofty volcanic range, which, extending at first westward, and then southward, forms the backbone of the peninsula of Alaska. North of this, between the Mackenzie and Porcupine Rivers, the country is filled with low rolling hills, but west of the Mackenzie, along the northern coast, the Romanzoff Mountains, a separate, lofty, snow-capped range, extend nearly to the mouth of the Colville River. There are, in consequence of this deflection of the mountains westward, two distinct fauna in the territory; that of the west coast of North America, bounded to the north by the Alaskan Mountains, and that of the great valley of the Yukon and its tributaries, which is properly northern and eastern in its character. There are no glaciers north of the Alaskan Mountains, but many local ones south of these mountains.

Captain Edward G. Fast, formerly stationed at Sitka, brought to New York, early in 1868, a large collection of implements, domestic and warlike, and curiosities and antiquities of this new region, many of them illustrative of the degree of civilization, habits, and customs of the Indian and Esquimaux tribes there.

In the summer of 1867, Commander W. Chimmo, of the British Navy, in her Majesty's steamship Gannet, surveyed a portion of the *Labrador* coast between the parallels of 52° and 56° north latitude, and found that the charts of previous surveys had placed the coast from ten to eleven miles too far eastward.

He explored several of the harbors along the coast, some of which, especially, Occasional Harbor, Indian Tackle, and Hopedale, he found of considerable importance for the fisheries.

There is nothing of special geographical interest to report respecting the *Dominion of Canada*. The restlessness of a portion of its inhabitants under the new *régime* and the extraordinary magnitude of the emigration thence to the United States during the past year seem to indicate that its present government is not likely to prove a permanent one, and the most intelligent English travellers and explorers are unanimous in advising the British Government to grant it entire independence or to cede it to the United States. The vast region hitherto known as the Hudson's Bay Company's Territory is to be incorporated with Canada, and, while adding greatly to its area, will increase its expenses far more than its capacity for production.

Mr. Waddington, an enterprising capitalist of *British Columbia*, who has devoted much attention to the best routes for a railroad across British America, and has explored most of the available routes in person, read a paper before the Royal Geographical Society, in March, 1868, and made an address upon this subject. The route he proposed would go in an almost straight line from Montreal to Collingwood on the Georgian Bay, thence around Lake Superior to Dog Lake, Lake of the Woods, and Fort Garry; thence northward along Red River to Lake Winnipeg, up Lake Winnipeg along the Saskatchewan to near the foot of the Rocky Mountains, across through a pass in 50° 56' north latitude, near the southern end of Soudan Lake, the elevation of which does not exceed 2,500 feet above the Saskatchewan River, and is very gradual, thence following the valley of the upper Frazer River to the mouth of the Quesnille, a distance of 280 miles, and from that point in a nearly straight line to Bute Inlet in about latitude 50° 30'. This route has several advantages: Its length was somewhat greater than that of the Union Pacific Railway, being 3,490 miles, but 2,400 miles of the whole could consist, at first, of steamboat navigation, railroads being subsequently constructed as needed, and the 1,090 miles of railroad being in great part provided for by the colonial governments. Mr. Waddington contended that this route was much less liable to obstruction by snow than that of the Union Pacific.

Coming now to the *United States*, there is on the Atlantic slope but little in the way of either geographical progress or discovery to report. A few facts in physical geography and its allied sciences are all that have attracted our attention. In Salisbury, Connecticut, a remarkable cave, rivalling the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky, was discovered in 1868. Its numerous chambers, halls, and galleries, are adorned with stalactites and stalagmites of the most varied forms, and in some instances rise

into vaulted ceilings or lofty domes, glittering, by artificial light, with numberless crystalline stars.

In the vicinity of Poultney, Vermont, numerous natural wells have been discovered far down below the horizontal layers of slate in the slate quarries, made, it is believed, by the whirling of large pebbles or round stones, in the hollows into which currents of water from greater elevations had forced themselves.

The coast of New Jersey has been for many years past gradually subsiding, as the recent geographical and geological survey of the State clearly proves. The tides along the whole coast reach a much higher point than they did sixty or one hundred years ago, and the shores have worn away, especially in the southeastern portion of the State, from a fourth of a mile to a mile. From these and other facts, the average subsidence is reckoned at about two feet in a century. As much of the southern part of the State is but slightly elevated above the ocean level (very few points in Cape May County being more than twenty feet above it, this gradual subsidence occasions considerable apprehension. There are, however, very probably in the future, as there have been in the past, epochs of elevation as well as of subsidence, and if these should not come in season, as a last resort, the people of southern New Jersey, like those of Holland, must resort to diking out the sea.

One of those measures, of which our times are so prolific, for changing the course and embouchure of great rivers, or the connection of large bodies of water, is now in progress in Louisiana. The Mississippi and Mexican Gulf Ship-Canal Company have undertaken to open a ship-canal between the Mississippi River and Lake Borgne, to leave the river at English Turn, ten miles below New Orleans. This canal will be but about three miles in length, opening into the Bayou Bienvenue, an arm of Lake Borgne; it will be eighteen feet in depth, and have a lock three hundred and fifty feet in length and eighty feet in width, to guard against the annual rise and fall of twelve feet in the river. By this route the largest steamers can load anywhere on the Upper Mississippi, for any of the Gulf ports east of New Orleans, passing out through Lake Borgne into the Mississippi Sound, and thence to Mobile or elsewhere in the Gulf, saving the one hundred and twenty miles of difficult and dangerous navigation of the Mississippi below English Turn, as well as the passage of the bar, and the eighty miles northward from Pass l'Outre to Cat Island; or the dangerous and shallow navigation of Lake Pontchartrain. The cost of the canal is estimated at \$300,000, and it is to be completed by September, 1869. It is estimated that it will save nearly a million of dollars annually in tonnage, pilotage, and port charges, while it will greatly increase the commerce of the port. In this case, the canal, so inexpensive in its character, seems to be

fraught only with beneficent results; but the attempt to change the natural course of large bodies of water is to be deprecated when, as in some instances is the case, it will produce far-reaching results not contemplated by the projectors. The proposed great ship-canal from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi River might very possibly restore the bottom lands of Lower Illinois to their ancient condition as one or more great lakes, produce great destruction in the region of the Lower Mississippi, and so far drain the great lakes as to materially diminish the volume of water which passes through the Niagara River and the St. Lawrence.

Two discoveries in meteorology and ornithology have yet perhaps a sufficient bearing on physical geography to be worthy of a place in our record. In August, 1868, an immense meteor or aërolite exploded in the vicinity of Cheat-ham's Cross Roads, Tennessee, and a fragment of it, cone-shaped, and about seven feet in its longest diameter, and ten feet in circumference at its base, supposed to weigh at least five or six tons, penetrated several strata of the soft blue limestone of that region, and sunk to a depth of twenty-five or thirty feet. When discovered, five or six days after the explosion, it was still very hot, though a stream of water had passed over it for several days. So large a meteorite has not fallen in this country since the large mass which fell in the Red River region, Arkansas, nearly fifty years ago, and it is doubtful whether this is not larger than that. Near Mound City, Illinois, a bird was shot in the autumn of 1868, by James Harney, of a genus and species entirely unknown. It weighed 104 pounds, was larger than an ostrich, had a snow-white body, a scarlet head, a yellow bill, twenty-four inches long, green sinewy legs four feet long, and was on a high tree engaged in devouring a sheep which it had captured. Several of these points resemble more nearly the fossil birds who were the contemporaries of the mastodon, etc., than any known living birds.

The *Western region of the United States* includes properly both slopes of the Rocky Mountains, the Great Utah Basin, and the northern valleys between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, and also that chain of mountains and the Coast Range, as well as the valleys between and beyond the latter. Across this wide extent of mountain, valley, and plateau, the two Pacific Railroads, one starting from Omaha in Nebraska, and the other from Sacramento in California, have been approaching with extraordinary rapidity during the year 1868, and in May, 1869, formed a junction. The enterprise is the most stupendous of modern times, and on its completion opens a continuous railway route of over 3,300 miles. It is estimated that the running time between New York and San Francisco will be reduced to seven days, and perhaps on the fastest trains to six. The result of this greatly

increased speed of transit must necessarily change the conditions of political geography materially, and must eventually make San Francisco and New York the ports of entry and departure for the entire commerce of the Orient, and the latter the financial capital of the world. The climate, soil, and productions of California and the Pacific slope are such as to invite an immense immigration, and to give the promise of a vast and populous empire there; but the year 1868 developed a danger to its population not hitherto taken into the account. There had been occasional slight earthquake shocks on the coast since the organization of California as a State, and there were traditions of others of somewhat greater severity, seventy or a hundred years ago, but these had never excited the attention of the people until the morning of October 21, 1868, when a series of earthquakes occurred which produced great consternation, and destruction of property, and the loss of six lives in San Francisco, and a considerable number in other parts of the State. The first shock was the most destructive, though subsequent ones completed the ruin of some buildings injured by the first. The most serious results occurred on the made ground (that which had been filled in, having originally formed a part of the bay). There were occasional shocks of considerable severity for two or three months; one on the 2d of December, destroying the little town of Loretto in California. One or two of the volcanoes of the State, hitherto quiet, have given indications of renewed activity by sending up columns of smoke, though they have not as yet emitted water, mud, sand, ashes, or lava. The volcanic character of large tracts of the soil indicates that they were active centuries ago.

Lower California, the peninsula lying between the Gulf of California and the Pacific Ocean, has been but little known to Europeans or Americans. It has about 15,000 inhabitants, mostly Indians, who have been gathered into missions or villages by the Jesuit missionaries who have been stationed there for two centuries or more, and have lived a life of great seclusion, holding very little intercourse with the rest of the world. In 1866 a company of capitalists, organized as the Lower California Land Company, explored the peninsula, both along the coasts and through the interior, and the next year purchased from the Mexican Government all that part of it lying between the parallels of 31° N. latitude and 24° 20' N. latitude, leaving a rocky and mountainous tract about 100 by 35 miles in extent at the southern extremity, and one almost as mountainous at the north, about 175 by 85 miles. The peninsula has been usually described as an arid, rocky region, with a torrid climate and sterile soil, and has been supposed to be almost uninhabitable. The explorations of Messrs. Ross Browne, W. M. Gabb, and Dr. Ferdinand von Loehr, all men eminent for their scientific attainments, show that it is, on the contrary, in

many respects a very desirable country. Physically, it is divided into three regions, or perhaps we might as properly say four. From Cape San Lucas at its southern extremity, due north to Cape La Paz, latitude $24^{\circ} 20'$, a distance of about 100 miles, the mountain-chain known as the Sierra de San Lazaro, having an average height of about 6,000 feet, a bare granite mass, forms a kind of backbone of the lower portion of the peninsula, and the land slopes from this eastward and westward to the Californian Gulf and the ocean, terminating, however, at either extremity in a rocky, bold promontory. Separated from this chain by La Paz Bay, but commencing about the 24th parallel, and adhering closely to the gulf shore, the Sierra de la Gigantea, a chain having an average height of from 3,000 to 4,000 feet, but rising in occasional peaks to more than twice that height, extends, in a direction nearly due northwest, to about latitude $30^{\circ} 35'$, a distance of full five hundred miles. On the gulf side this chain rises up as an almost perpendicular wall to its full height, giving the impression, which is probably the correct one, that, by some convulsion of nature, the mountain-chain was cleft from summit to base, and one half sank below the waters and now forms the bed of the Gulf of California. On the west side the Sierra de la Gigantea declines gradually in gentle slopes or plateaus with occasional broken tracts toward the Pacific. Between the 26th and 27th parallels the land on the Pacific shore is low, and there are extensive lagoons. Between $26^{\circ} 40'$ and $27^{\circ} 50'$ the peninsula suddenly extends westward, having a mean breadth of about 135 miles, and a range of coast hills of considerable altitude extends from northwest to southeast near the Pacific coast. About latitude 29° the Coast Range, which extends through the whole of Upper California, commences, and from latitude $30^{\circ} 40'$ the eastern side of the peninsula, for a breadth of nearly 30 miles from this Coast Range to the head of the gulf and the Colorado River, is nearly level and low. There are a number of volcanoes on the peninsula, and the soil and mountain-slopes give evidence of the frequency and extent of volcanic eruptions. The climate, though inclined to be dry, is delightful, especially on the plateaus. It is the finest country in the world for the culture of the grape, and there are numerous mountain-streams which can be utilized for the purpose of irrigation. There are mines of copper, silver, and gold, and there are indications of the existence of the ores of quicksilver. Tropical fruits are produced in great perfection.

The *Colorado River*, which discharges its waters into the Gulf of California about the parallel of $31^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude, is one of the most remarkable streams on the North American Continent. Its northernmost source (the Green River) rises near Fremont's Peak in the Wind River Mountains in Idaho, in the immediate vicinity of the sources of the Lewis's Fork

of the Columbia River and the Wind River, an affluent of the Yellowstone and the Missouri; while others of its tributaries have their source in the Rocky Mountains in the centre of Colorado Territory. The general course of its several tributaries, as well as that of the main river, is southwest, until it reaches Callville, a small settlement in the southeast of Utah, whence it flows almost due south to the Gulf of California. It is navigable for steamers to Callville, about 400 miles above the gulf, though for much of this part of its course it passes between perpendicular walls of rock from 4,000 to 5,000 feet high. Above Callville both the main river and its affluents, the Grand, Green, San Juan, and Little Colorado, flow through ever-deepening cañons, the walls of which at some points are nearly 7,000 feet above the bed of the river, and the streams which enter these from either side also flow through deep cañons, and there are several cataracts of great height. The plateaus through which these rivers pass are divided by them, and there is no way of bridging the broad rivers which flow so far below the surface of the plateaus. From the surface of these broad and generally treeless plains, other terraces, with nearly perpendicular walls 1,000 feet or more in height, rise, resembling in the distance gigantic walled towns and fortresses. Over both the loftier and lower plateaus there are massive ruins of once populous walled towns and cities, where it is supposed the predecessors of the Aztecs (the Toltec race) lived and ruled more than a thousand years since. Even now there are on the loftiest of these plains several villages of this intelligent and remarkable race. Some of these were visited by Professor Newberry in 1860, who found them an agricultural people, skilled in many domestic manufactures, fire-worshippers, and wholly diverse in appearance, manners, customs, religion, and civilization, both from the Indian tribes around them (the Apaches and Camanches), and the Pueblo Indians of New Mexico.

Signor Dollfus, an Italian geographer, has recently published his determinations of the elevation of numerous points in *Mexico* made under very favorable circumstances in 1865. On the vexed question of the height of Popocatepetl, his measurement, taken with great care, gives 5,410.8 metres, equal to 17,720 feet, which is 128 feet less than that of Von Girolt, but is probably much nearer the truth.

In Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for March, 1868, Dr. Gustav Bernoulli gives a full account of the physical geography of the State of Guatemala, as well as of its productions, etc., the result of many years' residence there. He states that, contrary to the usual law of the Andean or Rocky Mountain chain, the central Cordilleras, which rise only to an average height of about 3,700 feet, are not the highest mountains of Guatemala, that honor belonging to the volcanic chain, which has an average elevation of over 9,500 feet. The volcano of

Fuego (14,700 feet) is the highest summit in Central America, and the volcano de Agua (12,620 feet) is the next. Pacaya and Atitlan, both volcanoes, are nearly 10,000 feet high. As to the productions of the State for export, the indolence and indifference of the inhabitants render their commercial condition very far below what it should be with their fine soil and genial climate. Cochineal is gathered in considerable quantities, and a moderate amount of tar, spirits of turpentine, and other products of the resinous woods, and dye-stuffs, are exported, though far less than should be. The principal crops of the State are maize, black-beans, rice, bananas, Chili pepper (capsicum), etc., which are consumed by the people, and form almost their entire food. With a great variety of fibrous plants, natives of their soil, and of every preparation, the inhabitants for the most part confine themselves to cotton fabrics generally, blue and red, and their garments of these are scanty in number and size.

Mr. John Collinson, an English civil engineer of great courage and skill, succeeded in 1867 in making a very thorough exploration and spirit-level survey from Lake *Nicaragua* to the Atlantic Ocean, the first, it is said, across Central America except that for the Panama Railway. He found a pass through the mountains from the lake to the Atlantic favorably situated for a railway at an elevation of only 620 feet above the ocean-level, and one on the other side between the lake and the Pacific Ocean, only 615 feet in height. This survey settles the practicability of a new railway across that isthmus. Mr. Collinson also gained much information concerning the quadrupeds of Central America, and the languages of the Indian tribes.

Mr. A. S. Cockburn, English commissioner to the Belize, has communicated to the Royal Geographical Society some interesting particulars relative to his explorations of the Belize River and the adjacent coasts. It would seem that the tract drained by the Belize River, comprising the greater part of British Honduras, is one of the most rainy regions in the world. "The average rain-fall in Belize," says Mr. Cockburn, "for the last four years was 67½ inches per year, and it often rains in the interior when not a drop falls upon the coast." He estimates the annual rain-fall of the district, from 50 to 100 miles from the coast, as above 100 inches, and the water falling into the river and its affluents, from a district 90 by 30 miles, at 39,128,101,745 gallons, equal to 17,467,929 tons. Of this vast amount, he estimates that about two-thirds go off by evaporation, but the quantity of 5,413,680 tons, which is discharged into the sea, brings down with it such quantities of detritus from the soft and recent deposits of that region, that the bed of the river and its delta are filling up with considerable rapidity.

Mr. Lucien de Puydt, a French engineer and

geographer, communicated to the Royal Geographical Society of London, in 1868, an account of two tours of survey and exploration made by him in 1861 and 1865, by order of the French Government, across the Isthmus of Darien, to ascertain the feasibility of an interoceanic canal across that isthmus. The route which he took in his last tour was one hitherto unknown: following toward its source in the mountains, first the Tanela (a stream discharging into the Atlantic south of the Atrato), and finally its southern affluent. They found the latter flowing through a pass in the Nique Mountains (the local name of the Cordilleras, at this point), at an elevation, M. de Puydt believed, not to exceed at the highest 140 feet above the ocean-level. From this pass there was a gentle descent to the plain on the west, through which the Tuyra, another small river, flows into the Pacific. This is by much the most feasible route yet found for an interoceanic canal.

Recent observations, continued for a series of years, indicate that the reputation for unhealthiness of the island of Hayti, and especially of Port-au-Prince, is due to the excess of moisture in the climate. A rain record, kept in that city during the period from August, 1863, to January, 1868, gives the following facts: In 1864, there were 145 days during some part of which rain fell, and the number of inches of rain-fall during the year was 60.57. Of this amount, nearly 11 inches fell in the month of May, and about 9 inches in August. In 1865 there were 157 rainy days, and 66.76 inches of rain fell during the year; and of this, more than 18 inches fell in the month of May, and about 12 inches in September. In 1866 there were 179 rainy days, and 67.43 inches of rain fell during the year; of this, 14 inches fell in April, nearly 9 inches in May, and from 5½ to 7 inches in each of the other months, except December, January, and February. In 1867, there were but 126 rainy days, and only 50.2 inches of rain. Of this, about 13 inches fell in May. There was thus an average rain-fall of 61.25 inches during each of the four years, and an average of 152 rainy days to each year.

A series of deep-sea soundings, made in March and April, 1868, by Captain R. A. Hamilton, of H. B. M. ship *Sphinx*, in the neighborhood of *Santa Cruz*, demonstrates that island to be the apex of an immense submarine mountain. Off Ham's Bluff, one and a half miles from the shore, the lead sunk 1,000 fathoms without reaching bottom.

Hon. E. G. Squier, a very high authority in all statistics relating to Spanish America, published in December, 1868, the following statement of the population of the States of SOUTH AMERICA, and the Hispano-American States of North and Central America, in 1867 or 1868, with the amount of the trade of the United States with them in 1858 and 1866, respectively:

COUNTRIES.	Population.	Trade in 1858.	Trade in 1866.
Mexico	8,283,088	\$8,793,290	\$8,743,821
Guatemala	890,000		
San Salvador	433,000		
Honduras	350,000	267,389	1,348,000
Nicaragua	300,000		
Costa Rica	135,000		
Colombia	2,363,000	4,788,388	5,483,008
Venezuela	1,361,000	4,869,773	3,337,185
Ecuador	1,108,000	13,700	32
Peru	2,106,000	1,686,450	2,023,073
Bolivia	2,300,000	51,031	45,817
Chili	1,558,000	4,627,804	1,901,634
Argentine Republic	1,459,000	3,629,812	8,633,764
Uruguay	177,000	1,200,016	1,827,849
Paraguay	600,000	None.	None.
Brazil	7,677,000	21,907,092	22,616,937

The gold-fields of *Venezuela* have attracted much attention during the past year. The first considerable discoveries of gold in that republic were made in 1854 by Dr. Plassard, a physician of Ciudad Bolivar, the capital of Guiana, one of the States of the republic, but the extent of the gold-fields has not been known till within two or three years, and, indeed, many discoveries were made in 1868. The gold-fields, so far as is yet known, are situated in the vicinity of the hydrographic basin of the Essequibo, the river forming the boundary line between British and Venezuelan Guiana. They are from 100 to 160 miles south of the Orinoco River, and about 200 miles west of the Atlantic Ocean, between the Caroni and the Yuruari Rivers, and east of the latter. There is also very good evidence that they extend east of the Essequibo River in British Guiana. There is as yet excellent placer-mining at many points in this field, and experienced and skilful American mining engineers, who have carefully explored the mountains of that region, find extensive quartz gold-veins running in all directions through the slate and blue-stone of the Mareupio Valley, and the watershed, between the Caroni and the Yuruari. The veins differ greatly in product, though the poorest give a fair yield, even with the rude and wasteful processes employed. They are generally very regular and sound, and offer little difficulty in the extraction of the ore. The only difficulty of magnitude is the unsettled state of the country, and the jealousy and ferocity of the Indian tribes.

We find the following statistics of the empire of Brazil in the Berlin *Zeitschrift für Erdkunde* for February, 1868: The entire population of the empire, in 1867, excepting the wild Indians of the interior, was 11,280,000, of whom 1,400,000 were slaves. The wild Indians were estimated at 500,000, but little is known of their real numbers. In the public schools, there were 107,483 children in regular attendance. The population of the several provinces was, in round numbers, as follows: Pará, 350,000; Maranhão, 500,000; Ceará, 550,000; Piauí, 250,000; Rio Grande do Norte, 240,000; Paraíba, 300,000; Pernambuco, 1,220,000; Alagoas, 300,000; Sergipe, 320,000; Bahia, 1,450,000; Espírito Santo, 100,000; Rio de Janeiro (province and city),

1,850,000; San Paulo, 900,000; Paraná, 120,000; Santa Catharina, 200,000; Rio Grande do Sul, 580,000; Minas Geraes, 1,600,000; Goyaz, 250,000; Amazonas, 100,000; Matto Grosso, 100,000.

Mr. Chandless, whose zeal in the exploration of the tributaries of the Amazonas we have heretofore recorded, still continues his labors in that field. In 1868 he undertook to ascend the Juruá, one of the largest of the affluents of the Upper Amazonas, and spent three months on that river. The Juruá is not far from 1,500 miles in length, and enters the Amazonas on the south shore, about S. lat. 4° and W. lon. from Greenwich 66°. Mr. Chandless ascended the main river (Juruá) between 1,000 and 1,200 miles to lat. 7° 12' S., and lon. 72° 10' W. from Greenwich, but was compelled to turn back while the river was yet navigable for many miles farther, by an attack of Nauas Indians, by which his boat's crew were terrified. On his return he explored the Maués River and one of its affluents, and, when last heard from, was hoping to start soon to explore the Beni, one of the largest of the southern tributaries of the Amazonas.

Professor P. Strobel, an Italian naturalist, has just published in the *Zeitschrift für Erdkunde*, an account of a scientific excursion made by him in 1866, from Curico in Chili, through the Planchon Pass to San Rafael, a considerable town in the Pampas of the *Argentine Republic*. The journey was not without its adventures, and the naturalist, fully alive to whatever concerned his profession, gleaned a large amount of valuable information relative to the geology, mineralogy, botany, and zoology of the Cordilleras as well as the Pampas. His narrative settles several important questions in the botany and zoology of that partially-known region.

The proposed construction of a railway from Cordova to Jujuy, in the *Argentine Republic* (we believe it is now completed as far as Tucumán), furnished an opportunity to Dr. Hermann Burmeister, the director of the State Museum of Physical Science at Buenos Ayres, to make a thorough exploration of the physical geography of that portion (the northwestern) of the republic, and he has reported the work accomplished with great ability and thoroughness, in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for February, 1868. A part of this route was explored on foot about eleven years since, by a young naturalist of Massachusetts, Mr. Nathaniel S. Bishop, then but seventeen or eighteen years of age. His narrative, entitled "A Thousand Miles Walk in South America," was published last year by Lee & Shepard, of Boston, and contains a large number of valuable observations on the soil, productions, and people of this part of South America.

William Bollaert, Esq., a Peruvian geographer, communicated, in the spring of 1868, to the Royal Geographical Society of London, the

result of his explorations in 1866, in the province of Tarapucá, *Southern Peru*. This province is in the Department of Moquegüa, and forms the extreme southwestern portion of the republic. It is a rainless, mostly desert region, but has of late years risen into prominence from the immense quantities of nitrate of soda found there, and which, when refined, yield iodine, and bromine also, in considerable quantities. The refining of the nitrate of soda has caused the establishment of numerous nitrate works, and in 1867 about 150,000 tons were exported. The population of the province was about 20,000, the greater part of whom were dependent directly or indirectly upon the traffic in nitrate of soda. The capital of the province, Iquique, from being a small fishing-village, had become, in 1866, a town of 5,000 inhabitants. Mr. Bollaert has given a very full and exhaustive account of the geology, physical geography, botany, and productions of the province, and the elevation of the principal points, and especially those of the route from Iquique to Noria, on which a railroad was being constructed for the transportation of the nitrate, and fuel and provisions for its refining. Iquique, as well as most of the towns of Southern Peru and Bolivia, was greatly injured, and indeed nearly ruined, by the terrible earthquakes of August 13-16, 1868, which destroyed so many towns, and probably over 50,000 lives, in Ecuador. It was also shaken by the earthquake of October 13, 1868, which, however, spent its greatest force on Atacama, and several of the cities of Chili, on the coast.

The earthquakes which wrought such desolation over a vast district of western South America are elsewhere described in this volume. It is only necessary to say here, as pertaining specially to geographical science, that there were three entirely distinct earthquakes proceeding from different centres, and each doing great injury in its sphere of action, and each lapping over on a portion of the territory visited by its predecessor. The earthquake of August 13th produced an upheaval of the whole coast from Callao, Peru, or perhaps a little north of that port, to Talcahuano in Chili, a distance of more than 1,900 miles. Callao, Arequipa, Moquegüa, Arica, Chala, Tambo, Pisagua, Islay, Tilo, Mollendo, Iquique, Tacna, Pisco, Chincha Buja, and Mejillones, in Peru and Bolivia, and Constitucion, Tomé, and Talcahuano in Chili, were laid in ruins either by the shock of the earthquake or the tidal wave which followed. The Chincha Islands were swept over by the waves, and had previously been desolated by a hurricane and earthquake. The earthquake of August 16th spent its greatest fury on the republic of Ecuador, completely destroying the towns of Ibarra, San Pablo, Atrintaquí, Imantad, Otovalo, and Cotocachi, with the greatest part of their inhabitants. Where Cotocachi stood, is now a lake. Quito and the cities and towns near it

were either partially or entirely in ruins, but the loss of life was less than in the cities of the province of Imbabura. This earthquake reached the northern borders of the preceding, but its great force was spent. The earthquake of October 13th, which it is to be remarked was the same which visited San Francisco and the northern Pacific coast, was accompanied with an eruption from the volcano Lllullanaco, 80 leagues from Copiapo. It extended along the whole coast from Oregon to southern Chili, but its action was most severe in northern Chili, on the coast of Bolivia, and on the Pacific coast of North America. Iquique was visited by this and subsequent slighter shocks, but it suffered less than in the first. The destruction of life in this last earthquake was very small, although it extended over so vast a territory.

Mr. Thomas J. Hutchinson, a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society of London, has, during the war which has existed for four years past in *Paraguay*, been a resident of that country, and has communicated to the *Illustrated Travels* a very interesting narrative of his sojourn there, with very full descriptions of the country, and the character and manners of its inhabitants. He regards the Paraguayans as possessing many fine traits of character, being brave, patriotic, and not bloodthirsty. They make excellent soldiers, and in this protracted struggle have won the sympathy and respect even of their foes.

Turning to the Continent of EUROPE, we must dispatch very briefly what geographical information has been collected concerning its generally well-known states, that we may devote more space to those countries which are less familiar to us.

The kingdom of *Italy* published, in the summer of 1868, its census, taken December 31, 1866. From this it appears that the kingdom is divided into 59 provinces and prefectures (aside from the Lombardo-Venetian provinces), and 193 districts. The population was 22,793,185, an increase of 1,090,000 since the census of 1864. The population of the Lombardo-Venetian provinces was at the same time 2,576,185, making a total for the kingdom of Italy of 25,369,320.

We have also very full census statistics of the *Scandinavian States* of Europe to the close of 1866 or the beginning of 1867. Those of *Sweden* are as follows:

The area of the twenty-five governments was 168,042 English square miles; the population 4,160,677, of whom 2,023,737 were males and 2,136,940 females. There were in the kingdom 428,169 horses, 321,635 oxen and steers, 1,185,556 cows, 417,163 young cattle, 1,589,000 sheep, 133,132 goats, 404,000 swine, and 139,400 reindeer.

The population of the principal towns was: Stockholm, 138,189; Gothenburg, 46,557 (a census of the city and suburbs in 1868 gives 58,164); Norköpping, 23,271; Malinöe, 22,538; Carls-

crona, 16,653; Gefle, 12,561; Upsala, 10,768; Lund, 10,052; Jönköping, 10,013; Kalmar, 9,200; Örebro, 9,007.

The population of the French colonies in 1866 has been recently announced in France,

but not, as yet, been published in any English collection of statistics. We have added to it the imports and exports of 1864, the latest published, and give the whole, with the capitals of each, as follows:

COLONIES.	Population, 1866.	Imports, 1864.	Exports, 1864.	Capitals.	Population of Capitals.
Martinique.....	139,109	\$5,419,555	\$3,768,980	St. Pierre.	20,424
Guadaloupe (including the smaller islands connected with it as a colony).....	132,012	3,733,475	2,815,835	Port Louis.	4,638
French Guiana.....	18,145	1,956,765	265,475	Cayenne.	3,000
Réunion.....	207,886	6,985,900	4,746,815	St. Denis.	19,140
The Senegal Colonies (St. Louis, Goree, and Bakel).....	159,598	3,085,330	2,702,070	St. Louis.	14,386
St. Pierre, Isle of Dogs, and Miquelon.....	2,907	726,555	1,527,665		
East Indian Colonies, embracing only those in India proper.....	227,063	1,169,410	4,155,830	Pondicherry.	40,000
Mayotte, Nossi Bé, and Sainte Marie, in Madagascar.....	26,827				
Algeria.....	2,999,124*	9,900,000	9,000,000	Algiers.	94,600
Tahiti and Moorea, Society Islands.....	32,397				
New Caledonia.....	25,000				
Saigon and its dependencies.....	450,000			Saigon.	180,000

The statistics of *Denmark* are not quite so full, nor to quite so late a date, being for January, 1866. In the nineteen Danish provinces the total area of land was 14,553 English square miles, and the population 1,717,802; a gain of 109,707 since 1860. In the towns, including Copenhagen, the number of inhabitants was 386,206, in the country 1,331,596, indicating the agricultural character of the population. Copenhagen had a population of 162,042; Odense, 15,705; Aarhus, 12,142; Aalborg, 11,104.

The principality of *Servia* also published, in 1868, its statistics to the close of 1866. Its area is, in round numbers, 12,600 square miles, and the population 1,192,086, of whom 20,000 were gypsies, about 2,000 Jews, and 2,500 German settlers. There were seventeen districts, exclusive of the city of Belgrade, the capital. Belgrade has 20,133 inhabitants.

Turning to the vast continent of *ASIA*, we find that the explorations in *Palestine*, and especially at Jerusalem and its vicinity, commenced by the Palestine Exploration Society, in continuation of those of Wilson and Anderssen, under the superintendence of Lieutenant Warren, were continued through most of the year (they have now been suspended), and that they have resulted in an almost complete unsettling of former opinions in regard to the localities of the great events of the Scripture narratives. Lieutenant Warren has demonstrated that the Jerusalem of to-day is from thirty to a hundred feet above the Jerusalem of the commencement of the Christian era, and that, to ascertain with much accuracy the location of any of the buildings of the ancient Jerusalem, a vast and extensive excavation is necessary, too vast to be permitted by the present authorities, and involving expenses too great for private enterprise. His explorations and those of Wilson and Anderssen, elsewhere in the Holy Land, were attended with more positive results. The sites of Capernaum and

Chorazin were ascertained with almost absolute certainty, and that of the ancient Gergesa, the city of the Gergesenes. The ruins at Tell-Hum, and Kerazah, were thoroughly excavated, and the capitals which crowned the columns of the ancient synagogues proved to contain devices which could only have had significance to the Jews of the period of the Christian era.

A new exploration under English auspices, of the *Sinaitic peninsula*, commenced by the earnest efforts of the late Rev. Pierce Butler, is now in course of prosecution by Rev. George Williams and Rev. F. W. Holland, and a party of officers and men of the Royal Engineers, who entered upon their work in October, 1868. Mr. Holland had previously made three journeys in Sinai, and explored much of its territory on foot. The explorers have found good reasons for doubting whether the mountain now known as Sinai is the Mount Sinai of Moses's time; they regard Jebel Um Alowee, another mountain a few miles northeast of the present Mount Sinai, as meeting much more satisfactorily the requirements of the Biblical narrative.

We have from Russian sources some statistics of Tashkend, the capital of Independent Turkestan. The population, according to a census taken in the winter of 1867-'68, by General Heinz, was 64,416, and there were 9,483 dwelling-houses. The following ranges of temperature were observed in the city in December, 1867, and January, February, March, and April, 1868, by Carl W. Struve:

	Mean Temperature.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Days of rain or snow.
December ...	44° F.	70°	25°	7
January	33°	52°	14°	13
February	37°	64°.2	9°	8
March.....	40°.1	75°	6°	14
April.....	58°	81°.5	25°	5

The summer is long, intensely hot, and dry. Ice is sold during the summer at ten copecks (seven and a half cents) per pound. It is, however, a place of great trade, merchants and

* Of these, 235,570 were Europeans.

caravans coming thither from all quarters to buy and sell. The goods sold in the eighteen caravansaries of the city, in 1867, amounted to 2,585,000 rubles (\$1,938,750). This was exclusive of the large quantities sent out from the city by the merchants and artisans.

The Russian Baron von Osten-Sacken, during the year 1867, accompanied by a scientific party, explored with great thoroughness the *Thian-Shan* chain of mountains, and in 1868, as a result of his labors, published a map of the chain between Naryn and the Chinese boundary, on a scale of five versts (about four miles) to the inch, and comprising a territory of about 12,000 square versts in extent; he also deposited in the museum at St. Petersburg a collection of the mammals and birds of the region, and about 500 plants, mostly belonging to the mountain flora, and full botanical descriptions of the *habitat* of these, and other plants of the *Thian-Shan* range.

M. A. Krapotkin, a Russian officer in Irkutsk, furnishes to Petermann's *Mittheilungen* full statistics of *Siberia*, mostly of 1862 and 1863, but these are so much later than any thing heretofore received that they are of great value. The area of *Siberia*, including Russian Turkestan, added to it in 1866, is 5,315,786 square miles. Without this, it was 5,031,916 square miles. The population in 1862 and 1863, of the three governments into which it was then divided, was: Irkutsk Government, 365,240, of whom 192,900 were males, and 172,340 females; Tobolsk Government, 1,105,647, of whom 544,876 were males, and 560,771 females; the Yakutsk Government, 227,907, of whom 116,671 were males, and 111,236 females. Total for the three governments, 1,698,794; of whom 853,447 were males, and 844,347 females. In the Irkutsk Government, 34,159 were inhabitants of towns, and 331,081 of the country; in Tobolsk, 82,923 were inhabitants of towns and cities, and 1,022,724 of the country; in Yakutsk, there were 6,891 only of the town population, and 221,016 of the country. The mass of the population are, at least nominally, connected with the Orthodox Greek Church, its adherents numbering 1,492,583, or about $\frac{3}{4}$ of the entire population; next in order are the dissenting sects of that church, of whom there are 44,179: of the Roman Catholics, there are 3,719; of Protestants, 3,139; of the Armenian Church, 13; of Jews, 871; of Mohammedans, 2,857; of Buddhists, 15,794; of the followers of Schaman, 77,904, and of the Karaim, 8. The number of births in 1863 was 73,080; of deaths the same year, 53,654; and of marriages, 13,632. In the Irkutsk Government, the crop of spring wheat and grain was 2,932,227 bushels; of fall-sown grain, 5,622,124; and of potatoes, 1,162,668 bushels. There were no returns of these crops from the Tobolsk Government, and that of Yakutsk yielded but about 150,000 bushels of grain, and a little more than 8,300 bushels of potatoes.

The manufactures of *Siberia* are mostly elementary and simple, consisting of tallow, candles, soap, coarse cloths, cheap paper, oils, brandy, tobacco and cigars, leather, iron, bells, coarse glass, porcelain and pottery, salt, lime, potash, chamois-leather, beer, molasses, meal, spirits of turpentine, etc. About 6,600 men are employed in these manufactures, and the annual product is a little more than five million dollars.

The nomadic tribes rear considerable herds of cattle. The number of horses reported in 1863 was 990,878; of neat-cattle, 1,168,944; of sheep, 1,055,529, besides 644 fine-wool sheep; of swine, 295,010; of goats, 101,508; of camels, 694 (evidently far below the truth); of reindeer, 259,659; of sledge-dogs, 2,675.

The Chinese are emigrating into that part of *Siberia* which borders on the Amoor River. In November, 1867, a census of them, taken by the Russian authorities, showed that there were 44 Chinese villages, having 1,274 houses, and 10,583 inhabitants. Many thousands of them have also emigrated into the provinces of Russian Turkestan, and the policy of the Russian Government is not now, as formerly, to drive them out.

The progress of Russia in *Central Asia* has attracted much attention during the last three or four years. In that period she has, partly by diplomacy and partly by conquest, annexed to her dominions the whole of Independent Turkestan, a tract of nearly 800,000 square miles in extent, and with a population of about 7,500,000 inhabitants, and she is still sweeping eastward, with the evident design of absorbing all the semi-independent chieftaincies of *Soongaria*, or, as it is now called, Chinese Turkestan. Her past victories include the country of the Kirghiz Tartars, the khanates of Khiva and Khokand, and lastly, in the spring of 1868, the khanate of Bokhara, and the cities of Bokhara and Samarcand. The Emir of Bokhara, a fierce and warlike chief, had been their most formidable enemy; but, in a pitched battle, in April, 1868, he was slain, and his entire khanate fell into their hands. The Russians have a genius for the government and control of these Tartar tribes, and their sway has always been popular with them. Russia's next step forward, whether it be southward, into Cabool, and to take possession of Herât, or southeastward, to Ladakh, or Leh, and thus to the Thibet frontier, will bring her into immediate contact with the British Government, in India; and her presence at either point must be a perpetual menace to the British Government, whose hold upon the affections of the tribes of Hindostan has never been strong, and is weaker now than in the past. Neither the Hindoo Coosh nor the Himalaya Mountains will prove an effectual barrier between nations whose views, policies, and purposes are so diverse from each other.

The Russian Government, not satisfied with its progress toward the Chinese empire, from the West, has also, by its diplomacy, acquired

an extensive territory, and two fine seaports on the eastern coast. This territory forms a part of the coast and eastern portion of Mantchooria, extending from N. latitude 53° to 42° , and their ports, Possiette Bay and Vladivostock, are open the entire year. The Oussoori River forms the western boundary of the territory, which is about 150 miles in width. *Mantchooria* proper, a region lying between 39° and 49° N. latitude, about 800 miles in length, from northeast to southwest, and about 500 in breadth, is a country of fine climate, though somewhat rigorous in winter, and, with a fertile soil, supporting a population of about 15,000,000. Rev. Alexander Williamson, an English clergyman, and an agent of the British and Foreign Bible Society, explored it very thoroughly in 1868, and has communicated to the Royal Geographical Society an extended account of its geography and people. There are considerable mountain-ranges which traverse the country from north to south, the highest being the Shan-Alin range, in the east, whose peaks rise to a height of 12,000 feet, and are covered with perpetual snow. The Mantchoos, the native inhabitants, are of the same race with the reigning family in China, but the tide of immigration from China is fast obliterating their language, habits, and manners, and, in a few years, they will become, to all intents and purposes, Chinese. The country is rich in minerals, the eastern range of mountains having extensive veins of gold-bearing quartz, which are now largely worked. Its soil produces in abundance all the crops of temperate climates, and the southern portion cotton, tobacco, indigo, and silk.

The *Himalayas*, *Thibet*, and the southern portion of *Chinese Turkestan*, have been made known to many of our people the past year through the admirable lectures of Robert von Schlagentweit, one of the heroic brothers who spent several years in the exploration of that forbidding region, and in which Adolph, another brother, lost his life. His graphic descriptions of this hitherto almost unknown region have excited great interest in it. During the past two years the attention of explorers has been turned in an increasing degree to this region. Captain Montgomerie, the Superintendent of the Surveys of the Himalaya Mountains for the British Government, dispatched two Hindoo pundits (one of whom, however, failed to make his way through) from the Nepaul frontier to Lhassa, the capital of Thibet, a distance of 800 miles. The narrative of his adventures is replete with interest. He managed to take observations, and to ascertain both the latitude and longitude and the height of most of the important points, though surrounded by a jealous and inquisitive people, and liable to be put to death if his real errand were discovered.

The routes over the Himalaya from India have risen to sudden importance from the great demand which has recently sprung up

in Chinese or Eastern Turkestan for British goods, which, owing to the war of the native chiefs with China, can no longer be procured from that country. The route by Peshawur and Cabool and Bokhara is safe, but very indirect and long; the recent conquest of Bokhara by the Russians may also create difficulties in this traffic. A route which is obtaining the preference of late is that from Ümrītsür to Leh in Ladakh, which is far more direct, though over a pass 15,000 feet high. From Leh there are routes to Ilchi, formerly called Khotan, northeast of Leh, and to Yarkand, northwest of that town. Both require the traders to cross the Karakorum Pass, 18,200 feet high. Another route from Leh to Ilchi, still farther east, crosses the Himalaya at an elevation of 19,000 feet above the sea-level. Two other routes are spoken of, but neither has been as yet traversed by Europeans, one from Leh round the end of the Kuen Lün Mountains, the other from Jellalabad up the Chitral Valley, and over the Hindoo Coosh into the valley of the Oxus. Both are said to be liable to incursions from fierce and hostile tribes.

The great *table-land of Pamir*, from which radiate the Hindoo Coosh, the Kuen Lün, and the Bieler Dagh, the three great mountain-chains which trend northward from the Himalaya, and which in the expressive language of the Orientals is called the "Roof of the World," is now being explored by native surveyors under the direction of Colonel Walker, Chief of the Board of Survey in India.

In turning to China, we have not as yet the record of the interesting tour of exploration of our countryman, Professor Bickmore, whose communication to the Royal Geographical Society gives the only account of his journeyings in that country which has yet appeared, though it is understood that he is soon to publish a full description of his discoveries. Mr. Bickmore's travels in China were very extensive, and he probably saw more of the interior of that great empire than any other American, or perhaps European traveller. He ascended the Yang-tse and its affluent the Siang as far as the populous city of Kweilin, in latitude 25° N., and thence by interior routes went northward along the borders of the great plain to Moukden, the capital of Mantchooria, in latitude 43° N., a distance of fully 1,300 miles; thence he visited Japan, and reached Europe by way of Siberia.

Mr. T. T. Cooper, an enterprising and intelligent English gentleman, in the winter of 1867-'68, undertook to ascend the Yang-tse-kiang to the extreme western border of China, and explore thence a route for a railway or a practicable pass into Assam, with a view to open a route for trade in that direction. On the 26th of April, 1868, he had reached Tai-tsen-lü, on the extreme western border of China, and was in some peril, by whichever route, whether down the Salwen or through Thibet, he might attempt to reach British territory. He finally

we believe, descended the Salween and Irrawaddy, and reached British Burmah in safety; but was satisfied that a railroad in that direction was impracticable. But Mr. F. A. Goodenough, an old resident of British Burmah, thinks differently, and in a letter to Major-General Sir A. S. Waugh points out two routes, one from Hookong, the other from Bhamo, through which, by passes in the Sing-phoo country, the route is practicable.

Mr. Bickmore, as we have already said, spent some time in *Japan*, and while there found in the island of Yesso a tribe of aborigines, whom he described as the *Ainos*, or hairy men, and whom he believed the original inhabitants of that island, Saghalien, and the Kurile Islands. He describes them as stout and strong, but only averaging 5 feet 2 inches in height; but their great peculiarity consists in the extraordinary development of their hair, not only on the head and face but on the entire body. Their hair is coarse and jet black, and they wear it long, falling over the shoulders, and the men as long or longer than the women. These people evidently belong to the Aryan race; their eyelids are horizontal and open widely, not oblique and partially closed, as in the Mongolian family, and their cheekbones are not prominent. They are not Buddhists like the Japanese, but fire-worshippers, and all their social, domestic, and religious customs are entirely different from those of the Japanese, and their mental characteristics are equally distinct. The Japanese testimony concerning them is, that when they conquered Yesso, 660 years B. C., they found the Ainos there and subjugated them. The fact that they have maintained their existence, though a subjugated race, for 2,500 years, is a strong evidence of their vitality. Their language is peculiar, and unlike that of the Japanese or neighboring nations in the roots of its words, though they have adopted to some extent the Japanese forms of conjugation. It is not improbable that the ancient Japanese alphabet of fourteen letters, recently discovered by Rev. Mr. Goble, a missionary in Japan, and which is evidently Aryan in its origin, may be the alphabet of the Ainos.

The discovery of coal in large quantities and of excellent quality at Ivanei, about 150 miles from Hakodadi, on the island of Yesso, and at a distance of only four miles from the coast and from a good harbor, is an event which will prove of material advantage to the communication by steam between Japan and the ports of India and Western America.

The last scientific work of the late John Crawford, an eminent English geographer, who died May 11, 1868, was the preparation of a paper for the Royal Geographical Society on *British Burmah*. In this he demonstrated very conclusively the great advantages which had accrued to that country from the substitution of the wise and equitable government of it by British officers for the tyrannical and op-

pressive native rule. The population of the country had risen, in the five years ending in 1867, from 1,897,807 to 2,320,453, or more than 23 per cent., and this increase was largely due to the immigration of the Burmese from the native kingdom of Burmah, which the Burmese king sought in vain to prevent.

The great and small islands which, with the peninsula of Malacca, form the vast *East Indian* or *Malay Archipelago*, have within the past few years been very thoroughly explored in the interests of science. Two works devoted to the description of these explorations have recently appeared in England, and both have been republished in this country. The first, in point of time of exploration, was "The Malay Archipelago; the Land of the Orang-Utan and the Bird of Paradise," by Alfred Russel Wallace, a well-known English naturalist, whose previous "Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro," etc., had won him reputation as a careful and patient observer. His present work, republished here by Harper & Brothers, is a valuable and beautiful addition to our knowledge of the fauna and flora of the Malay Archipelago, and gives, in connection with these, considerable information concerning the geology, physical geography, philology, and ethnology of the different groups of islands. Mr. Wallace spent eight years (1854-'62) on these islands, mainly engaged in the collection of the birds, insects, and most remarkable mammals of the region, but his general geographical observations are of great value. The other work to which we have referred is "Travels in the East-Indian Archipelago," by Professor Albert S. Bickmore, published here by D. Appleton & Co. Professor Bickmore's expedition, like that of Mr. Wallace, was specially in the interests of natural science, his primary object being to collect the shells figured by Rumphius (in which he was more than successful), but he gave a large measure of attention also to general zoology, physical geography, and ethnology. His tour was performed in 1865 and 1866, and was replete with adventures. He succeeded in obtaining photographs of representative men of the different races of the islands that he visited, which comprised most of the larger and some of the smaller islands of the Archipelago. He says of his journeyings, very modestly:

From Batavia I went to Sourabaya, Macassar, the capital of Celebes, thence to Coupang in the Island of Timor, to Dilly and the Banda Islands, and Amboyna, where I remained two months collecting the shells I had come so far to seek. Fortune favored me in securing the rarest species. The governor of these islands takes much interest in geology. I went with him in his steam-yacht to various interesting places, otherwise inaccessible. From Amboyna I went to Booru and Ternate, thence to the northern end of Celebes, to study the hot springs and volcanoes with which that country abounds, thence by the eastern shore of Celebes to Macassar, and back to Batavia, thence to Padang, making a long journey among the mountains, until I passed some distance into a country inhabited by true cannibals.

Our review of Geographical Discoveries in Africa must necessarily be brief. The physical geography and ethnology of *Abyssinia* were fully developed in the reports and narrations of Mr. Clement Markham, and other scientific explorers, who accompanied the British Army in its invasion of that country, and many new facts ascertained. Mr. Gerhard Rohlfs penetrated into Western Abyssinia, and is now endeavoring to find an entrance through Darfur into Wadai. Lieutenant Prideaux, an English officer, who was one of Theodore's captors, has given, in *Illustrated Travels*, a very interesting account of his journeys and explorations in the Abyssinian Soudan.

Dr. Livingstone has been heard from during the past year, and was exploring Lake Tanganyika and its vicinity at the close of 1867. A recent report represents him as on his way to Zanzibar, from whence he expected to reach the Nile by a route akin to that of Sir S. W. Baker; but this is of doubtful authenticity, and it is quite as probable, if he has not already fallen a victim to the ferocity of the *Mazitu* or the still more formidable Niam-Niams, that he is endeavoring to make his way westward in the vicinity of the 8th or 10th parallel of south latitude, and may at any time be heard from on the west coast. There is supposed to be another large lake northwest of Lake Tanganyika which may be, as Tanganyika probably is not, the ultimate source of the Nile, or quite as possibly, the source either of the Gabūn or of the Congo or Zaire.

The Niam-Niam country has been partially explored, and the existence of this lake ascertained, by three adventurous explorers, the brothers Poncet, Jesuit missionaries, who penetrated into that barbarous region in 1863, and remained there three years, one of them losing his life by the cruelties and tortures inflicted on them by the Niam-Niams; and by C. Piaggia, an Italian geographer, who in 1865 penetrated into the same country. We have as yet but brief notes of their adventures and discoveries, and await with some impatience more full details. The Niam-Niams are said to be cannibals, and there is unquestionably some truth in the statement that the *os coccygis* is in their case prolonged so as to produce a caudal appendage of two or three inches in length.

Galla-Land, the region west of Zanzibar, in which Baron von der Decken lost his life, has been explored during the past year by Richard Brenner, a German geographer, who has penetrated fearlessly among the savage and ferocious tribes of that region.

Passing southward, we come to the region lying between the Zambesi and the Limpopo Rivers, which during the past year has excited so much attention from the discovery there of extensive gold-fields, by the German geologist and geographer, Carl Mauch. In the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867, some account was given of the previous exploring tours of Herr Mauch. The possibility of the existence of gold-veins in

the mountains forming the water-shed between the two rivers had occurred to him, and indeed he had been informed of the existence of abandoned diggings by his friend Hartley, the elephant-hunter. On a subsequent journey, he found, on the river Thuti, or Tuti, an affluent of the Limpopo, in S. lat. $20^{\circ} 40'$ and E. long. about $28^{\circ} 35'$, an extensive gold-field, extending over a considerable district, and giving evidence of having been formerly worked, and abandoned from the influx of water. Proceeding northward, he discovered a second tract, in which the precious metal was abundant, on this same elevated plateau, about 7,000 feet above the sea-level, and 120 miles or more from the southern field. Still farther north, on the Tete, an affluent of the Zambesi, about 40 miles south of the Kraal of Tete, was a third gold-field of still greater extent, and about 250 miles from the one first discovered. He returned to Potchefström, the capital of the Transvaal Republic, with his specimens, and subsequently went from thence to Natal and Cape Town, arriving at the latter place in March, 1868. His announcement of his discovery led to an immediate stampede for the new gold regions, which at the latest dates was still continuing. In July, 1868, Mr. St. Vincent Erskine, son of the Colonial Secretary of Natal, set out from Leydenberg in the Transvaal Republic, and marched for the junction of the Oliphant river with the Limpopo, and thence descended that river to its mouth, a feat which, though often attempted, had not before been accomplished in modern times. He reached the mouth of the river on the 5th of September, and found it coinciding with that laid down on the maps as the Inhampura, in about lat. $25^{\circ} 5'$ south. This was wholly unexpected, as it was generally believed to be at least 200 miles farther north. On the west coast, Mr. Josephat Hahn has continued his articles on the geography, geology, ethnology, etc., of Ova Herero Land, in the *Zeitschrift für Erdkunde*, and the description of this singular and interesting people derives an additional melancholy interest from the death of the traveller, Anderssen, which we have already noticed.

In AUSTRALIA there is little new or of special interest. Two or three large salt lakes in the interior basin, heretofore known to exist, have been more fully explored, and a grand expedition has been projected by Dr. Neumayer, from Port Denison, near the Burdekin (20° S. lat. and 148° E. long. from Greenwich), across the continent, a distance of 1,569 miles, to Swan River (lat. $31^{\circ} 30'$ S., and long. $116^{\circ} 45'$ E.).

The *Sandwich Islands* have been visited during the past year with earthquakes, and in March there was a terrific eruption of the great volcano Mauna Loa, the floor of the crater Kelauea sinking some hundreds of feet, and a new crater opening, the lava from which has proved very destructive to the finest part of the island of East Maui. The shores of this island are said to be sinking slowly.

GEORGIA. The Constitutional Convention of Georgia, which had adjourned on the 23d of December, 1867, came together again on the 8th of January. On the following day, General Meade, who had recently been appointed to the command of the Third Military District, appeared in the hall, and made a brief address to the delegates. As a soldier, he said, his duty was plain, and he should not depart from the instructions contained in the reconstruction acts of Congress. He hoped the convention would be just and moderate in its deliberations; and that it would frame a constitution which everybody could indorse. He did not consider that any act of the convention was binding until it had been ratified by the people, but, under the anomalous state of affairs then existing, he might regard it as his duty to give force to such measures as should appear to him to be for the good of the people.

The pay difficulty, of which an account was given in the *CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867, was not entirely settled by the removal of the obnoxious officials. Captain Rockwell, whom the commanding general had appointed Treasurer of the State, found an empty treasury, and was unable to respond to the requisition of the convention. General Meade, however, offered to use his best endeavors to raise funds to pay the expenses of that body, and from time to time during the session he was able to place at the disposal of the disbursing agent sums sufficient for that purpose.

A large portion of several days was occupied in discussing a proposition to call upon the national authorities to give the convention power to organize a provisional government for the State. This subject was first introduced by George W. Ashburn, who strongly urged the adoption of such a measure. Mr. Ashburn's resolution asked that the convention be clothed with the same powers that were delegated to the district commander by the act of July 19, 1867. The following was offered as a substitute, and adopted by a considerable majority:

Whereas, The reconstruction acts recognize the existence of a government within the limits of Georgia, subject to the military commander of the district and the paramount authority of Congress, under which certain officials hold office;

And whereas, The time for which the said officials were elected, as set forth in the laws allowed to operate within said limits, has expired, and said officials hold only by reason of a failure to provide their successors;

And whereas, A great many of said officials are hostile to and are insidiously using their influence against the restoration of Georgia to the Union, and by so doing are not only seriously retarding the work of reconstruction, but also materially affecting the prosperity of the State: therefore,

Resolved, That the convention do hereby request the Legislative Department of the Government of the United States to authorize this body to declare vacant the Chief Executive office of the State, and to fill the same, as well as to provide for the removal, through the Chief Executive officer of the State thus selected, of all persons who are hostile to reconstruction, and the filling of such vacancies by said Executive.

Resolved, That the convention, in justice to the friends of reconstruction under the reconstruction acts, do hereby request the department aforesaid to relieve all such of existing disability, that they may be eligible to fill the vacancies thus created.

Resolved, That the convention do further request the modification of the test-oath so as to admit of all persons, who have aided or abetted the late war against the United States, holding office therein, provided such persons heartily reject the past, and are earnestly attached to and determined to labor for the reunion of the State on the basis of the reconstruction acts.

The subject of a modification of the test-oath had been already brought to the attention of Congress by the following telegram, which had been submitted to the House of Representatives and referred to the Committee on Reconstruction:

ATLANTA, GA., January 12, 1868.

GENERAL U. S. GRANT: Unless the pending bill in Congress, directing military commanders to fill all the offices in a State under their command, rescinds the test-oath and provides for selection from qualified voters, I am informed its execution in this district will be entirely impracticable.

GEORGE G. MEADE, Major-General.

A bill having been filed in the Supreme Court of the United States by ex-Governor Jenkins, which was intended to test the authority of the civil officers appointed in Georgia by General Meade, several attempts were made in the convention, by ordinance or resolution, directly to condemn these proceedings. No resolution of the kind, however, was adopted, but an ordinance was introduced, and referred to the Judiciary Committee, declaring all appointments to office in that State made by the military commander, to be legal, and all acts performed by officers so appointed to be valid, and not to be called in question in any court of the State on account of the manner in which such appointment had been made. Among other matters of less moment which occupied the attention of the convention, entirely outside of the main object for which it was called, was the removal of the capital of the State from Milledgeville to Atlanta, and the expulsion of one of the negro members. When the proposition to remove the capital was first introduced, the city of Atlanta promptly offered to furnish, for the space of ten years, if necessary, suitable buildings for the General Assembly and all the State officials, and to give the City Fair grounds, containing twenty-five acres, as a site for the erection of permanent capitol buildings. The negro member expelled was Aaron Alpeoria Bradley, who had made himself quite conspicuous in the convention by the advocacy of extreme measures, and a somewhat turbulent opposition to moderate counsels. The specific charges brought against him were, that his name had been stricken from the roll of attorneys in Massachusetts for contempt of court and malpractice, and that he had been convicted and sentenced to two years imprisonment in the State of New York for the crime of seduction.

The convention continued in session until

the 11th of March, when the completed constitution was ratified by a very large majority of the delegates.

The general declaration of principles with which the instrument is introduced contains the following sections of special interest :

SECTION 2. All persons born, or naturalized, in the United States, and resident in this State, are hereby declared citizens of this State, and no law shall be made or enforced which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, or of this State, or deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of its laws. And it shall be the duty of the General Assembly, by appropriate legislation, to protect every person in the due enjoyment of the rights, privileges, and immunities guaranteed in this section.

SEC. 4. There shall be within the State of Georgia neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, save as a punishment for crime after legal conviction thereof.

SEC. 33. The State of Georgia shall ever remain member of the American Union ; the people thereof are a part of the American nation ; every citizen thereof owes paramount allegiance to the Constitution and Government of the United States, and no law or ordinance of this State, in contravention or subversion thereof, shall ever have any binding force.

It is also declared that no lotteries shall be authorized in the State, and that there shall be no imprisonment for debt. The following military order has reference to this last mentioned declaration :

General Orders, No. 27.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, FLORIDA, AND ALABAMA, }
ATLANTA, GA., February 22, 1868. }

1. The Constitutional Convention of the State of Georgia, now in session in the city of Atlanta, adopted on the 19th day of February, 1868, the following preamble and resolutions :

Whereas, The convention has determined that there shall be no imprisonment for debt in the State ; and

Whereas, Creditors are oppressing debtors by the use of what is known as " bail process " and writ of *ca. sa.* ; therefore,

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this convention, said proceedings are contrary to the wishes of the people of this State.

Resolved, That the general commanding this district is hereby requested to protect, by order, the people of this State from the evil above set forth, and that such order remain in force, until such time as the people have expressed their will in regard to the constitution.

2. Therefore, by virtue of the plenary powers vested by the reconstruction acts of Congress in the commanding general of the Third Military District, and for the purpose of giving effect to the wishes of the people of Georgia, as expressed by their delegates in convention—

It is ordered : That imprisonment for debt is prohibited in the State of Georgia, and hereafter no bail process in civil cases or writ of *ca. sa.* shall be issued out of any of the courts of this State.

3. Every person now in prison in this State, under any such process or writ, will be immediately discharged from prison.

4. This order to remain in force until the people of Georgia shall express their will in the manner provided by the acts of Congress in regard to the constitution to be submitted to them by the said Constitutional Convention, or until further orders from these headquarters.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DIXON, Assistant Adjutant-General.

When the provisions of the constitution relating to the elective franchise were under discussion, an attempt was made to introduce an educational qualification, but it met with little countenance. Earnest opposition was made by Mr. Waddell to the indiscriminate enfranchisement of the blacks, on the ground that they were wholly unfit to exercise the privilege. He even went so far as to propose the following as one of the sections of the franchise article :

White men only shall be eligible to any office of honor, trust, profit, or emolument, whether municipal, judicial, or political, in this State ; and white men only shall serve as jurors in the courts.

The section finally adopted on the qualifications of voters was in these words :

SECTION 2. Every male person, born in the United States, and every male person who has been naturalized, or who has legally declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, twenty-one years old or upward, who shall have resided in this State six months next preceding the election, and shall have resided thirty days in the county in which he offers to vote, and shall have paid all taxes which may have been required of him, and which he may have had an opportunity of paying, agreeably to law, for the year next preceding the election (except as hereinafter provided), shall be deemed an elector ; and every male citizen of the United States, of the age aforesaid (except as hereinafter provided), who may be a resident of the State at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be deemed an elector, as aforesaid : *Provided*, That no soldier, sailor, or marine in the military or naval service of the United States, shall acquire the rights of an elector by reason of being stationed on duty in this State ; and no person shall vote who, if challenged, shall refuse to take the following oath : " I do swear that I have not given, or received, nor do I expect to give, or receive, any money, treat, or other thing of value, by which my vote, or any vote is affected, or expected to be affected, at this election, nor have I given or promised any reward, or made any threat, by which to prevent any person from voting at this election."

Criminals, idiots, and duellists are excepted from this provision ; and the sale of intoxicating liquors on election-days is prohibited. The General Assembly is empowered to provide for the registration of voters, and is required to " enact laws giving adequate protection to electors before, during, and subsequent to elections."

The general State election, after the year 1868, is to be on the Tuesday following the first Monday of November, and the General Assembly is to meet on the second Wednesday in January, unless otherwise provided by law. The Senators hold office four years, and the Representatives two years. The Governor is to be chosen for a term of four years, and the powers and duties of the various officers of Government are much the same as those delegated to persons in similar positions in the other States. The Secretary of State, Comptroller-General, Treasurer, and Surveyor-General are to be elected by the General Assembly.

The judicial powers of the State are vested in a Supreme Court, Superior Courts, Courts of Ordinary, justices of the peace, commis-

sioned notaries public, and such other courts as may be established by law. The Supreme Court consists of three judges, and has jurisdiction only for the trial and correction of errors on appeal from lower courts. The judges are to be appointed, those of the Supreme Court for twelve years and those of the Superior Courts for eight years.

The constitution requires the General Assembly at its first session to "provide a thorough system of general education, to be forever free to all children of the State, the expense of which shall be provided for by taxation or otherwise." The sources of revenue to be exclusively devoted to the support of common schools are, a poll-tax not to exceed one dollar annually on each poll, any educational fund belonging to the State, not appropriated to the university, a special tax on shows and exhibitions, and on the sale of spirituous and malt liquors, and the proceeds of commutation for militia service. All able-bodied male persons between the ages of 18 and 45 are to be enrolled as militia, unless exempt by law or conscientiously opposed to bearing arms; in the latter case they are required to pay an equivalent in money, to be devoted to the school-fund. If these provisions for the support of schools at any time prove insufficient, the General Assembly has power to levy a general tax on property to make up the deficiency.

The financial embarrassments which weighed upon the people, in consequence of the great losses of property during the recent war, claimed the attention of the convention, and the whole matter was referred, after some debate, to a special committee on the subject of relief. The report of this committee, after reciting the causes of the existing distress, viz., the destruction of \$400,000,000 of taxable property, the loss of four years' labor, depreciation in the value of real estate, repudiation of the indebtedness of the State to her citizens, the low price of cotton, and the entire derangement of labor, recommended measures of relief, which, after debate and amendment, took the following form:

We, the People of Georgia in Convention assembled, do solemnly ordain, That, from and after the passage of this ordinance, no court in this State shall have jurisdiction to hear or determine any suit, or render judgment in any case against any resident of this State, upon any contract or agreement made or entered into, or upon any contract or agreement made in renewal of a debt existing prior to the first day of June, 1865, nor shall any court or ministerial officer of this State have jurisdiction or authority to enforce any such judgment, execution, or decree, rendered or issued upon any contract or agreement or renewal thereof, as aforesaid.

The substance of this ordinance was also referred to the Committee on the Judiciary, with instructions to embody it in that portion of the constitution which was intrusted to them. This was accordingly done, and the courts of the State deprived of power to entertain suits against any resident of the

State founded on contracts existing on the 15th of June, 1865. Several exceptions are, however, made to the operation of this clause, and the General Assembly is empowered in all cases to give the courts jurisdiction:

Provided, that no court or officers shall have, nor shall the General Assembly give, jurisdiction or authority to try, or give judgment on, or enforce, any debt, the consideration of which was a slave or slaves, or the hire thereof.

The following also forms a part of the article on the judiciary:

All contracts made and not executed during the late rebellion, with the intention and for the purpose of aiding and encouraging said rebellion, or where it was the purpose and intention of any one of the parties to such contract to aid or encourage such rebellion, and that fact was known to the other party, whether said contract was made by any person or corporation with the State or Confederate States, or by a corporation with a natural person, or between two or more natural persons, are hereby declared to have been, and to be illegal; and all bonds, deeds, promissory notes, bills, or other evidences of debt, made or executed by the parties to such contract, or either of them, in connection with such illegal contract, or as the consideration thereof, or in furtherance thereof, are hereby declared null and void, and shall be so held in all courts in this State when attempts shall be made to enforce any such contract, or give validity to any such obligation or evidence of debt. And in all cases where the defendant, or any one interested in the event of the suit, will make a plea, supported by his or her affidavit, that he or she has no reason to believe that the obligation or evidence of indebtedness upon which the suit is predicated, or some part thereof, has been given or used for the illegal purpose aforesaid, the burden of proof shall be upon the plaintiff to satisfy the court and the jury that the bond, deed, note, bill, or other evidence of indebtedness upon which said suit is brought, is, or are not, nor is any part thereof, founded upon, or in any way connected with, any such illegal contract, and has not been used in aid of the rebellion; and the date of such bond, deed, note, bill, or other evidence of indebtedness, shall not be evidence that it has, or has not, since its date, been issued, transferred, or used in aid of the rebellion.

It is furthermore provided in the constitution that every head of a family, or guardian or trustee of a family of minor children, shall be entitled to a homestead of the value of \$2,000, exempt from execution except for taxes, money borrowed and expended in the improvement of the homestead, or for the purchase money of the same. All property of a wife, in her possession at the time of her marriage or afterward acquired by her, is to remain her separate property, and not be liable for the debts of her husband.

On the last day of the session of the Constitutional Convention, after the members had ratified the instrument as a whole which had been framed by their various committees and already adopted in parts, a resolution was passed, transmitting to General Meade the provisions intended to afford relief to the people, and requesting him to require the courts to enforce them "until the State is fully restored to its regular relations to the United States, and the State organization is in full operation." This was accordingly done by a general order (No

37) dated March 12th, which recited the resolution of the convention and the provisions of the constitution alluded to, and continued:

2. *Therefore*, by virtue of the plenary powers vested by the reconstruction acts of Congress in the commanding general of the Third Military District, and for the purpose of giving temporary effect to the wishes of the people of Georgia, as expressed by their delegates in convention:

It is ordered, That the foregoing sections of said constitution shall, from this date, be deemed to have taken effect and to be in full force in the State of Georgia, and shall continue in full force and validity, until further orders from these headquarters.

3. The courts and officers of the Provisional Government of said State, and all the municipal and other officers in the same, are hereby required to enforce and carry out the above provisions for the relief of the people of the State of Georgia.

One of the judges, having refused to comply with this order, was removed by the following edict from headquarters:

Special Order, No. 83.—Extract.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, FLORIDA, AND ALABAMA, }
ATLANTA, GA., April —, 1868.

1. John T. Clarke, Judge of the Superior Court, Pataula Circuit, State of Georgia, having published in the *Early County News* an order adjourning the Superior Court of Early County, from the second Monday in April until the second Monday in June next, assigning, as cause of such adjournment, the exercise, on the part of the major-general commanding, of illegal, unconstitutional, oppressive, and dangerous orders and measures, the said John T. Clarke, Judge as aforesaid, is hereby removed from office.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DREW, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Official: C. D. EMORY, A. D. C.

Almost the last act of the convention, before voting on the ratification of the constitution, was the adoption of the following resolutions, submitted by G. W. Ashburn, as a substitute for the report of a committee of seven which had been appointed to procure the names of persons desiring to be relieved from political disabilities:

Whereas, The strength of republican government is best promoted, and its principles maintained, by the broadest platform of enfranchisement; and

Whereas, A portion of Georgia's citizens are under political disabilities which debar them from exercising the highest privilege of American citizenship—that of the elective franchise: Be it, therefore,

Resolved, That this convention do request the Congress of the United States to enact or pass such laws as will remove the political disabilities from all the citizens of Georgia. And be it further

Resolved, That a copy of this preamble and resolution be furnished to the President of the Senate and Speaker of the House of Representatives.

The convention finally adjourned on the 11th of March, having been in actual session sixty-seven days.

On the 30th of March, Mr. George W. Ashburn, who had taken a very prominent part in the late convention, was assassinated in the city of Columbus. No efforts being made on the part of the civil authorities to bring the perpetrators of this crime to trial, General Meade speedily removed the mayor and aldermen of the city, together with the marshal and

his deputy, and appointed others in their places, putting Captain Mills, of the 16th Infantry, at the head of the administration as mayor. With the aid of the city government thus constituted he proceeded to arrest several citizens on suspicion, and to institute a trial by military commission. Finding it very difficult, however, to obtain any clear evidence against the persons arrested, they were released on bail, and a government detective was obtained and further arrests made. The commission was proceeding with the trial, but apparently attaining no satisfactory results, when the State acceded to the conditions of the act of Congress restoring her to her relations to the Union in July. General Meade, therefore, directed the military tribunal to proceed no further, and the prisoners were remanded to custody, to await the action of the civil authorities. They were afterward released on giving bail for their future appearance, in case they were called on to appear, and this seems to have been the end of the affair.

The Constitutional Convention had passed an ordinance before its adjournment, providing for an election, to take place on the 20th of April and following days, for the ratification of the constitution by the people and for the choice of Governor, members of the General Assembly, and Representatives to Congress. It is declared that the qualifications of voters for these offices shall be the same as those required by act of Congress of those voting on the ratification of the constitution; and General Meade was requested to give the necessary orders to carry these provisions into effect, and to cause due returns of the results of the election to be made. The ordinance further provides that the officers chosen at this election shall enter upon their duties "when authorized so to do by acts of Congress or by the order of the general commanding, and shall continue in office till the regular succession provided for after the year 1868." The following oath is prescribed for any person whose right to vote is challenged at the poll:

You do solemnly swear (or affirm) that you have been duly registered agreeably to the acts of Congress; that you have not prevented or endeavored to prevent any person from voting at this election; that, if the constitution upon which the vote is now being taken is ratified, you will truly and faithfully support it, so help you God.

General Meade's election order relating to the vote on the ratification of the constitution, was issued on the 14th of March; and on the day following a second order was published, applying the same regulations to the election of the officers provided to be chosen by the ordinance of the convention. After reciting the action of the convention, and the provisions of the acts of Congress relating to the holding of an election, he appoints the 20th of April and three succeeding days for the purpose, and lays down the regulations to be observed in the following terms:

5. It shall be the duty of the Boards of Registration in Georgia, in accordance with said acts, commencing fourteen days prior to the election herein ordered, and giving reasonable public notice of the time and place thereof, to revise, for a period of five days, the registration lists, and, upon being satisfied that any person not entitled thereto has been registered, to strike the name of such person from the list, and such person shall not be allowed to vote. And such Boards shall also, during the same period, add to such registry the names of all persons who, at that time, possess the qualifications required by said acts, who have not been already registered.

In deciding who are to be stricken from or added to the registration lists, the Boards will be guided by the acts of Congress relating to reconstruction, and their attention is especially called to the supplementary act which became a law July 19, 1867.

6. Said election shall be held in each county in the State under the superintendence of the Boards of Registration, as provided by law, and polls will be opened, after due and sufficient notice, at as many points in each county, not exceeding three, as, in the opinion of said Boards, may be required for the convenience of voters. And in any city, or other place, where there is a large number of voters, it is hereby made the duty of said Boards to open as many polls as may be necessary to enable the voters to cast their votes without unreasonable delay.

7. Any person, duly registered in the State as a voter, may vote in any county in the State where he offers to vote, when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding the election. When he offers to vote in the county where he was registered, and his name appears on the list of registered voters, he shall not be subject to question or challenge, except for the purpose of identification, or as to residence. And any person so registered, who may have removed from the county in which he was registered, shall be permitted to vote in any county in the State to which he has removed, when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding the election, upon presentation of his certificate of registration, or upon making affidavit before a member of the Board of Registration, or a judge or manager of the election, that he is registered as a voter, naming the county in which he is so registered; that he has resided in the county where he offers to vote for ten days next preceding the election, and that he has not voted at this election. Blanks for such affidavits will be supplied by the Boards of Registration, and the name of the voter making oath must be indorsed on his ballot, and all such affidavits must be forwarded with the returns of the election.

8. The polls shall be opened at each voting-place, during the days of the election, at 7 o'clock A. M., and close at 6 o'clock P. M., and shall be kept open, between those hours, without intermission or adjournment.

9. All public bar-rooms, saloons, and other places for the sale of liquor at retail, at the several county seats, and at other polling-places, shall be closed from 6 o'clock of the evening preceding the election until 6 o'clock of the morning after the last day of the election. Any person violating this order shall be subject to fine or imprisonment. Sheriffs and their deputies and municipal officers will be held responsible for the strict enforcement of this prohibition, by the arrest of all persons who may transgress the same.

10. The sheriff of each county is hereby required to be present at the county seat, and to appoint deputies to be present at each polling-place in his county, during the whole time that the polls are kept open, and until the election is completed, and is made responsible that no interference with the judges of election, or other interruption of good order, shall occur. And any sheriff, or deputy sheriff, or other civil officer, failing to perform with energy and good faith the duty required of him by this order, will,

upon report made by the judges of the election, be arrested and dealt with by military authority, and punished by fine or imprisonment.

11. The commanding officer of the District of Georgia will issue, through the superintendent of registration for this State, such detailed instructions as may be necessary to the conduct of said election in conformity with the act of Congress.

12. The returns required by law to be made of the results of said election, to the commanding general of this military district, will be rendered, by the persons appointed to superintend the same, through the commanding officer of the District of Georgia, and in accordance with the detailed instructions already referred to.

13. No person who is a candidate for office at said election shall act as a registrar, judge, inspector, manager, clerk, or in any official capacity connected with conducting the election.

14. Violence, or threats of violence, or any oppressive or fraudulent means employed to prevent every person from exercising the right of suffrage, is positively prohibited, and every person guilty of using the same shall, on conviction thereof before a military commission, be punished by fine or otherwise.

15. No contract or agreement with laborers made for the purpose of controlling their votes, or of restraining them from voting, will be permitted to be enforced against them in this district.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The following order was issued on the 16th of March :

*General Orders, No. 42. **

All civil officers in this military district are hereby required to obey all the orders issued from these headquarters relating to the performance of their official duties; and any officer refusing to obey any such order shall, on conviction thereof before a military commission, be punished by fine or imprisonment, or both.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The great body of the native white citizens of Georgia were opposed to the action of the convention, and determined, so far as their own political influence extended, to prevent the adoption of the constitution. They had met in convention at Macon, in December, 1867, and organized under the name of the Conservative party of Georgia, and had appointed a committee to draw up an address to the people of the State, setting forth the principles of the organization. This address, which was signed by the committee—Herschel V. Johnson, Ab-salom H. Chappell, Benjamin H. Hill, Warren Akin, and T. L. Guerrey—and published in the early part of January, took strong ground against the whole course of the national Government in its treatment of the Southern States since the close of the civil war. The reconstruction acts were characterized as cruel and unjust, and intended to lead to the supremacy in the South of the negro race under the guidance and control of adventurers from the Northern States. "In making this earnest protest against being placed, by force, under negro dominion," say the committee, "we dis-avow all feeling of resentment toward that unfortunate race. As we are destined to live together, we desire harmony and friendship between them and ourselves; as they are made

the dupes of unscrupulous partisans and designing adventurers, we pity them; as they are ignorant, dependent, and helpless, it is our purpose to protect them in the enjoyment of all the rights of person and property to which their freedom entitles them."

The address closes with an appeal to the Conservative men of Georgia, to "organize for self-protection and ceaseless opposition to the direful rule of *negro supremacy* which is sought to be enforced on us and our children, in defiance of the Constitution, and in contempt of the civilization of the age and the opinions of mankind;" and to their "fellow-citizens of the North" not to "stand aloof and calmly see us subjected to this damning wrong; and that, too, when it will imperil the Republic and spread baleful disaster over every interest."

The State Central Committee of the Conservative party met at Macon, on the 13th of February, and adopted the title of "The Central Executive Committee of the National Democratic Party of Georgia;" and recommended to all clubs and organizations throughout the State, which had been formed for the support of Conservative principles, to array themselves under the banners of the National Democratic party. Among the reasons given for this action were these, that that was "the only party at the North which maintains the Constitution of the United States as made and construed by the fathers and the Union of the States thereunder;" and that "close coöperation with that party is demanded by the instinct of self-preservation, the first law of nature, as the only rational mode of escape from the iron rule of military despotism, to be followed by the more humiliating condition of negro supremacy." The committee expresses its approval of the "fearless stand taken by Andrew Johnson for the rights of the whole people and the Constitution of our country," but gives no advice to the people with regard to their action on the constitution then being framed at Atlanta. A month later, however, on the 13th of March, the committee met again and adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the opinions and feelings of the National Democratic party of Georgia and of the United States, upon the unconstitutionality and injustice of the reconstruction acts of Congress, are too decided and well known to require reiteration here. Their opposition to the action of the several conventions called in pursuance of those acts, and to the effort to establish the supremacy of the negro race in the South, and to place the destinies of these States in the hands of adventurers and irresponsible persons, is equally decided and well known. Yet, warned by the fate of Alabama, and actuated by the instinct of self-preservation, we feel it to be our duty, to the extent of our power, to provide against every contingency, and therefore would urge upon our friends to participate in the elections which are to be held on the 26th April, proximo, to the end that the best and wisest men—permanently identified with Georgia, and who will administer her government in the interests of the people, and not for the purposes of plunder—be chosen to organize the government and frame the laws under which we and our posterity may have to live.

They recommended an active canvass for the coming election, and put Augustus Reese in nomination for the office of Governor; delegates were also appointed to the National Democratic Convention which was to meet at New York on the 4th of July. Judge Reese declined to be the candidate for Governor, and Judge Irwin's name was substituted; but that gentleman having taken an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and afterward voted as a member of the electoral college of Georgia for Jefferson Davis as President of the Southern Confederacy, General Meade informed the committee that he was ineligible under the reconstruction acts, and could not be installed in office if he received a majority of the votes cast. Judge Irwin accordingly withdrew his name, and John B. Gordon was recommended to the voters of the party, by the committee, for Governor of the State. Mr. Gordon had been a major-general in the army of the Confederate States, and had received no pardon; but, having never held any office before the war for which he was required to swear to support the Constitution of the United States, he was pronounced eligible by General Meade.

The following orders issued by General Meade have direct reference to the approaching election:

General Orders, No. 54.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA, AND FLORIDA, }
ATLANTA, GA., April 7, 1868.

The officer commanding sub-District of Georgia will proceed to distribute the troops under his command in such manner as will, in his judgment, best subserve the purpose of preserving order during the coming election.

The Quartermaster's Department will furnish the necessary transportation, and the troops sent to stations not now occupied will be furnished with camp equipage, in all cases where satisfactory information has not been obtained, before their departure, that suitable quarters can be procured.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

S. F. BARSTOW, Acting Assistant Adj't-General.

General Orders, No. 56.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA, AND FLORIDA, }
ATLANTA, GA., April 9, 1868.

That fairness and impartiality may be secured in the coming elections in Georgia and Florida, *It is ordered*:

1. That the ballot-boxes shall not be opened, or the votes counted, nor shall any information be given of the progress of the election, till the polls are finally closed.

2. The polls being finally closed, the board of managers shall select two men of character and standing from the opposite party, who shall be permitted to be present at the opening of the ballot-boxes and the counting of the ballots, so as to witness and verify such counting.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

S. F. BARSTOW, Acting Assistant Adj't-General.

General Orders, No. 57.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA, AND FLORIDA, }
ATLANTA, GA., April 10, 1868.

1. The numerous resignations of sheriffs of counties in the State of Georgia that have recently been

tendered at these headquarters, coming on the eve of an important election, and when there is not sufficient time to make new appointments, makes it proper and necessary for the commanding general to give notice, that such resignations will not be accepted, and that sheriffs who have been so long holding their offices at the sufferance of the commanding general will not be permitted to resign until after said election is over; and they are hereby required to continue in the faithful performance of their official duties until relieved from the same by orders from these headquarters. Any violation of this order will be punished in the manner prescribed in General Orders No. 42, for the punishment of civil officers for disobedience of orders.

2. Inasmuch as a numerous class of the electors of this State are, from necessity, at present dependent upon another class for employment by which they may earn daily bread for themselves and their families, and as numerous complaints have been made at these headquarters, that such laborers will be intimidated from voting at the approaching election by fear of the loss of employment, employers are hereby forbidden any attempts to control the action or will of their laborers as to voting, by threats of discharge from employment or by other oppressive means; and any person who shall, by such means, prevent a laborer from voting as he pleases, or shall discharge him from employment on account of his having exercised his privileges as a voter, will, on conviction of such offence before a military commission, be punished by fine or imprisonment, or both.

3. It is made the duty, as it is certainly the desire, of the commanding general, to secure to all the duly registered voters in the State of Georgia an opportunity to vote at the approaching election "freely and without restraint, fear, or the influence of fraud," and he calls upon all good citizens to co-operate with him in his efforts to have the election conducted fairly as required by law.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

General Orders, No. 58.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA, AND FLORIDA,
ATLANTA, Ga., April 11, 1868.

1. The uncertainty which seems to exist in regard to holding municipal elections on the 20th instant, and the frequent inquiries addressed to these headquarters, render it necessary for the commanding general to announce that said elections are not authorized by any orders from these headquarters. Managers of elections are hereby prohibited from receiving any votes, for any offices except such offices as are provided for in the constitution to be submitted for ratification—the voting for which officers is authorized by General Orders Nos. 40 and 52.

2. Complaints having been made to these headquarters, by planters and others, that improper means are being used to compel laborers to leave their work to attend political meetings, and threats being made that, in case of refusal, penalties will be attached to said refusal, the major-general commanding announces that all such attempts to control the movements of laborers and interfere with the rights of employers are strictly forbidden, and will be considered, and on conviction will be punished, the same as any attempts to dissuade and prevent voters from going to the polls, as referred to in paragraph 2, General Orders No. 57.

3. The major-general commanding also makes known that, while he acknowledges and will require to be respected the rights of laborers to peaceably assemble at night to discuss political questions, yet he disapproves and forbids the assembling of armed bodies; and requires that all such assemblages shall notify either the military or civil authorities of these proposed meetings, and said military and civil authorities are enjoined to see that the right

of electors to peaceably assemble for legitimate purposes is not disturbed.

4. The wearing or carrying of arms, either concealed or otherwise, by persons not connected with the military service of the Government, or such civil officers whose duty under the laws and orders it is to preserve the public peace, at, or in the vicinity of the polling-places, on the days set apart for holding the election in the State of Georgia, is positively forbidden. Civil and military officers will see that this order, as well as all others relating to the preservation of the peace and quiet of the counties in which they are acting, is strictly observed.

5. The commanding officers of sub-Districts of Georgia and Florida will take prompt measures to give publicity to this order through the Superintendents of Registration and the officers of the Freedmen's Bureau, and will enjoin on the latter to instruct and advise the Freedmen in their rights and duties.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

General Orders, No. 59.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA, AND FLORIDA,
ATLANTA, Ga., April 13, 1868.

Whereas, It has been reported to the commanding general, from several parts of the State of Georgia, that very many names have been stricken from the list of registered voters, without any cause being assigned for said striking off, or an opportunity given to voters, heretofore registered, to meet the objections received in their cases; and whereas, it is the determination of the commanding general that all candidates in the approaching election shall have every opportunity to show "from official data, whether said registration and election have been honestly and fairly conducted, and in accordance with law; it is hereby ordered,

That all managers of elections shall receive the votes, of all such persons as shall have been stricken from the registered list during the last five days, for revision; not counting said votes, but keeping them separate, with the names of the persons presenting them written on the back, and said votes shall be sent in a separate envelope with the returns made of the election, to be compared with the reasons required by law to be sent to these headquarters, whenever any Board of Registration shall deem it proper to strike names from the registration lists.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The election passed off quietly, and the result, so far as it concerned the ratification of the new constitution, was announced in the following General Order:

General Orders, No. 76.

HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA, AND FLORIDA,
ATLANTA, Ga., May 11, 1868.

Official returns of the recent election having been received from all the counties in the State of Georgia, in which the election on the ratification of the constitution was held; and it appearing from said returns that a majority of seventeen thousand six hundred and ninety-nine (17,699) votes had been cast "For the constitution," the same is hereby declared ratified in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress which became a law March 12, 1868.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Rufus B. Bullock, the Republican candidate for Governor, was elected by a majority of 7,047, the whole number of votes cast being 159,245, and Gordon having 76,099 to 83,146 for Bullock. This result, together with the names of all persons elected to the two branches

of the Assembly, was announced by a General Order dated June 25th.

By a military order, dated June 28th, the Governor-elect was appointed Provisional Governor of the State in place of General Ruger, to enter upon the duties of his office on the 4th of July, on which day the persons chosen for members of the Assembly had been already directed to convene at Atlanta by proclamation of the Governor-elect, under authority of the act of Congress "to admit the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, to representation in Congress," which went into effect on the 25th of June. On the 3d of July, General Meade issued an order, directing the Provisional Governor to "proceed at 12 m., on the 4th instant, to effect such preliminary organization of both Houses of the Legislature as will enable the same to enter upon the discharge of the duties assigned them by law." Accordingly, on the next day, the members-elect of the Legislature assembled in the capitol furnished for the purpose by the city of Atlanta, in presence of General Meade, Governor Bullock, and Judge Erskine. The act of Congress admitting the State into the Union conditionally was read, as were the orders of the commanding general, announcing the result of the late election, and directing the Governor to organize the two Houses of Assembly. These preliminaries being over, the oath was administered to the Senators by Judge Erskine, and the officers of the Senate were chosen by ballot. The organization of the House of Representatives occupied two or three days, in consequence of the nearly equal division of the members between the two political parties. The whole number of Senators was 44, of whom 22 were Republicans and 22 Democrats. In the House of Representatives were 73 Republican and 102 Democratic members, 175 in all—3 Senators and 25 Representatives were negroes.

The question of the eligibility of several members who had been sent to the Assembly was considerably agitated both in and out of that body, and several seats were formally contested. On the 8th of July, in reply to the official announcement that the organization of the two Houses had been completed, General Meade wrote to the Governor, stating that, in his judgment, neither House could be legally organized "until they have complied with the requisitions of the reconstruction acts, and the act which became a law June 25, 1868, all of which prohibit any one from holding an office under the State, who is excluded by Section 3 of the amendment of the Constitution, known as Article 14," and declaring that he could not "recognize any act of the Legislature as valid, nor allow the same to be executed, until satisfactory evidence is produced, that all persons excluded by the 14th Article are deprived of their seats and offices in both Houses." The provision of the 14th Article referred to renders ineligible to office

all persons who had taken an official oath to support the Constitution, and afterward gave aid and comfort to the enemies of the United States. The Governor transmitted General Meade's letter to the two Houses of the Legislature, and recommended the appointment of committees to investigate the eligibility of each member. This course was accordingly taken, and each member was examined on oath with regard to the application in his case of the prohibition of the 14th Article. A majority of the committee in the House reported in favor of the exclusion of three members, but a minority report was submitted, in which it was argued that no act of any member had amounted to giving aid and comfort to the enemy according to the best interpretation of the law. The case of each of these members was debated in the House, and they were finally pronounced to have been legally eligible. In the Senate, likewise, the investigation resulted in favor of the eligibility of every member, though a minority of the committee reported in favor of excluding about one-fourth of the Senators from their seats. When the result of these investigations was communicated to General Meade, he declared that he had "no further opposition to make to their proceeding to the business for which they were called together," and that he considered them "legally organized for the 18th instant, the date of the action of the House."

One effect of the act of Congress of June 25th was, to abrogate the provision in the constitution of the State of Georgia which denied the jurisdiction of the courts in actions for debts contracted prior to the 1st of June, 1865, and the assent of the State to this abrogation by solemn public act, as well as the ratification of the 14th Article, was required as a condition precedent to her restoration to her full relations in the union of States. These conditions were both complied with by a joint resolution passed on the 21st of July, by a vote of 24 to 14 in the Senate, and 89 to 70 in the House of Representatives. On the following day Rufus B. Bullock was inaugurated Governor of the reconstructed State of Georgia for the term of four years, and on the 24th sent his first regular message to the Assembly.

On the 28th of July an order issued from the headquarters of the Army at Washington, in which it was declared that the Second and Third Military Districts had ceased to exist, and the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, would constitute the Department of the South, Major-General George G. Meade to command, with his headquarters at Atlanta. Thereupon the following order was published:

General Orders, No. 108.
HEADQUARTERS THIRD MILITARY DISTRICT,)
DEPARTMENT OF GEORGIA, ALABAMA AND FLORIDA,)
ATLANTA, GA., July 30, 1868. }

The several States comprising this military district having, by solemn acts of their Assemblies, conformed to the requisitions of the act of Congress which became

a law June 25, 1863, and civil government having been inaugurated in each, the military power vested in the district commander by the reconstruction laws, by the provision of these laws, ceases to exist; and hereafter, all orders issued from these headquarters, and bearing upon the rights of persons and property, will have, in the several States of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, only such force as may be given to them by the courts and legislators of the respective States.

To conform to the changed condition of affairs, the commanders of the several sub-districts, hereafter to be designated as districts, will, without delay, withdraw all detachments of troops, whether infantry or cavalry, and concentrate their command as herein-after directed.

In the District of Georgia, the following posts will be occupied:

Dahlonega—One company of infantry.

Savannah—Two companies of infantry.

Atlanta—Seven companies of infantry.

The above posts will be occupied by the 16th Regiment of Infantry, whose colonel will designate the companies, and also will assign the lieutenant-colonel to the post of Atlanta, and the major to Savannah.

During the period in which General Meade exercised the authority of civil government in the Third Military District, the whole number of persons tried by military commission in the three States of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, was thirty-two. Of these fifteen were convicted, but the sentences of four were disproved, and those of eight others remitted, while two were referred to the President of the United States—thus leaving but one in confinement for a civil offence, on conviction by the military tribunal.

The negro members of the Georgia Assembly were all legislated from their seats in the course of the session. In the first place Aaron A. Bradley, who had been elected to the Senate from the First District, and who it will be remembered was expelled from the Constitutional Convention, on the ground that he had been convicted of crime in another State, was induced to resign his place, to escape a similar fate in the Legislative Assembly. The theory in the Senate, however, was, that, as he was a convicted criminal, he had never been eligible to office, and therefore could not resign. A resolution was accordingly adopted, declaring that he was ineligible, and that R. C. Lester, who had received the next largest number of votes at the election, was, according to the laws of the State, duly elected in the First District. On the resignation of Bradley, the Governor had ordered a new election, and the right of Mr. Lester to occupy the vacant seat was likely to be contested; but, before the election occurred, the action of the Legislature took place which excluded all the colored members on account of ineligibility under the constitution and laws of the State. In order to see clearly the ground upon which this action was based, it will be necessary to take a glance at the course of the convention in relation to this very subject. While the constitution was under discussion, the following section was proposed, and, after some debate, rejected by a vote of 126 to 12:

SECTION 10. All qualified electors, and none others,

shall be eligible to any office in this State unless disqualified by the constitution of this State or by the Constitution of the United States.

Having rejected this, the convention made no provision which could be construed as expressly giving the negro a right to be elected to office, but, on the contrary, declared that "the code of Georgia, and all laws passed since the 19th day of January, 1861, are of full force," except as to slaves; and by these laws the right of persons of color to hold office is in terms denied. The matter was first brought up in the Senate on the 25th of July, by Mr. Candler, who offered the following resolution:

Whereas, ex-Governor Joseph E. Brown, one of the ablest lawyers in the Republican party of Georgia, as well as other persons, distinguished for their knowledge of constitutional law, held, during the late election canvass, that persons of color were not entitled to hold office under the existing constitution; and *whereas*, such persons hold seats as Senators on this floor; and *whereas*, there are laws of vital importance to the people of Georgia to be enacted by the General Assembly, the validity of which should not be made uncertain, because of a participation in their enactment by persons not entitled, under the constitution, so to participate: therefore, be it

Resolved, That the Committee on Privileges and Elections be directed to inquire into the eligibility of the several persons of color holding seats as Senators, and report at the earliest day practicable.

The subject was afterward introduced in the House of Representatives, and, after several weeks of animated discussion, the whole movement resulted in the expulsion from both Houses of all the negro members.

The resolution of the House of Representatives effecting the final expulsion was adopted on the 3d of September, and was in these words:

Whereas, Abram Smith, of the county of Muscogee, has been declared ineligible to a seat on this floor; and *whereas*, Thomas W. Grimes, Jr., of said county, received the next highest number of votes cast in said county at the late election for Representatives in the General Assembly of this State, be it

Resolved, That the said Thomas W. Grimes, Jr., be declared a member of this body, and that the proper officer proceed immediately to swear him in.—[Here follows a full list of the negro members.]

The above resolution was amended by Mr. Tumlin, of Randolph, as follows:

Free persons of color, heretofore occupying seats on the floor of this House, are, under the constitution of the State of Georgia, ineligible to seats on the floor of this House; and *whereas*, they have been so declared by said House, be it therefore

Resolved, That the persons in each of the counties aforesaid, having the next highest number of votes, who are free from constitutional ineligibility, are declared eligible and entitled to seats on the floor of this House.

When the Governor was informed, by a special committee, of the action of the House, he sent in a communication acknowledging the receipt of the resolution, but in a decided tone disapproving of the course which had been adopted. He argued at considerable length in favor of the right of colored persons to hold office under the Constitution and laws of the United States, and the State of Georgia. In

conclusion he says: "I most respectfully and earnestly call upon you, as lovers of our common country and well wishers of the peace and good order of the State, to pause in the suicidal course upon which you have entered, urged on as you are by bold, bad men outside your body, whose wicked counsels have once drenched our land in blood, and whose ambition now is to ruin that which they cannot rule."

This message served only to elicit the following:

Resolved, That that portion of the communication of his Excellency reflecting upon the action of this House, in deciding upon the eligibility of free persons of color under the constitution, be returned to his Excellency, with the following resolution:

Resolved, That said communication is not warranted by the resolution upon which his Excellency was requested to act, and that the constitution declares that the members of each House are the judges of the qualifications of its own members, and not the Governor; they are the keepers of their own consciences, and not his Excellency.

The excluded members entered a spirited protest against the outrage perpetrated upon their race by the action of the House, which was addressed to the Speaker and members of the House of Representatives, and accompanied by a request that it be entered upon the journal. This request was not granted. In their protest, they give "notice that they will appeal, at the proper time, to the Congress of the United States and the justice of the American people, to redress their grievances, to which they are subjected by the intolerant and oppressive conduct of the dominant party in this House, who, while part of their members were in danger of losing their seats on account of ineligibility under the Fourteenth Constitutional Amendment, were met by the colored members of this House in a spirit of conciliation and kindness during that investigation."

The action in the Senate with reference to the two remaining colored members of that Chamber, Messrs. T. G. Campbell and George Wallace, was precisely similar to that in the House, but took place about ten days later. The Governor sent a message expressing his disapproval of this course pursued by the Senators; but a resolution which was offered, to the effect that only that portion of this communication giving the names of the persons entitled to the vacant seats be entered on the journal, failed to pass, as being disrespectful to the Governor.

Senators to Congress were elected on the 29th of July. Joshua Hill received a majority of votes for the long term, and H. V. M. Miller for the short term.

The Legislature continued in session until the 6th of October, and passed one hundred and fifty-five acts, a large portion of which were for the incorporation of railroad, manufacturing, and other companies, and for the revival and encouragement of the material interests of the Commonwealth. Provision was also made for

the organization of the courts and the regular exercise of the civil authority of the State. Among the other measures of general interest was an act for the relief of debtors, and an act to provide for setting apart homesteads, and securing them to the sole use and benefit of families. The former was intended to supply, in some degree, the place of the constitutional provision on the same subject which was rendered null by the act of Congress of the 25th of June. It provides that, in all suits brought to recover debts due on contracts made prior to June 1, 1865, it shall be lawful "to give in evidence, before the jury empanelled to try the same, the consideration of the debt or contract which may be the subject of the suit, the amount and value of the property owned by the debtor at the time the debt was contracted, or the contract entered into, to show upon the faith of what property credit was given to him, and what tender or tenders of payment he made to the creditors at any time, and that the non-payment of the debt or debts was owing to the refusal of the creditor to receive the money tendered, or offered to be tendered; the destruction or loss of the property upon the faith of which the credit was given, and the amount of loss by the creditor, and how and in what manner the property was destroyed or lost, and by whose default. And, in all such cases, the juries who try the same shall have power to reduce the amount of the debt or debts sued for, according to the equities of each case, and render such verdicts as to them shall appear just and equitable."

In suits against trustees, executors, etc., it is made lawful for the defendant to put in evidence the loss, destruction, or depreciation in value of the property in his hands.

Before the Legislature adjourned, the Committee of the House on the State of the Republic made a report, which was almost unanimously adopted. This report gives a brief review of the experience of the State under the process of reconstruction, implying, rather than expressing, the belief that the people had been treated with unnecessary severity, since they were disposed to return to their allegiance in good faith, and to do every thing in their power to secure the rights of all. The closing paragraphs of this document are expressed in the following terms:

As the representatives of the State, well acquainted with the views, opinions, and purposes of those whom we represent, we assert that the idea that any portion of our people entertain the purpose or desire of remanding the negro to a condition of slavery is too preposterous and false to need refutation.

We assert that it is the purpose of the white people of the State to faithfully protect the negro race in the enjoyment of all the rights, privileges, and immunities guaranteed to them by the Constitution and laws of the United States and the constitution and laws of this State.

We assert that there is no purpose, in any part of the State, to impair the constitutional right of the people peaceably to assemble for the consideration of any matter, or to obstruct any portion of the peo-

ple in the enjoyment of any other constitutional right or privilege.

In conclusion, we would state that we see no reason to apprehend that the State government, under the present constitution, in its legitimate operation, as directed and administered by the several departments, as now constituted, will be more restrictive of the rights of any class of our citizens than is absolutely necessary to harmonize it with and conform it to the requirements of the Constitution and laws of the United States; and we trust the State government will adhere to and make effective the first section in the declaration of fundamental principles embraced in our constitution: "Protection of person and property is the paramount duty of government, and shall be impartial and complete."

After the National Convention of the Democratic party in New York, on the 4th of July, its action was freely and publicly indorsed by the Democrats in Georgia; while the Radicals, including the great mass of the colored citizens, expressed their hearty approval of the nominations and principles put forth by the Republican party at Chicago. The Democrats held a convention in August, unanimously ratifying the New York nominations, and pledging their hearty support to the candidates. They also approved of the platform of principles, "not only for its soundness, but because it recognizes the equality of all the States of the Union." An electoral ticket was then nominated, and a Central Executive Committee appointed, with authority to call a convention, or to "take such other steps as may be necessary to carry out the principles and policy of the party."

It was reported, from time to time, that organizations of colored men were formed for the purpose of military drill, and that assemblages, gathered for political purposes, were wont to come together in arms. Constant apprehensions of violence and of collision between citizens of opposite political sentiments appear to have prevailed in some localities. The Governor and the Legislature received frequent communications from citizens in various quarters, informing them that certain misguided persons were continually endeavoring to stir up strife among the people, and that riot and bloodshed were likely to be the result at any moment, unless measures were taken to check this course of things. Finally the Assembly adopted the following resolution:

Whereas, It being the practice of a portion of the citizens of this State to assemble in large numbers, with arms, for the purpose of exercising in military tactics, and for other unlawful purposes, without authority of law, and to the terror of the good citizens thereof,

Resolved, therefore, by the Senate and House of Representatives, That his Excellency the Governor be, and he is hereby, respectfully requested to issue his proclamation prohibiting such armed and unlawful assemblages. But the right of the people to peaceably assemble for the consideration of matters shall not be impaired by any proclamation of the Governor.

The Governor accordingly issued a proclamation, on the 14th of September, "commanding all citizens to abstain from any acts of violence

against person or property, or from persuasions which will tend to excite to violence or unlawful combinations, and from all interference with the constitutional right of persons to assemble for political or other peaceful purposes; and to yield prompt and respectful obedience to the officers of the law under all circumstances; and also charging upon the said officers the exercise of great vigilance, that the majesty of the civil law may be vindicated, and great caution, that all their acts may be fully justified, and done in pursuance of our constitution and laws. And to make known that no authority has been granted by the Executive for the formation of armed or unarmed organizations of any kind or character; and that the drilling or exercising in military tactics, with arms, of any organized body of men within the State, except the army of the United States, is unauthorized, unlawful, and against the peace and good order of the State, and must be immediately suspended."

Notwithstanding this proclamation, a hostile collision took place between a body of negroes and whites and the citizens of the village of Camilla, in Mitchell County. The facts relating to this unfortunate affair are briefly these:

It appears that, a few days prior to the 19th of September, notices were circulated in Dougherty and Mitchell Counties that a great Republican mass meeting would be held at Camilla on that day, at which W. P. Pierce, the candidate for Congress from that district, John Murphy, a candidate for elector, and other prominent Republicans, would address the people. Whether the notice which was given to the negroes respecting the intended meeting contained any suggestion that they should repair to Camilla with arms is a disputed question; but, at all events, on the appointed day a procession of some three hundred, mostly negroes, with flags and music at their head, and one-half or two-thirds of them carrying guns or pistols, marched from Albany toward Camilla, under the lead of Pierce and Murphy. The inhabitants of the village, who, with women and children, scarcely outnumbered the approaching force, had been apprised several days before of the proposed meeting, and the sheriff of the county, learning that the negroes were coming together with arms, met them two or three miles from the town, and endeavored to persuade them to lay aside their weapons. Not succeeding in this attempt, he returned to the village, and called upon the people, as a *posse*, to aid him in keeping the peace. When the procession entered the village, it was confronted by a drunken man, with a gun, who ordered the band to stop playing. This peremptory command not being obeyed, the man fired his gun, or, as was claimed by the citizens, the piece was accidentally discharged, and, at this signal, the negroes fired upon the inhabitants, and a conflict ensued, in

which eight or nine of the blacks were killed and twenty or thirty wounded, and several of the inhabitants of the place more or less hurt. The negroes fled in consternation, and, of course, no meeting took place.

The Governor at once communicated to the Legislature, which was then in session, an account of the affair, based on the first exaggerated reports, and recommended that a call be made on the Federal Government for a military force to be stationed in Mitchell County to preserve order. The Governor's language is as follows :

In disregard of the proclamation issued on the 14th instant, the right of the people peacefully to assemble has been violently and barbarously impaired, and the civil officers are wholly unable to protect the rights of citizens or maintain the peace. It is earnestly recommended that the Legislature make immediate application to the President for sufficient military force to be stationed in Mitchell County to maintain the peace, protect the lives and property of citizens, and see that the guilty are punished after due process of law. The fact that this occurrence is the result of a determination, publicly expressed, by irresponsible persons of one political party that the other political party shall not hold meetings, is too well known. It is gratifying that this sentiment is confined to a lawless class, and not countenanced or supported by respectable citizens ; but the misfortune is that these outrages are not prevented, and, unless physical force is added to the honest efforts of the officers of the law, we shall be thrown into a state of anarchy, when neither life nor property will be regarded.

The subject was referred to a joint committee, who took the testimony of the sheriff, and of several reputable citizens of Camilla, and finally submitted the following report :

The undersigned, appointed, by a joint resolution of the Senate and House of Representatives, to take into consideration the message of the Governor in reference to the disturbance at Camilla, beg leave to make the following report :

They find that the evidence referred to by his Excellency is not sustained by the evidence produced before the committee, and which is herewith returned. They have come to the conclusion that the whole difficulty occurred and originated from a determination of the parties referred to in his Excellency's message, to wit, Pierce, Murphy, and Putney, to enter the town of Camilla at the head of an armed company of freedmen, which right was disputed by the sheriff of the county. The persistence of the one and the determination of the other caused the disturbance.

They find that the civil authorities have shown themselves able to execute the law, and there is no necessity for any military interference.

A. D. NUNNALLY, of the Senate.
C. C. DUNCAN, of the House.
W. H. HALL, of the House.
W. D. HAMILTON, of the House.
H. MORGAN, of the House.

I agree with the committee, but believe that other legislation is necessary to preserve order and protect persons and property.

W. C. SMITH, of the Senate.

General Marion Bethune, of the House, submitted a minority report, in which he earnestly recommends that the Legislature give the subject its careful attention, with a view to adopting efficient measures for keeping the peace

and preserving order. General Meade, in a report of this affair to the War Department, commended the action of the Assembly in refusing to call for military interference.

With regard to the use of troops in his department, General Meade had applied for instructions earlier in the season, and had been referred to a letter sent from headquarters at Washington to General Buchanan, at New Orleans, which declared that the military forces were to be entirely subordinate to the civil authority, and to be employed only in case of imperative necessity in keeping the peace.

The following proclamation by the Governor, which was published soon after the Camilla excitement had subsided, has appended to it the important portions of General Meade's order with reference to the disposition of the troops under his command, with a view to the approaching presidential election :

Whereas, Notwithstanding the Executive proclamation of September 14, 1863, many lawless acts have occurred in violation thereof, whereby the lives and property of citizens have been destroyed, the right of free speech impaired, the performance of the duties of the offices to which citizens have been elected denied, and the lives of citizens so threatened as to cause them to abandon their homes and property ;

And whereas, "The protection of persons and property is the paramount duty of government, and shall be impartial and complete ;"

And whereas, The sheriff of each county is, by law, charged with the preservation of life, property, and peace in each county :

Now, therefore, I, Rufus B. Bullock, Governor, and commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the State of Georgia, and of the militia thereof, do hereby issue this, my proclamation, charging and commanding the said sheriffs, and each and every other civil officer in every county in this State, to see to it that the lives and property of all citizens, and the peace of the community, are preserved, and that all persons are protected in the free exercise of their civil and political rights and privileges. And, further, to make known that, for failure in the performance of duty, the said sheriffs and other civil officers will be held to a strict accountability, under the law ; and to charge upon every person, resident in this State, that they render prompt and willing obedience to the said sheriffs, and other civil officers, *under all circumstances whatsoever* ; and that they demand from said officers protection when threatened or disturbed in their person or property, or with denial of political or civil rights ; and that, failing to receive such protection, they report facts to this department.

The following extract from General Orders No. 27, dated October 8, 1863, from headquarters, Department of the South, is published for the information of the civil officers and the general public, by which it will be seen that said civil officers will, in the performance of their duties, be sustained by the military power of the United States.

Given under my hand, and the great seal of the State, at the capitol, in the city of Atlanta, this 9th day of October, in the year of our Lord eighteen hundred and sixty-eight, and of the Independence of the United States the ninety-third.

RUFUS B. BULLOCK, Governor.

DAVID G. COTTING, Secretary of State.

General Orders, No. 27.

HEADQUARTERS, DEPARTMENT OF THE SOUTH, }
ATLANTA, GA., October 8, 1863. }

Whereas, By an act of the Congress of the United States, approved March 2, 1865, it is made the duty

of the military authority to preserve the peace at the polls at any election that may be held in any of the States;

And *whereas*, This duty has become the more imperative from the existing political excitement in the public mind, from the recent organization of civil government, and from the fact that Congress has by statute prohibited the organization of military forces in the several States of this department: it is therefore

Ordered, That the several district commanders will, as soon as practicable, on the receipt of this order, distribute the troops under their commands as follows: * * * * *

In the District of Georgia:

- One company 16th Infantry, to Albany.
- One company 16th Infantry, to Columbus.
- One company 16th Infantry, to Macon.
- One company 16th Infantry, to Augusta.
- One company 16th Infantry, to Washington, Wilkes County.
- One company 16th Infantry, to Americus.
- One company 16th Infantry, to Thomasville.
- One company (C) 5th Cavalry, to Athens.

The company at Savannah to be reinforced, should occasion require, by such number of the men at Fort Pulaski as can be spared from the post. * * *

Detachments, when necessary, may be made to points in the vicinity of each post; but in no case, nor on any pretext whatever, will detachments be sent without a commissioned officer, who will be fully instructed by his post commander.

The troops will be considered as in the field, and supplied with the necessary camp equipage; the men to be furnished with common tents, if practicable, and, if not practicable, with shelter tents. Commanding officers are permitted to hire quarters, temporarily, when it can be done for reasonable rates; but this will not preclude the necessity of carrying tents, as the commands, in all cases, must be in readiness to move at the shortest notice, with all supplies required for their efficiency.

District commanders will instruct post commanders in their duties, and the relative position of the civil and military powers. They will impress on post commanders that they are to act in aid of and cooperation with, and in subordination to the civil authorities; that they are to exercise discretion and judgment, unbiassed by political or other prejudices; that their object should be exclusively to preserve the peace and uphold law and order, and they must be satisfied such is the object of the civil officer calling on them for aid; that they must in all cases, where time will permit, apply for instruction to superior authority, but they must at all hazards preserve the peace, and not be restrained by technical points when, in their conscientious judgment under the rules above set forth, it is their duty to act. Post commanders, on being notified of the proposed holding of political meetings, may send an officer, and, if necessary, a detachment, to watch the proceedings and see that the peace is preserved.

To the people of the several States composing the department, the major-general commanding appeals that they will cooperate with him and the civil authorities in sustaining law and order, in preserving the peace and avoiding those scenes of riot and bloodshed, and the wanton destruction of property and life, which have already, in some instances, been enacted in the department. He urges abstinence from all inflammatory and incendiary appeals to the passions; discountenancing the keeping open of liquor-shops on days of political meetings and of election; the abstaining from carrying arms, and asserting the individual right of construing laws by force of arms. No just cause is ever advanced by resort to violence. Let there be charity and forbearance among political opponents, whatever may be the result; let each good citizen determine that all who, under the law, have the right to the ballot shall

exercise it undisturbed. If there are disputed points of law, let them be referred to the courts, and let not mobs, or political clubs, or other irresponsible bodies, construe and undertake to execute the law. This appeal is made in the earnest hope that the major-general commanding can rely on the good sense and correct judgment of the mass of the people, and that he will not be compelled to resort to the exercise of the power with which he is intrusted, and which he will most reluctantly employ. But he thinks it his duty to make known that, so far as the power under his command will admit, he will not permit the peace to be broken, and that he will not be restrained in the conscientious discharge of his duty by technicalities of laws made when the present anomalous condition of affairs was neither anticipated nor provided for.

By order of Major-General MEADE.

R. C. DRUM, Assistant Adjutant-General.

The Democratic Executive Committee issued an address, dated on the 26th of September, in which they disclaimed emphatically all intention of encouraging any but peaceable and lawful means of attaining the objects of the party, one of which was declared to be to test before the proper legal tribunal the constitutionality of the reconstruction acts. With regard to collision and conflict with the blacks, they employ the following emphatic language:

We counsel and exhort our people to forbear all acts of violence upon the colored race—even to endure provocations, which they would not tolerate under other circumstances. They are ignorant, and are led on by designing white men, to make threats, and commit acts of indiscretion, for the purpose of producing collisions between them and the white people—and to resist them by violence will be to enable their white leaders to accomplish their object. For this, and other reasons, we counsel the utmost forbearance which can be exercised.

We advise our people to accord to the freedmen all the rights and privileges which the present laws secure to them. Withhold from them no right to which they are entitled. Let them not be obstructed in the exercise of any privilege which the laws give them. Under our present laws, they are entitled to the right of suffrage. Let them enjoy it freely, voluntarily, and without molestation. On the day of the approaching election, to avoid conflicts, the polls should not be, and will not be, occupied by one race to the exclusion of the other; but arrangements will be made whereby all who are legally entitled to vote shall exercise that privilege, and we believe that our people have the magnanimity to see to it that no freedman who is entitled to the right of suffrage shall be debarred from his free exercise of that right. This is our counsel and advice, and we trust and believe that it will be heeded.

The close of the address is in these words:

Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political—peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none; the support of the State governments in all their rights, as the most competent administration for our domestic concerns, and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies; the preservation of the General Government in its whole constitutional vigor, as the sheet-anchor of our peace at home and safety abroad; a zealous care of the rights of election by the people; a mild and safe corrective of abuses, which are lopped by the sword of revolution, where peaceable remedies are unprovided; absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which there is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of despotism; a well-disciplined militia,

our best reliance in peace and for the first moments of war, till regulars may relieve them; the supremacy of the civil over the military authority; economy in the public expenses, that labor may be lightly burdened; the honest payment of our debts, and sacred preservation of the public faith; encouragement of agriculture, and of commerce, as its handmaid; the diffusion of information, and arraignment of all abuses at the bar of public reason; freedom of religion; freedom of the press; freedom of person under the protection of the *habeas corpus*; and trial by juries impartially selected.

Let the Federal Government be administered upon these principles, and, speaking for the people of Georgia, "we pledge our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor," to maintain the Union in its full vigor.

The negroes held a convention at Macon on the 6th of October, and published an address, in which they declared that the Democrats had been their enemies from the first. They reflect with considerable bitterness upon the course which was pursued to deprive them of the right of holding office in the State, and propose to memorialize Congress in their own behalf. The following are the closing paragraphs of the address:

Our rights, brethren and fellow-countrymen, have, in spite of our appeals to reason, justice, and patriotism, been set at naught, and even our calm and temperate protest against this nameless outrage was treated with unparalleled contempt. Thus the rights, even under that constitution which, without our help, could not have been framed, have been turned from us. The prejudice of caste, so dominant in the breasts of those who have usurped the power in the absence of those bayonets which had protected us before, will utterly crush and inhumanly oppress us unless we can obtain redress.

But how shall we obtain it? Far be it from us to recommend violence; rather let us suffer the outrage longer, and hope for deliverance through milder means. We still have that potent weapon the ballot, and, if allowed to wield it without molestation, which seems very doubtful, we can remedy all evils. We do not recommend you to be satisfied with being a mere pack-horse to ride white men into office, whether they are the exponents of our sentiments or not. No; it would be better that we did not have the ballot.

Such a worthless application of it as that would not pay for the paper to write it upon. But you need have no fears; there are loyal and sober men enough in this country yet to rule all the fools, traitors, and public disturbers in it, whether they are found in the murdering dens of the Ku-Klux Klan or in bogus Legislatures.

To this end, let us vote unanimously for Grant and Colfax; let us stand by the nominees of the Republican party; let us vote only for those who we know are true in our interest, and in the pending struggle a way of deliverance will be opened. It may cost us much to do so; hundreds of us will likely be killed and driven off to starve, for voting for Grant. But he that ended the war will, when elected, put an end to our troubles and outrages. While we, your representatives assembled in convention, deliberate and endeavor to forecast in our common distress, we shall at the same time address an earnest appeal to Congress to guarantee by adequate legislation the rights, privileges, and immunities provided for us in the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of the State of Georgia.

For you as well as ourselves we shall, in the name of Heaven, humanity, reason, justice, civilization, and Christianity, pray to be delivered from the persecutions of an oppressive, domineering, and unconscionable Democratic majority, the odious principles of which we invoke you, in the name of yourselves, your

wives, and your children, and the liberty and peace of our country, to spurn as you would the deadly fangs of a viper. For there is not a Democrat, living or dead, who is civilly and politically the friend of the negro. They say, however, they are our "best friends." So says the devil.

The election in November passed by without serious disturbance, and resulted in the choice of the Democratic electors, by a vote of 102,822 to 57,134 for the Republicans, the whole number being 159,954, and the majority 45,688.

At the time when the State officials were removed from office by General Meade in January, they refused to turn over to their successors the records and seals of the various departments, and these were not recovered until after the establishment of the regular civil authorities under the new constitution. Captain Rockwell found in the vaults of the Treasury on the 18th of January the sum of ten cents, and afterward found deposited in the Georgia National Bank of Atlanta the sum of \$5,222.89, which had been placed there by Mr. Jones, the former Treasurer. Captain Rockwell occupied the position of provisional Treasurer until the 10th of August, during which period the receipts of the department under his charge, from all sources, amounted to \$370,639.44. The expenditures of the government for the same time amounted to \$272,683.06, and he turned over to the new Treasurer \$103,179.37. Mr. Jones had in his hands, when removed from office, funds to the amount of \$405,870.83. These he disposed of in payment of interest on the State bonds and in advances to various officers, contractors, etc., with the exception of the \$5,222.89, deposited in the Georgia National Bank at Atlanta. A productive source of revenue to the State is the Western and Atlantic Railroad, which yielded to the Treasury, during the nine months ending with the 30th of June, \$241,895.44. The various institutions and material interests of the State are as yet at a low ebb, but signs of renewing life appear, and it is to be hoped that the chronicles of another year may record at least the first steps of returning prosperity.

GERMANY. 1. THE GERMAN NATIONALITY.*—No important change was produced in the course of the year 1868. The Government of Baden openly professed a desire to be admitted as soon as possible into the North-German Confederation, and concluded a special military convention with Prussia; but practically no advance was made toward the consummation of a union of all Germany.

The commercial and national unity of the North and South German States received, however, an important recognition in the meeting of the first Customs Union Parliament. (*See CUSTOMS [ZOLL] PARLIAMENT.*)

A census was taken in December, 1867, in all the North and South German States, show-

* See the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, for a full statistical account of the extent of the German nationality.

ing the area and population of the states to be as follows:

STATES.	Sq. Miles.	Inhabitants.
<i>North Germany.</i>		
Prussia.....	135,806	24,043,296
Saxony.....	5,779	2,423,401
Meeklenburg-Schwerin.....	5,190	560,618
Oldenburg.....	2,469	315,622
Brunswick.....	1,425	303,401
Saxe-Weimar.....	1,404	283,044
Meeklenburg-Strelitz.....	1,052	98,770
Saxe-Meiningen.....	956	180,335
Anhalt.....	1,026	197,041
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.....	760	168,735
Saxe-Altenburg.....	510	141,426
Waldeck.....	433	56,805
Lippe-Detmold.....	438	111,352
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.....	374	75,074
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen.....	332	67,500
Reuss-Greiz.....	145	43,889
Reuss-Schleitz.....	320	88,097
Schaumburg-Lippe.....	171	81,186
Hamburg.....	156	305,196
Lubeck.....	107	48,588
Bremen.....	74	109,572
Hesse-Darmstadt (northern part).....	1,280	257,479
Total.....	160,207	29,910,377
<i>South Germany.</i>		
Bavaria.....	29,373	4,824,421
Wurtemberg.....	7,532	1,778,479
Baden.....	5,912	1,434,970
Hesse-Darmstadt (southern part).....	1,690	565,659
Liechtenstein.....	62	7,994
Total.....	44,569	8,611,523
Total of North Germany.....	160,207	29,910,377
Total of the whole of Germany.....	204,776	38,521,900

II. THE NORTH-GERMAN CONFEDERATION.—

The area of the North-German Confederation is 160,207 square miles, and the population, according to the census of 1867, 29,910,377. (See the table of the North-German States above.)

According to an official report published at Berlin, the effective strength of the North-German army was, in 1868, as follows: 12,696 officers (7,455 infantry, 1,889 cavalry, 1,632 artillery, and the rest engineers, staff, etc.); 39,177 sub-officers; 249,543 non-commissioned officers and men; 2,180 hospital assistants; 9,100 artisans; 493 accountants; 533 veterinary surgeons; 440 armorers; and 76 saddlers—total, 314,238. There are also 73,313 horses (9,428 artillery, 56,436 cavalry, 3,369 infantry, 1,599 train, and 2,390 staff). The annual levy (which was postponed for three months) would have furnished a contingent of 81,204 men. The numbers above given are those of the army when on a peace footing, as at present; if placed on the war establishment, the battalions of the Guard and the Line, which now have each 686 and 534 men respectively, would be raised to their full strength of 1,000 men, making a total of about 977,000 men. The number of horses, too, on the war establishment is 150,000—more than double the present number.

The North-German fleet, in 1868, consisted of 53 ships and 36 gunboats, the former carrying 495 guns, and the latter 68. Among the steamers are three frigates (the King William, the Frederick Charles, and the Crown Prince) with 55 guns, and one iron-clad corvette (the Hansa) with 8 guns. Besides these there are two iron-clad boats (the Arminius and the Prince Adalbert) with 7 guns, five turreted corvettes with 140 guns, five smooth-decked corvettes with 68 guns, two avisos with 6 guns, eight gunboats of the first class with 24 guns, fourteen of the second class with 28 guns, and the royal yacht Grille with four boats attached. The sailing-ships are—three frigates (the Gefion, the Thetis, and the Niobe) with 112 guns, three brigs with 38 guns, the Barbarossa with 9 guns, and three harbor-vessels. There are also thirty-two sloops, to each of which are attached from two to four boats armed with guns.

On February 22d Mr. Bancroft, the American ambassador to the North-German Confederation and the South-German Governments, concluded at Berlin the following convention regulating nationality:

ARTICLE 1. Citizens of the North-German Confederation who [have become or shall] become naturalized citizens of the United States of America, and shall have resided uninterruptedly within the United States five years, shall be held by the North-German Confederation to be American citizens and shall be treated as such. Reciprocally: citizens of the United States of America who [have become or shall] become naturalized citizens of the North-German Confederation, and shall have resided uninterruptedly within North Germany five years, shall be held by the United States to be North-German citizens and shall be treated as such. The declaration of an intention to become a citizen of the one or the other country has not for either party the effect of naturalization.

ART. 2. A naturalized citizen of the one party, on return to the territory of the other party, remains liable to trial and punishment for an action punishable by the laws of his original country and committed before his emigration; saving always the limitation established by the laws of his original country.

ART. 3. The convention for the mutual delivery of criminals, fugitives from justice, in certain cases, concluded between the United States on the one part and Prussia and other States of Germany on the other part, the sixteenth day of June one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, is hereby extended to all the States of the North-German Confederation.

ART. 4. If a German naturalized in America renews his residence in North Germany without the intent to return to America, he shall be held to have renounced his naturalization in the United States. Reciprocally: if an American naturalized in North Germany renews his residence in the United States without the intent to return to North Germany, he shall be held to have renounced his naturalization in North Germany. The intent not to return may be held to exist when the person naturalized in the one country resides more than two years in the other country.

ART. 5. The present convention shall go into effect immediately on the exchange of ratifications and shall continue in force for ten years. If neither party shall have given to the other six months' previous notice of its intention then to terminate the same, it shall further remain in force until the end

of twelve months after either of the contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of such intention.

ART. 6. The present convention shall be ratified by his Majesty the King of Prussia in the name of the North-German Confederation and by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Berlin within six months from the date hereof.

Mr. Bancroft concluded similar treaties with the Governments of Bavaria (May 26th), Wurtemberg (July 27th), Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt (August 1st).

In the budget for 1869, the receipts were estimated at 72,552,211 thalers, the expenditures at 77,701,135 thalers, the deficit at 5,148,924 thalers. The deficit was to be covered by a Federal loan (law of November 9, 1867).

The Parliament of the North-German Confederation was opened by the King of Prussia on the 23d of March. The King, in the speech from the throne, announced the further developments of the domestic institutions which had recently been founded, and mentioned the modification of the postal arrangements with several countries, and the conclusion of the postal treaty with the United States of America. The King expressed his satisfaction at the manner in which the representatives of the North-German Confederation had been received at foreign courts, and in conclusion said he was convinced that the blessings of peace would rest upon the labors of the Parliament. The session, which for a short time was interrupted by the meeting of the Customs Union Parliament, was brought to a close on the 20th of June. In his closing speech the King of Prussia acknowledged the results of the parliamentary session, and especially alluded to the sanction of the loan for the development of the Federal navy, and for the completion of the coast defenses under the control of Prussia. The speech further mentioned the laws (passed by the Parliament as a supplement to the laws upon the freedom of domicile) removing the police restrictions upon the right of contracting marriage; the laws abolishing imprisonment for debt, and closing gambling-houses; the sanction of the different postal treaties, and of the pensions granted to the soldiers of the former Schleswig-Holstein army; the regulation of weights and measures; the equalization of the taxes, and the passage of the treaty article for the entry of Mecklenburg and Lubeck into the Zollverein.

III. THE SOUTH-GERMAN STATES.—Of the Governments of the South-German States, only one, that of Baden, showed itself favorable to a complete union between North and South Germany. The Governments of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Hesse-Darmstadt declared a determination to adhere faithfully to the military and commercial treaties which had been concluded with the North-German Confederation, but were unwilling to go beyond them. A more determined opposition to the ascendancy

of Prussia was made by the radical "people's party" (*Volkspartei*) in the Southern States. On the 19th and 20th of September, a meeting of delegates of this party took place at Stuttgart. The meeting declared that the people's party acknowledge the three following principles:

1. The democratic principle of equality, and demands therefore the equal coöperation of all citizens in the forming and working of the constitution, the carrying out of the principle of the self-government of the people in the state.

2. In national as in international affairs, the people's party acknowledges the right of every clan (*Volkstamm*) as well as of every people to determine its own destiny. Only in this way does it strive after unity. Only a federal state founded in freedom, and inclusive of German Austria, corresponds with our principles.

3. The people's party acknowledges that the constitutional and social questions are inseparable, and in particular that the economical liberation of the working-classes and the realization of political liberty are in necessary coördination with each other.

The following resolutions fully define the position of the party with regard to the unity question:

1. The people's party is a party of peace. It sees in every war a condemnable injury to the interests of liberty, and does what lies in its power against the present peril of war.

2. To the South Germans it recommends opposition to the process of Prussianizing, and, with a view to the reunion of the whole fatherland, the foundation of a liberty-loving Southern Confederation, which should be kept up by a common popular representation, and executive, and be protected by a militia system on the Swiss pattern.

3. Within the North-German Confederation, it supports every tendency or effort which looks to a greater independence of provincial or little state political life. It presses upon the lands annexed by Prussia the duty of keeping alive and strengthening the peculiarities of their traditional local life which have a democratic character.

4. In German Austria, the development of internal liberty as a condition precedent and security for its reunion with Germany; the carrying through of a general reform in German Austria is as much a German as it is an Austrian interest. Only when German Austria takes a deep interest in the German national and liberal movement, only when a mutual action and reaction go on between German Austria and the rest of Germany, will Austria's reforming policy become firmly rooted in the soil.

5. In these endeavors the members of the people's party throughout all Germany have to lend each other support.

6. In the event of a war, the German people's party, mindful of its national duty, will take that side which offers security for the integrity of the soil of Germany. Even during war the people's party will not desist from working for the liberty and unity of the fatherland.

On the labor question the convention passed the following resolutions:

1. Permanent discussion of labor questions in the party organs and in the party clubs; promotion of the coöperative movement and trade-unions, and of the movement for procuring to the working-men a share in the net profits of their labor.

2. By means of the Legislature the following aims are to be striven for: The elevation of the common schools; establishment of technical schools, and gratuitous instruction thereat; complete freedom to manufacture; unlimited right of settlement and

movement; abolition of all restrictions on working-class marriages; abolition of monopolies; prohibition of child-labor in factories; limitation of the hours of labor; unlimited right of combination; reform of the law of partnership so as to render it favorable to the formation of cooperative associations; repeal of all indirect taxes, and the introduction of a single direct tax on a progressive scale; abolition of standing armies.

In July, Bavaria and Wurtemberg concluded a convention in reference to the future garrison of the South-German fortress of Ulm.

The following table shows the statistics of the universities of all Germany and of German Switzerland:

UNIVERSITIES.	Number of Students in Attendance.	Number of Professors and other Instructors.	Number of Students to each Instructor.
Vienna.....	3,074	191	15.1
Berlin.....	9,997	978	16.83
Prague.....	1,442	93	15.5
Leipsic.....	1,345	122	11
Munich.....	1,217	124	9.8
Bonn.....	939	102	9.2
Breslau.....	923	89	10.4
Halle.....	859	81	10.0
Tubingen.....	845	73	11.6
Göttingen.....	824	110	7.5
Heidelberg.....	780	110	7.09
Dorpat.....	595	58	10.3
Würzburg.....	565	57	9.9
Gratz.....	554	54	10.3
Königsberg.....	448	69	6.5
Münster.....	444	25	17.7
Greifswald.....	452	56	7.9
Jena.....	432	62	7
Erlangen.....	392	46	8.5
Innspruck.....	391	50	7.8
Marburg.....	365	61	6
Giessen.....	314	59	5.3
Freiburg.....	307	47	6.4
Berne.....	262	70	3.7
Rostock.....	245	36	6.9
Kiel.....	223	44	5
Zurich.....	177	68	2.6
Basle.....	93	51	1.82
Braunsberg.....	48	8	6
Total.....	21,542	2,194	9.8
In twenty-three German universities there are:			
FACULTIES.			
23 Theological.....	3,556	203	17.5
21 Law.....	3,794	247	15.36
11 Medical.....	3,353	458	7.4
23 Philosophical.....	4,670	830	5.6
Total.....	15,373	1,733	8.8

GERMANY, THE PRESS OF, IN 1868. The number of political newspapers published in the states of the North-German Confederation, in the German states south of the Maine line, and in the German provinces of Austria, on the 1st of July, 1868, was fifteen hundred and seventy-nine, of which three hundred and fifteen were dailies, and the remainder tri-weeklies, semi-weeklies, and weeklies. The kingdom of Saxony possessed the largest number of political jour-

nals in proportion to its population, namely, one to every four thousand five hundred inhabitants; the aggregate circulation of the newspapers published there is nearly twice as large as in any other German state or province containing the same population. The smallest number of newspapers in proportion to the population was published in the grand-duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, where there is but one political journal to every thirty-three thousand inhabitants. In Prussia, there is one political journal to every fifteen thousand inhabitants; in Bavaria, one to every seventeen thousand three hundred and fifty; in Wurtemberg, one to every thirteen thousand eight hundred; in Hesse-Darmstadt, one to every fourteen thousand nine hundred; in Oldenburg, one to every twenty-eight thousand; in the Thuringian duchies and principalities, one to about every twenty-two thousand inhabitants. The largest circulation obtained by any daily German paper in the year 1868 was twenty-nine thousand (that of the *Volkszeitung*); and the largest circulation of any German weekly was three hundred and twenty thousand copies (that of the Leipsic *Gartenlaube*). The aggregate circulation of the daily papers published in Berlin, on the 1st of October, 1868, was one hundred and twenty-four thousand seven hundred copies, the *Volkszeitung* and the *Vossische Zeitung* heading the list with respectively twenty-nine thousand and fourteen thousand five hundred copies, and the *Zukunft* closing it with less than one thousand two hundred copies. The aggregate circulation of the dailies published at Munich was sixty-four thousand copies; at Hamburg, nineteen thousand copies; at Stuttgart, thirty-one thousand copies; at Cologne, thirty-one thousand; at Leipsic, twenty-nine thousand; at Dresden, forty-one thousand one hundred; at Hanover, thirty-two thousand; at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, thirty-nine thousand; at Vienna, one hundred and seventy-nine thousand copies. The largest advertising patronage reported by any German daily was that of the *Hamburger Nachrichten* (Hamburg News), which, in the first nine months of the year 1868, paid taxes on 287,000 marks; next followed the Berlin *Vossische Zeitung*, with a little over a hundred thousand thalers, and the *Kölnische Zeitung* (Cologne Gazette), with ninety thousand thalers, in the same space of time. As regards both the circulation of the newspapers and their receipts for advertisements, there was a sensible falling off in nearly all parts of Germany, as compared to the results obtained in the year 1867, the absence of exciting and important political events and the general stagnation of business having injuriously affected the newspaper business. Only in Vienna, in consequence of the important political struggles which took place in Austria in the spring and summer of 1868, all the newspapers did a more profitable business than in the preceding year; their circu-

lation having risen considerably. The *Presse*, which in 1867 had only twelve thousand subscribers, never printed less than seventeen thousand copies in 1868, and on two occasions sold fifty thousand extra copies. The other Vienna dailies obtained a similar increase in their circulation.

One of the most important events in the history of the German press, during the year 1868, was the determined attempt made by a very large majority of the journeymen printers to put an end to type-setting and performing press-work on Sundays. A printers' congress held at Berlin in the latter part of the spring passed resolutions to this effect; and no sooner had the telegraph circulated the report of these resolutions in the various parts of the country than the journeymen printers and press-men, in the printing-offices of nearly every daily paper published in Germany, informed their employers that they would no longer work on Sundays. This step called forth the most strenuous resistance on the part of the newspaper publishers, inasmuch as most of them were issuing Monday editions, and their refusal to employ journeymen that refused to work on Sundays gave rise to an extensive strike among the compositors and press-men. In consequence of this strike, not a few of the most influential German newspapers were forced to suspend for several days, while others had to reduce their reading matter considerably. Appeals made to the authorities to intervene between the contending parties were unsuccessful. After a great deal of wrangling, an amicable arrangement was finally arrived at, and the result was that nearly all the German dailies discontinued their Monday editions.

The press laws in some of the German States underwent important alterations in the course of the year 1868. In the grand-duchy of Baden the adoption of a new and liberal law, in which the oppressive features of the former press law, that had been dictated by the reactionary spirit engendered by the revolutionary events of 1848 and 1849, were omitted, placed the newspaper press of Baden on a more independent footing than that of any other German State. The number of prosecutions instituted in this grand-duchy in the year 1868, against editors and publishers for offences against the press laws, was only nine; most of these prosecutions were directed against the editors of ultramontane journals, opposing in a spirit of intense bitterness and hostility the friendly course which the Government of Baden was pursuing toward Prussia in regard to the German question.

In the kingdom of Saxony, the adoption of the new criminal code led likewise to the repeal of the most rigorous paragraphs of the press laws of 1849. "Offences against his Majesty, and against the other members of the royal house," which play such an important rôle in the press codes of most of the German

States, are no longer to be found in that of Saxony. The number of journalists prosecuted in that kingdom in the year 1868 for violations of the press laws was trifling. Most of the editors who were prosecuted were arraigned on charges of no great importance, and the courts acquitted nearly all of them.

In Wurtemberg, where the press is comparatively free, no changes of importance were made in the press laws. If the number of prosecutions of journalists for infractions of these laws was rather large in 1868, it was owing to the intense excitement to which the elections for the German Zoll-Parliament gave rise at the beginning of the year, and to the fact that Stuttgart, the capital of the kingdom, is the headquarters of the extreme wing of the South-German Democracy, whose most influential organ, the *Beobachter*, edited by Charles Mayer, is published there. The defiant boldness with which this journal attacked Prussia and the Wurtemberg Government, in nearly every issue, involved it in a large number of prosecutions, most of which terminated in sentences imposing fines and imprisonment on the accused editor.

In Bavaria the administration of Prince Hohenlohe inaugurated a decidedly liberal system in its treatment of the political press. During the year 1868 the Bavarian Government had only five papers prosecuted for political offences; and all the articles designated were deemed objectionable, not because of the political principles they advocated, but on account of the personal attacks they contained. A commission, composed of several eminent jurists and statesmen, was organized in the autumn of 1868 for the purpose of subjecting the press laws of Bavaria to a thorough revision; but the results of their labors have not yet been submitted to the Bavarian Chambers.

In Prussia the changes made in regard to the taxes on newspapers, the reduction of the post-office tariff, and the measures adopted for adding to the efficiency of the mail service, were the only improvements by which the newspaper press of the kingdom profited in the year 1868. In every other respect its condition remained as unsatisfactory as ever. The appointment of Mr. Leonhard as Minister of Justice, in the place of Count Zur Lippe, who, during the whole of his administration, had pursued a proscriptive course toward the Liberal newspapers, had given rise to the hope that the number of press prosecutions, which in 1867 had been frightfully large, would considerably decrease in 1868; but this hope was only partially fulfilled. The public prosecutors pursued about the same course as before, and the number of press trials fell short but very little of that of 1867. In the newly-annexed provinces of the kingdom, Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, and Nassau, where grievous blunders committed by the administration had created a great deal of dissatisfaction among the inhabitants, the press, naturally

reflecting as it did this disaffection, and teeming with bitter complaints about the mismanagement of certain royal functionaries, was treated with the utmost severity, so that the Schleswig-Holstein papers declared they had met with more lenity even during the most oppressive period of the Danish régime. Appeals made to the central Government in Berlin elicited only vague promises, to the effect that a more liberal course should be pursued in the future; and the earnest protests of the opposition members in the Prussian Parliament bore no immediate fruits. The whole number of prosecutions instituted for violations of the press laws in Prussia, from the 1st of January to the 1st of July, 1868, was ninety-seven. Owing to the heavy fines imposed by the courts upon their editors and printers, seven papers were compelled to suspend publication.

In Mecklenburg-Schwerin, where the condition of the political press was the effect of the oppressive laws adopted in the reactionary period succeeding the revolutionary events of 1848 and 1849, the editors and publishers of the daily papers called, in November, 1868, upon the grand-duke, and requested him to instruct his Minister of Justice to prepare a more liberal press code. They assured him that the press laws prevailing in the grand-duchy were even more oppressive than those of France, and hardly more liberal than those of Russia. No satisfactory response was made to this appeal.

In the German provinces of Austria, especially in Vienna, the press enjoys almost complete liberty, only four journals having been prosecuted for violations of the press laws in the course of 1868. In Bohemia, however, owing to the intense state of hostility prevailing between the Czechs and German Bohemians, the Austrian Government deemed it necessary to prosecute most of the extreme organs of the former with extraordinary vigor, and the courts, especially those of Prague, not only passed unusually severe sentences on a number of prominent Bohemian editors, but compelled several of the most influential Czech organs to suspend publication.

GIBSON, WILLIAM, M.D., LL.D., an eminent American surgeon and author, born in the city of Baltimore in 1788; died at Savannah, Ga., March 2, 1868. His classical education was obtained in St. John's College, Annapolis, and the college of New Jersey, at Princeton, and he graduated at the latter in 1806. He had already given some attention to the study of medicine, having entered the office of Dr. John Owen, of Baltimore. In 1806 he went abroad, and continued his medical and surgical studies in the University of Edinburgh, enjoying the special instruction of Sir Charles Bell. He received his medical diploma from the university in 1809, and soon after published the Latin thesis which he had defended on that occasion. On his return he settled in practice in Baltimore, and was one of the early professors of surgery in the University of

Maryland. In 1812 he took up the common iliac artery, and rendered essential service in the memorable Baltimore riots. He was fond of military surgery, and managed to be present at some very important battles in Europe, especially at Corunna and at Waterloo. At the latter he was slightly wounded. After his return from this second visit to Europe he was called to the chair of surgery in the University of Pennsylvania, and for more than thirty years filled that important post with great acceptance. He was a fine operator, and during his long practice in Philadelphia had the opportunity of performing repeatedly all, or nearly all, of the great operations of the profession. Among others of them he performed the Cæsarean section twice on the same woman, and both times with successful result to mother and children. He made frequent visits to Europe, and, having an ample fortune, indulged in his fondness for travel by visiting nearly every country of Europe, and considerable portions of Asia and Africa. After reaching the age of seventy he retired from practice, and removed to Newport, R. I., for a summer residence, usually spending his winters in Savannah or its vicinity. Dr. Gibson was the author of numerous works, mostly professional, of which his "Principles and Practice of Surgery" is the most widely known, having passed through many editions. He also published, in 1841, a volume of "Rambles in Europe in 1839," being sketches of prominent surgeons; and in 1841 a lecture, embracing a short account of eminent Belgian surgeons and physicians. He had kept a daily journal for over sixty years, and at the time of his death it included about one hundred and fifty volumes.

GILLESPIE, WILLIAM MITCHELL, LL.D., an American civil engineer, professor, and author, born in New York City in 1816; died there, January 1, 1868. He was a graduate of Columbia College, in the class of 1834, and after leaving college spent about ten years in Europe, partly in the further prosecution of his studies, and partly in extensive travel and observation. During his residence in Europe he was an occasional correspondent of some of the New York daily papers, and his letters were subsequently collected into a volume, with the title "Rome, as seen by a New-Yorker in 1843-'44." He returned to New York in 1845, an accomplished civil engineer, and his volume entitled "Roads and Railroads," published soon after his return, has become a work of standard authority, and has passed through numerous editions. He received and accepted the appointment, in 1845, of Professor of Civil Engineering in Union College, which he held till his death. He was very popular as a professor, and the care and research he bestowed in perfecting his lectures and instructions were never abated to the day of his death. In 1855 he published an admirable treatise on land-surveying, which passed through a half-dozen

editions in the next three years, and was pirated by another author, who subsequently, however, recanted the claims he had made to its authorship. In 1857 he published a translation of a portion of August Comte's writings, under the title of "Philosophy of Mathematics;" but it was less successful than his other books. An original, brilliant, and independent thinker, somewhat given to paradox, abhorring every thing like pretence, sham, or cant, he was sometimes a little too severe on those who did not possess his own intellectual vigor. His nature was, however, too genial and social to give his positive assertions an offensive tone. He died of disease of the lungs, from which he had been suffering for about a year. The last four months he had only been able to perform his college duties with great pain and difficulty; but, through the force of a powerful will, he had kept up, and on the day of his death deluded himself with the belief that he should return to his work in three or four days. In his department of science he has left behind him few equals and no superior.

GILMER, JOHN A., a Southern politician, born in Guilford County, N. C., November 4, 1805; died in Greensboro, N. C., May 14, 1868. He was of poor but respectable parentage, and of studious habits; and, having acquired a good English education at winter schools, he worked on a farm and in a shop during the summer seasons, and finally taught school till he obtained the means of taking a three years' course at the academy at Greensboro. Here he distinguished himself as a linguist and mathematician, and subsequently taught for three years in a grammar-school. Afterward he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1832. His practice and reputation slowly advanced, and in 1846 he was elected State Senator, and retained in the Senate by successive reelections till 1856, when he was elected to the Thirty-fifth Congress, and served on the Committee on Elections. He was also a candidate of the Whig party for Governor in 1856, but was defeated. He was reelected to the Thirty-sixth Congress, and made chairman of the Committee on Elections, but before the expiration of his term withdrew, North Carolina having been forced into secession. During the war he remained quietly at home, until 1864, when he was chosen a member of the last Confederate Congress. After the war, he was a delegate to the Philadelphia "National Union Convention" in the summer of 1866.

GORTCHAKOFF, Prince PETER DMITRIEVITCH, a Russian general and military governor of remarkable administrative ability, born at Moscow, in 1789; died in that city, in April, 1868. Having received a military education at Dresden, he entered the artillery of the Imperial Guard in 1807; was engaged in the war with the Finns in 1809, and in the Turkish war, in Moldavia, in 1810, taking an active part in the battles of Rustschuk and Shumla. In

1811 he was in St. Petersburg, assisting in the editing of the *Military Journal*; but in 1812-'14 he was again in the field, encountering all the vicissitudes of the war with Napoleon. After the restoration of peace in Western Europe, Prince Gortchakoff, now recognized as an officer of great courage and ability, was ordered to the Caucasus. Here, for some years, all was quiet; but, in 1820, Mingrelia, Imeritia, and Georgia rose simultaneously, and for a time it seemed as if the Russian power in that region would be blotted out forever. That it was not, was due largely to the skill and address, as well as the unflinching courage, of Prince Gortchakoff. He held the wavering tribes to their allegiance; by his rapid and skilful movements subjugated the district of Batchin, the principal seat of the insurrection, and adroitly secured the evidence of the plans of the insurgent leaders, and the complicity of several powerful chiefs who had professed to be friendly. For his great services he was rewarded with the rank of major-general and the governorship of Imeritia. For five years he governed this important province with remarkable ability, improving its communications, encouraging industry, but trampling out, with the iron heel, every attempt at revolt. In 1826, war again occurring between Russia and Turkey, he was appointed quartermaster general of the Second Army, and distinguished himself before Shumla, and in the campaign under Diebitsch in 1829. He subsequently returned to the Caucasus, but in 1836 was made Governor-General of Western Siberia, and for fifteen years managed the affairs of that vast region with wonderful success, transferring the seat of the government to Omsk, encouraging all the industries of the country, and largely developing its resources. His health failing under his manifold labors, he returned to Moscow in 1851; but, having nearly recovered in 1854, he was summoned to take part in the Crimean War, was conspicuous for his daring at the Alma, heading in person the Vladimir regiment of foot, and had command of the entire land forces in the retreat upon Sebastopol, and subsequently was appointed general of the Sixth Corps of Infantry. In 1855 the prince quitted the service, and became a member of the Imperial Council. In 1857, on the fiftieth anniversary of his entering the army, he was made commander of the Vladimir regiment which he had led so bravely at the Alma, and held this honorary appointment to the end of his life. In 1863 he returned to Moscow, and remained there till his death.

GRANGER, FRANCIS, an active and distinguished politician of New York, born in Suffield, Conn., in 1787; died in Canandaigua, New York, August 28, 1868. He was the son of Gideon Granger, Postmaster-General of the United States from 1801 to 1814, and enjoyed excellent advantages of early education. He did not, however, enter Yale College until his twentieth year, and graduated in the class of

1811. After his graduation he commenced the study of law, and in 1814, having been admitted to the bar, opened an office in Canandaigua, N. Y., to which place his father, on being removed from office by President Madison, because of his opposition to the war with Great Britain, had removed. Francis Granger soon engaged in politics, taking part with his father in favor of DeWitt Clinton and the policy of internal improvements. His first entry into public political life was in 1825, in which year he was elected a member of the lower House of the State Legislature as a representative from Ontario County. He was prominent in the anti-Masonic movement which created such excitement in this State, and was a confrère of William H. Seward, Thurlow Weed, Millard Fillmore, and other young men who at that time were aspirants for fame, and who joined the political crusade against the Masons after the alleged abduction of William Morgan. In 1826 Mr. Granger was reelected to the Legislature, and in 1828 was put in nomination by the anti-Masons as a candidate for Governor. In the same year the Adams Republicans nominated him for the office of Lieutenant-Governor, Judge Smith Thompson being their gubernatorial candidate, which candidacy he accepted. Martin Van Buren and Enos T. Throop were the candidates on the Jackson ticket for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor respectively, in that campaign, and were elected. In the following year Mr. Granger was again reelected to the Legislature, and in 1830 he became the anti-Masonic candidate for Governor, but was again defeated by Mr. Throop. The people of Ontario sent him to represent them in the Assembly for the fourth time, in 1831. When, in 1832, the Clay Republicans and the anti-Masons coalesced on the same electoral and State tickets in New York, Mr. Granger was again put in nomination for Governor on the ticket of the coalition, but was defeated by William L. Marcy, the candidate of the Democracy. In 1834 the Whig party, made up of anti-Jackson Democrats and Clay Republicans, came upon the political stage, and Mr. Granger was recognized as one of its ablest leaders. His name was, that year, before the State Convention in connection with the gubernatorial candidacy, but William H. Seward bore off the honor of the nomination. In the fall of that year, however, the Whigs of the Twenty-sixth congressional District made Mr. Granger their candidate for Congress, and elected him. In 1836 the anti-Masons held a National Convention in Philadelphia, and nominated Mr. Granger for the vice-presidency, on the ticket with General William H. Harrison, who was their presidential candidate. At that time the Whig party was not powerful enough to lay claim to being a national party; but they determined to oppose the election of Mr. Van Buren, who was the Democratic candidate. They were not united in the contest, having Harrison, Webster, and Judge H. L. White as

candidates. In the New-England States, except in Vermont, Mr. Granger was on the ticket, as vice-presidential nominee, with Mr. Webster, while in Vermont, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan, he ran with General Harrison. John Tyler, of Virginia, was the Whig candidate in the residue of the States—Mr. Granger being particularly obnoxious to the Southern States, by reason of his supposed affiliation with the spirit of abolitionism, which was at that time rising into prominence. The election of a Vice-President that year became the duty of the Senate, in consequence of the failure of the electoral colleges to agree upon a nominee, and they selected Colonel Richard M. Johnson for that office. Mr. Granger still remained true to the Whig party, however, and when it came into power, in 1838, he was elected to Congress from the Ontario District, and in 1840 he was reelected. In 1841 General Harrison, having been elected President, sent Mr. Granger's name in to the Senate for confirmation as Postmaster-General. The President's selection did not meet with the cordial approval of that body, because of Mr. Granger's well-known Anti-slavery views, but at last his nomination was confirmed; not before he had voluntarily given his promise to President Harrison, however, that, in case he should thereafter act with the Abolition party, he should expect to be removed from his office as Postmaster-General; but he never gave any such cause for removal. He resigned his position in July, 1841, at the request of the New York delegation, in consequence of the rupture which took place between President Tyler (Harrison's successor) and the Cabinet, growing out of Tyler's action on the question of the United States Bank. Mr. Granger was subsequently elected to Congress in place of Mr. Greig, and served in the session of 1841-'42. The Whigs of the Twenty-sixth District tendered him a renomination at the following election; but he declined it, and never afterward held office. Mr. Granger was not inactive as a politician, however, for many years after his retirement from official life. He took a warm interest in the questions that agitated the country during the presidency of Millard Fillmore, and heartily approved the course of the Executive during that exciting period. He is said, also, to have been in sympathy with the Know-Nothing movement, and to have counselled the leaders of that party during the political campaigns from 1853 to 1856, but he never took any prominent part before the public as a member of that organization. During the pendency of the late war, Mr. Granger, although understood to be in sympathy with the Union cause, gave no public expression of his views concerning the momentous issues that were then involved. His health began to fail in 1863, and he lost all the relish he had previously exhibited for the excitement of politics. In person Mr. Granger was tall, of commanding figure,

courteous and affable, of a genial, hearty, and affectionate disposition, and was a man whose friendship was to be prized.

GRAYSON, WILLIAM, for many years a political leader of the Democratic party in Maryland, and Governor of the State for three years, born in Maryland, in 1786; died at his residence in Queen Anne County, Maryland, July 9, 1868. An intelligent and honorable member of the planter class in his native State, Mr. Grayson at an early period identified himself with the Democratic, or, as it was then called, the Republican party, and became one of its leading men. He served with distinction for several years in both Houses of the General Assembly, and took a prominent part in that exciting struggle to obtain a new and more liberal constitution for the State, which commenced in 1836, and terminated in 1838 in favor of the Republicans. Gratitude to Mr. Grayson, who had led in this protracted contest, induced them to nominate and elect him Governor. He served from 1838 to 1841 with great credit, and on the expiration of his term retired to private life.

GREAT BRITAIN, or the UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND. Area by the latest surveys, 120,879 English square miles. Population, according to the census of 1861, 29,321,288. *Government*.—Constitutional monarchy. Queen, Victoria I., born May 24, 1819; crowned, June 28, 1838. Heir-apparent, Prince Albert Edward, born November 9, 1841; married March 10, 1863, to Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of the present King of Denmark, Christian IX. The power of the sovereign in the actual administration of the affairs of the nation, except in some particulars of minor importance, is but little more than nominal, the real administrators being the Cabinet, who remain in power so long as they have the confidence of a majority of the House of Commons. At the commencement of the year 1868, the administration was in the hands of a Conservative ministry, Earl Derby being the Premier, and First Lord of the Treasury. (*See ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for the year 1867.*) On the 25th of February, 1868, Earl Derby, whose health had for some time been infirm, resigned the premiership, and the Right Hon. Benjamin Disraeli, who had been, during Earl Derby's administration in this and former Cabinets, Chancellor of the Exchequer, was called to the premiership. Two other changes were made in the Cabinet, which, however, still retained its conservative character; these were, Lord Cairns, Lord High Chancellor, in place of Lord Chelmsford, and George Ward Hunt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, in place of Mr. Disraeli.

The Reform Bill, which had been the great measure of Earl Derby's administration, was not yet completed in all its details, and the bills regulating the suffrage in Scotland and Ireland were brought forward and passed after Mr. Disraeli became premier. The measure, in the form in which it finally passed, notwithstanding

ing some amendments offered by the Liberals, and engrafted upon it, was essentially Mr. Disraeli's plan, and, as it was carried through Parliament mainly by his adroit management, and under a considerable show of opposition from many members of the party which supported him, he should have the honor of it.

Since the Reform Bills of 1832, which had bestowed the right of suffrage upon many thousands who had not previously been allowed its exercise, and had abolished the greater part of the rotten boroughs, there had been several attempts made to adopt further reforms and extend the suffrage to the working-classes. Reform bills were introduced in 1854, in 1859, and in 1860, but so little interest in the subject was manifested by those who would primarily be benefited by the measures, that they were withdrawn without being brought to the test of a vote. In 1864, Mr. Gladstone, in a public speech, gave the first impulse to a new agitation of the subject. The election of 1865 gave occasion for a somewhat general discussion of the principles on which such a measure should be based. When Lord Palmerston died, and Earl Russell became the Government leader in the House of Lords, and Mr. Gladstone, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, the representative of the Government in the Commons, they at once opened the way for a very full discussion of reform measures. Before the close of the session of Parliament in 1866, the Government introduced a very moderate Reform Bill, the leading provisions of which were the bestowal of the franchise upon occupiers of premises of the value of £7 in boroughs and of £14 in counties. With this was subsequently combined a bill for the redistribution of seats in Parliament (i. e. for taking one member from the small boroughs which had two, and giving to the cities and populous boroughs or the great counties an additional member). When this bill was introduced, it did not give satisfaction; most of the Conservatives and a considerable number of the Liberals were not in favor of any change in the franchise; another party desired a more radical measure, and Earl Russell and Mr. Gladstone found themselves deserted at a critical time by a portion of their followers, and on an important clause of the bill they were left in a minority of seven. Accepting this as tantamount to a declaration of want of confidence, the Russell-Gladstone ministry resigned, and a Conservative Cabinet was formed, of which Earl Derby and Mr. Disraeli were the leaders in the two Houses of Parliament. Though Conservative in its professions, this new ministry came into power pledged to bring forward a reform bill. The maturing of this was left to Mr. Disraeli, for Earl Derby was too strongly bound to the old Conservative party to be inclined to take any very active part in it. Mr. Disraeli moved boldly. A skilful strategist, he saw clearly that the only chance of his continuance in power, and the predominance of the Conservative party, lay

in offering to Parliament a measure which should be more decidedly liberal than that of the Liberal party. Some of the members of the Cabinet, wedded to their old party traditions, could not see the propriety of such a step, and, allowing them to resign, he procured the substitution of other ministers who would not thwart his views. On the 18th of March, 1867, Mr. Disraeli introduced his Reform Bill. Its provisions were decidedly more liberal than those of the Russell-Gladstone bill of the previous year, and, though encumbered with some features of doubtful policy, it was, on the whole, received with considerable favor by the House of Commons. It was, however, amended in many particulars, in some for the better, in others for the worse. The Ministry accepted many of these amendments, and when they were such as they could not yield to, brought the House to reason by a threat of dissolution of Parliament. At length, after a protracted contest, the Reform Bill passed the Commons on the 15th of July, 1867. It was further amended in the House of Lords, and passed as amended August 6, 1867, and returned to the Commons, where all the amendments except one (that for the representation of minorities) were rejected, the vote in the House of Commons standing 253 to 204. On the 12th of August the Lords agreed to the bill as finally passed by the Commons, and on the 15th of the month it received the royal assent and became a law. The most important provisions of this bill, which applied only to England and Wales, were the following:

"Occupation Franchise for Voters in Boroughs.—Every man shall, on and after 1868, be entitled to be registered as a voter, and when registered, to vote for a member or members to serve in Parliament for a borough, who is qualified as follows: He must be of full age, and have on the last day of July in any year, and during the whole of the preceding twelve calendar months, been an inhabitant occupier, as an owner or tenant, of any dwelling-house within the borough, and have during the time of such occupation been rated as an ordinary occupier in respect of the premises so occupied by him within the borough to all rates (if any) made for the relief of the poor in respect to such premises; and have on or before the 20th day of July in the same year paid an equal amount in the pound to that payable by other ordinary occupiers in respect to all poor-rates that have become payable by him in respect of the said premises up to the preceding 5th day of January. No man under this section to be entitled to be registered as a voter by reason of his being a joint occupier of any dwelling-house.

"Lodger Franchise in Boroughs.—Every man, in and after 1868, shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, and when registered, to vote for a member or members to serve in Parliament for a borough, who is qualified as follows: He must be of full age, and, as a lodger, have occupied in the same borough, separately and

as sole tenant for the twelve months preceding the last day of July, in any year, the same lodgings, such lodgings being part of one and the same dwelling-house, and of a clear yearly value, if let unfurnished, of ten pounds or upward, and have resided in such lodgings during the twelve months immediately preceding the last day of July, and have claimed to be registered as a voter at the next ensuing registration of voters.

"Property Franchise in Counties.—Every man, in and after 1868, shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, and when registered, to vote for a member or members to serve in Parliament for a county, who is qualified as follows: He must be of full age, and not subject to any legal incapacity; and be seized at law or in equity of any lands or tenements of freehold, copyhold, or any other tenure whatever, for his own life, or for the life of another, or for any lives whatsoever, or for any larger estate of the clear yearly value of not less than five pounds over and above all rents and charges payable out of or in respect of the same, or who is entitled, either as lessee or assignee, to any lands or tenements of freehold, or of any other tenure whatever, for the unexpired residue, whatever it may be, of any term originally created for a period of not less than sixty years, of the clear yearly value of not less than five pounds over and above all rents and charges payable out of or in respect of the same. No person to be registered as a voter under this section unless he shall have complied with the provisions of the twenty-sixth section of the act of the second year of the reign of his Majesty William IV., chapter 45. (This is the Reform Act of 1832.)

"Occupation Franchise in Counties, and Time for paying Rates.—Every man, in and after 1868, shall be entitled to be registered as a voter, and when registered, to vote for a member or members to serve in Parliament for a county, who is qualified as follows: He must be of full age, and have on the last day of July in any year, and during the twelve months preceding, been the occupier, as owner or tenant, of lands or tenements within the county, of the ratable value of twelve pounds or upward; and have during the time of such occupation been rated in respect to the premises so occupied by him to all rates (if any) made for the relief of the poor in respect of the said premises; and have on or before the 20th day of July in the same year paid all poor-rates that have become payable by him in respect of the said premises up to the preceding 5th day of January."

It was also provided by the act that the *occupier*, and not the *owner*, of any tenement in boroughs, of the rental value specified in the act, should be rated to the poor-rates, and that where he had not previously been so rated, he might deduct these rates from the rental. Provision was also made in regard to composition of rates, the first registration of occupi-

ers, and other particulars in regard to registration and the polling of the votes. It was also provided that successive occupation of different premises in a borough, if continuous, and of sufficient rental value, should have the same effect in qualifying a voter as the continuous occupation of the same premises for a twelve-month; and that in counties, joint occupation of premises whose ratable value was sufficient to give a vote to each occupier, should not prevent two persons who were joint occupiers, or more if in partnership or connected by blood or marriage, from voting. The boroughs of Totness, Reigate, Great Yarmouth, and Lancaster, were disfranchised and prohibited from returning any member of Parliament hereafter, in consequence of having been guilty of corrupt practices, bribery, etc., etc. This gave seven members to be distributed among new boroughs; and the restriction of all boroughs of less than 10,000 inhabitants to one member, added 38 more for a new distribution, making 45 in all. Of these 25 were given to the larger counties, which were divided into two or more districts for this purpose: 19 were given to the boroughs, 11 of them to new boroughs, and 8 as additional members of large boroughs or cities, and one member was given to the University of London. Persons employed in any capacity for reward, in connection with any election, were prohibited from voting, and severe penalties were to be inflicted on those who were guilty of bribery, either directly or indirectly.

The amendments made by the House of Lords in regard to the representation of minorities were as follows: "At a contested election for any county or borough represented by three members, no person shall vote for more than two candidates." "At a contested election for the city of London, no person shall vote for more than three candidates."

It was further provided that the demise of the crown should not dissolve Parliament, and that members holding offices of profit from the crown should not be required to vacate their seats on acceptance of another office.

The Reform Acts for Scotland and Ireland, passed in the session of 1868, differed in some important respects from that of England. By the act for Scotland, the franchise in burghs was conferred upon every male person of full age, and subject to no legal incapacity, who had been for twelve months an occupier, as owner or tenant, of any dwelling, unless at any time during that period he shall have been exempted from the poor-rates on the ground of poverty, or shall have failed to pay his poor-rates, or shall have been in the receipt of parochial relief within twelve months. The lodger franchise in Scotland consists in the permission of any lodger to vote who has occupied, in the same burgh separately, and as sole tenant, for twelve months, a lodging of the clear annual value, if let unfurnished, of ten pounds or upward, and has claimed to be registered as a

voter. In Scottish counties the ownership franchise is five pounds, clear of any deduction in the shape of burdens, with a residential qualification of not less than six months. The Reform Act for Ireland, which was not passed until July, 1868, made no alteration in the county franchise, but reduced that of boroughs to a £4 rating occupation, with the same qualifications as in England.

The Reform Bill of 1867-'68 left in force all the old legal requirements for electors. Under these, aliens, persons under twenty-one years of age, or of unsound mind, or convicted of felony, and undergoing a term of imprisonment, were incapable of voting. No one could be a member of Parliament who had not attained to the age of twenty-one years; and no excise, custom, stamp, or other revenue officer, nor, since 1840, any judges, except the Master of the Rolls, were eligible to election. No English or Scotch peer can be elected to the House of Commons, but Irish peers are eligible. No foreigners, even when naturalized, unless the right be conceded in express terms, and no persons convicted of treason or felony, are eligible for seats in Parliament. The number of members of the House of Commons has been, since 1817, 658, and has varied very little from that number during the present century.

As, by the provisions of the Reform Act, a new Parliament was to be elected in the autumn of 1868, it was very naturally the desire of Mr. Disraeli to so conduct the Government as to secure from the new members, when they should be elected, a decided majority in his favor. He found this, however, a task beyond his powers. The passage of the Reform Act had alienated many of the older and more rigid Conservatives, but had perhaps given him a popular following of equal numbers from some of the quasi-Liberals; but in the new measures which came up in the session of 1868 he was destined to find the elements of his defeat. The war in Abyssinia had been conducted to a successful close, with the storming of Theodoros's capital and the death of the king of the kings of Ethiopia himself (*see* ABYSSINIA and THEODORUS), and the *éclat* arising from this seemed at first to be sufficient to carry the Disraeli ministry over the perils of a new election. But a new apple of discord was thrown into Parliament by the great Liberal leader, Mr. Gladstone, on the 30th of March, 1868, by the introduction of a resolution for the disestablishment of the Irish Church. The great bulk of the population of Ireland is Roman Catholic; 4,505,265 of the 5,764,543 inhabitants in 1861 belonging to that faith, while of the remainder, 691,872 were reckoned as belonging to the Established Church of Ireland (Episcopal), and the rest, almost 600,000, were Protestant dissenters. Yet the British Government has maintained the Established Church of Ireland, having less than one-eighth of the population among its adherents, and endowed it with revenues amounting to £580,-

418 = \$2,900,000 per annum, sustaining two archbishops and twelve bishops from the church rates and taxes paid largely by those of a different faith. This compulsory support of the Irish Established Church by Roman Catholics and the dissenting bodies has been, for many years, a constant source of complaint by the oppressed parties, and though Parliament has repeatedly attempted their pacification by the Maynooth College and other grants to the Catholics, and the *Regium Donum* and similar gifts for educational and religious purposes, to some of the dissenting bodies, yet it has held most tenaciously to the Establishment, which has afforded lucrative positions to so many of the English clergy and the younger sons of the nobility, that they were unwilling to have it abolished. It is just this relic of ancient wrong that Mr. Gladstone determined to assail. His attack brought down upon him a torrent of denunciation from the Conservatives, who, raising the cry of "No popery," attempted to create the impression that the Liberal leader was in the interest and pay of the Pope; others predicted that this was but the entering wedge to the entire subversion of the Establishment throughout the British empire. The House of Lords were, very naturally, indignant at what seemed to them a breach of privilege. But Mr. Gladstone persisted, and on the 30th of April, carried his resolution, "that the Irish Church, as an Establishment, should cease to exist," through the Commons, defeating the Government by a majority of 65. Disraeli, however, though fighting bitterly Mr. Gladstone's position, refused to resign, and, while protesting his desire for reform and improvement in the Established Church of Ireland, avowed his belief that the mass of voters in the United Kingdom would not sustain a measure so radical as Mr. Gladstone had proposed, and that the fact could only be determined by an appeal to the enlarged body of voters which would be made in the autumnal election. As it was evident that the House of Lords would only yield to the disestablishment of the Irish Church under a very strong pressure from the Commons, and as, moreover, he desired time to mature fully his plans, and to see how far he would be sustained by the new Parliament, Mr. Gladstone did not attempt to coerce the Disraeli ministry into resignation, but contented himself with bringing forward a bill to restrain the making of any new appointments to fill vacancies, and the building, rebuilding, or enlarging any church edifices or property in Ireland, during the year ending August 1, 1869. This bill passed; and early in July Parliament was prorogued, and the canvass for a new election commenced soon after in earnest. There had been no election so exciting or calling out so much feeling as this since the first after the passage of the previous Reform Bill in 1832. The excitement in some of the cities and larger boroughs culminated in violence and occasionally in bloodshed. Par-

liament was dissolved in October, and writs for the new election issued. The voting took place, with a few exceptions, on the 26th of November. The result was a majority for the Liberals of about 112. It had been customary for the ministry previously in power to retain their position till the assembling of the new Parliament, and thus enable their successors to organize their new Cabinet with less difficulty; but Mr. Disraeli chose to depart from this custom, and tendered his own resignation and that of his associates to her Majesty on the 2d of December, 1868, at the very moment when he knew it would put his successors to the most inconvenience. He accompanied this act by a manifesto which breathed a spirit of defiance.

The Queen, on the receipt of the resignation of the Disraeli ministry, immediately sent for Mr. Gladstone and requested him to organize a new ministry. This in the recess of Parliament was a matter of some difficulty, the more from the fact that the Liberal party was in reality a coalition of several factions differing widely in their views on many of the questions likely to come before them. He was, however, successful, and soon after announced his Cabinet as follows: Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, First Lord of the Treasury; Right Hon. Lord Hatherley, Lord High Chancellor; Right Hon. Earl de Grey and Ripon, Lord President of the Council; Right Hon. Earl of Kimberley, Lord Privy Seal; Right Hon. Henry Austin Bruce, Secretary of State, Home Department; Right Hon. Earl of Clarendon, Secretary of State, Foreign Department; Right Hon. Earl Granville, Secretary of State, Colonial Department; Right Hon. Edward Cardwell, Secretary of State, War Department; his Grace the Duke of Argyll, Secretary of State, Indian Department; Right Hon. Robert Lowe, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Right Hon. H. Childers, First Lord of the Admiralty; Right Hon. John Bright, President of the Board of Trade; Right Hon. Chichester Fortescue, Chief Secretary for Ireland; Right Hon. Marquis of Hartington, Postmaster-General; Right Hon. G. Joachim Goschen, President of the Poor-Law Board. Hon. Austin Henry Layard (the explorer of Nineveh) was appointed Commissioner of Works and Public Buildings, but without a seat in the Cabinet; Sir Robert Collier, Attorney-General; Sir John Duke Coleridge, Solicitor-General; and Earl Spencer, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

The minister from the United States to the court of St. James, Hon. Charles Francis Adams, having continued in that important and responsible position for about seven years, asked to be recalled early in 1868. His request was granted, and Hon. Reverdy Johnson, then United States Senator from Maryland, was nominated and confirmed as his successor. Mr. Johnson, soon after his arrival in England, commenced anew the negotiations which had

been pending for so long a time with the British Secretary of Foreign affairs, Lord Stanley, for the settlement of the Alabama and other claims, held by our Government against Great Britain. He found the British Government far more ready to adjust these claims on liberal terms than they had formerly been: the conviction prevailing that, in the event of a war between Great Britain and any other power, the following of her precedent by the United States would ruin her commerce. Mr. Johnson, however, somewhat injudiciously courted the society of Mr. Laird, the builder of the Alabama and Shenandoah, and of Mr. Roebuck, and other prominent enemies of the United States Government, apparently preferring association with them to the society of those who had been the staunch friends of the United States during the war; and, having thus excited prejudice against himself, he negotiated a treaty which was entirely unsatisfactory to his own Government, and was rejected subsequently by the United States Senate.

The Fenians did not attempt any further demonstrations of importance during the year, and, at the earnest solicitation of our Government, some of those who had been arrested, tried, and convicted of participation in the insurrection, and who had a *quasi* claim on the United States for protection, were respited, their punishment commuted, and in two or three instances they were pardoned.

We subjoin our usual statistics.

I. FINANCES: 1. Revenue and Expenditure.

—The gross revenue for the year ending March 31, 1868, was £69,600,218 4s. 1d. = \$348,001,091. The gross expenditure for the same period was £71,766,241 17s. 7d. = \$358,831,209.50. Of the *revenue*, £22,650,000 = \$113,250,000, was from customs; £20,162,000 = \$100,810,000, from excise duties; £9,541,000 = \$47,705,000, from stamps; £3,509,000 = \$17,545,000, from land and assessed taxes; £6,177,000 = \$30,885,000, from property tax; £4,630,000 = \$23,150,000, from the post-office; £345,000 = \$1,725,000, the net proceeds of the crown lands; and £2,586,218 4s. 1d. = \$12,931,091, from miscellaneous sources.

Of the *Expenditure*, £96,571,750 1s. 9d. = \$192,858,750.44, was for the interest and management of the permanent and floating debts of the Government; £1,893,898 3s. 5d. = \$9,469,490.85, was for the civil list, salaries, pensions, annuities, courts of justice, and miscellaneous charges; £42,770,593 12s. 5d. = \$213,852,968.10, was for supply services, including army, navy, customs and inland revenue, post-office, packet service, the Abyssinian expedition, and miscellaneous civil services. There was also an expenditure of £530,000 = \$2,650,000, for the completion of fortifications on the coast. The estimates of Mr. Hunt, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, for the year ending March 31, 1869, were: *revenue*, £71,350,000 = \$356,750,000; *expenditure*, £70,428,000 = \$352,140,000. This, if realized, would leave

a surplus of \$4,610,000; but the expenses of the Abyssinian War, a part of which would come into this year, would probably create a deficit of about ten millions of dollars. The income tax was raised from 4d. to 6d. per pound in December, 1867, in order to meet this deficiency, and this would give, it was estimated, £2,900,000 = \$14,500,000 additional, which was to be applied to this purpose.

2. National Debt.—The principal of the national debt, funded and unfunded, was on the 31st of March, 1868, £749,101,428 = \$3,745,507,140, and its interest, as already stated, £26,571,750 = \$132,858,750.

II. ARMY AND NAVY: 1. Army.—The army of the United Kingdom, during the year 1868, consisted of 138,691 men, constituted as follows: officers of the general staff, 100; troops of the line, including the life-guards, horse-guards, etc., 6,482 commissioned officers, 12,115 non-commissioned officers, trumpeters, and drummers, and 108,173 rank and file; depots of Indian regiments, 412 commissioned officers, 976 non-commissioned officers, 8,492 rank and file; recruiting and other establishments, 129 commissioned, and 263 non-commissioned officers, and 66 rank and file; training-schools, 32 commissioned, and 248 non-commissioned officers, and 10 rank and file; making a grand total of 7,149 commissioned officers, 13,602 non-commissioned officers, and 115,741 rank and file. Aside from these, the British forces in India comprised 3,592 commissioned and 5,318 non-commissioned officers, and 25,556 rank and file.

Besides these, which are both included under the general head of regular forces, provision is made for four classes of reserve or auxiliary forces, viz.: the *enrolled militia*, numbering 128,971, for whom £986,800 = \$4,934,000, was appropriated; the yeomanry cavalry, of which there were 14,339 non-commissioned officers and men, for whom £88,000 = \$440,000 was voted; the volunteers, numbering 162,681 officers and men, to whom was appropriated £385,100 = \$1,925,500; and fourth, the enrolled pensioners and army reserve force, numbers not given, but receiving £64,600 = \$323,000. The total cost of the British army, including the auxiliary and reserved forces, in the year ending March 31, 1868, was £15,252,200 = \$76,261,000; and the estimate for the year ending March 31, 1869, was £15,455,400 = \$77,277,000. Of this amount £2,124,400 = \$10,622,000, was for non-effective service, pensions, half pay, allowances, superannuation, etc.

2. Navy.—The actual strength of the British navy in February, 1868, consisted of 330 screw-steamers of all sizes, afloat, and 92 building; of 73 paddle-wheel steamers afloat, and 2 building, making a total of 437 steam-vessels afloat and building, and 29 effective sailing-vessels afloat: in all 466. Of these there were at that time in commission including stationary, receiving, surveying, training, and store ships and tenders, 45 sailing and 205 steam-vessels.

Of these, 150, all steamers, were rated as sea-going ships, effective for general service. In this number were included 1 line-of-battle ship, 19 iron-cased ships, 31 frigates and corvettes, and 99 sloops and small vessels. There were in addition to these 10 steamers, guard-ships of the coast guard, and 41 sailing, and 18 steam-tenders and cruisers, belonging to the coast-guard service. The navy employed, in 1868, 36,502 officers and seamen, and 7,403 boys, together with 16,271 marines. There were also 7,700 seamen and boys employed on the coast guard. The appropriation for the naval service in 1868 was £10,826,690 = \$54,133,450, besides £350,600 = \$1,753,000, for conveyance of troops for the army. The armor-clad fleet consists of 37 ships and four floating batteries, a part of them not now in commission. Of these, four only are less than 1,000 tons; 3 ships and 4 floating batteries between 1,000 and 2,000 tons; 3 ships between 2,000 and 3,000 tons; 8 ships between 3,000 and 4,000 tons; 11 ships between 4,000 and 4,500 tons; 2 between 5,000 and 6,000 tons; and 6 of more than 6,000 tons. Of these, 30 were in commission in the summer of 1868. But five of these have their entire armor more than $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches in thickness, four having 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch armor, and one, the *Bellerophon*, a ship of 4,270 tons, having 6-inch plating. Three wooden ships, the *Royal Alfred*, the *Lord Clyde*, and the *Lord Warden*, each of about 4,000 tons, have their general plating of $4\frac{1}{2}$ -inch iron, and the most exposed portions covered with $5\frac{1}{2}$ or 6 inch plates.

III. COMMERCE AND TRADE.—1. *Imports and Exports*.—The latest reports of these are for the fiscal year 1867, closing, we believe, with January 1, 1868. The *imports* of that year were £275,249,853 = \$1,376,249,265, of which £60,783,184 = \$303,915,670, were from the British possessions, and £214,466,719 = \$1,072,333,595, were from foreign countries. The *exports* the same year were £226,057,136 = \$1,130,285,680, of which £181,183,791 = \$905,918,955, were of British produce, and £44,873,165 = \$224,365,825, were of foreign and colonial production. The imports from the United States in the year 1867 were £41,047,949 = \$205,239,745. The exports of home produce of the United Kingdom to the United States were £21,821,786 = \$109,108,930. The entire receipts of raw cotton in the United Kingdom during the year 1867 were 1,262,536,912 lbs., which was 115,000,000 less than in 1866. The value of this cotton was £51,999,537 = \$259,997,685, or about \$104,000,000 less than the preceding year. While very large quantities of cotton goods, manufactured in Great Britain, are consumed at home, the exports of cotton manufactures in 1867 amounted to £70,843,692 = \$354,218,460.

2. *Shipping*.—The number of sailing-vessels employed exclusively in the home trade of the United Kingdom in 1867 was 11,498, measuring 839,523 tons, and employing 38,526 men; there were also in the same trade that year

657 steam-vessels, measuring 154,244 tons, and employing 9,451 men. There were, in the same year, 1,196 sailing-vessels engaged partly in the home and partly in the foreign trade, measuring 199,846 tons, and employing 7,339 men; and 125 steam-vessels, measuring 50,201 tons, and employing 2,249 men. In the foreign trade, the same year, there were 7,467 sailing-vessels, measuring 3,641,662 tons, and employing 107,364 men; and 834 steam-vessels, measuring 608,232 tons, and employing 31,411 men. The total number of vessels in the shipping of the United Kingdom in 1867, both in the home and foreign trade, was 21,777, measuring 5,493,708 tons, and employing 196,340 men. The total tonnage of British and foreign vessels entering and clearing at all the ports of the United Kingdom in the year 1867 was 32,756,112 tons, of which 22,370,070 tons were British, and 10,386,042 foreign.

IV. VITAL STATISTICS.—The net increase of population in England and Wales, over emigration, is about one million in every five years. The number of births in England and Wales in 1867, in a population of 21,429,508, was 767,997; of deaths the same year, 471,102. The proportion of births of male to female children is 104,811 to 100,000; but the equilibrium between the sexes is established about the tenth year, and at adult age there are 100,000 women to 95,008 men. In Scotland the ratio of net increase of population does not exceed 3 per cent. for each five years. The number of births in Scotland in 1867, in a population of 3,170,769, was 114,115; and of deaths 69,024. The population of Ireland decreases at the rate of nearly 5 per cent. in five years, mainly from excessive emigration.

V. PAUPERISM AND CRIME.—In the 655 parishes and poor-law unions of England and Wales there were, in 1868, 185,630 able-bodied paupers, and 849,193 other recipients of state aid, making 1,034,823 paupers, or about 5 per cent. of the population. In 1867 there were committed for trial, charged with criminal offences in England and Wales, 18,971 persons, of whom 14,207 were convicted, and 4,741 acquitted. This was exclusive of the very large number, over 100,000, arrested and tried on summary process in the police courts and other courts of limited jurisdiction.

In Scotland, the number of registered paupers and dependants, exclusive of casual poor, in the 885 parishes, was 76,737 paupers and 44,432 dependants, a total of 121,169, or nearly 4 per cent. of the population. The number of criminal offenders in Scotland (aside from those arrested on summary process) who were committed for trial in 1867, was 3,305, of whom 2,510 were convicted, and 277 acquitted.

In Ireland, pauperism is decreasing, at least in its legalized form, the number being only about one-half what it was in 1853. In 1868 there were reported, on the 1st of January, 56,663 indoor paupers and 15,880 outdoor paupers, a total of 72,925, or about 1.25 per

cent. of the population. In 1867, the number of criminal offenders committed for trial (aside from arrests on summary process) was 4,561, of whom 2,733 were convicted, and 1,803 acquitted.

VI. EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.—The number of schools in *Great Britain*, excluding Ireland, on the 1st of January, 1868, was 14,591; the number of children present at the inspection of the schools by the commissioners was 1,391,100; the average annual attendance was 1,147,463. The number of certificated teachers was 12,837, of which 7,099 were males, and 5,738 females. Of assistant teachers there were 1,179, viz.: males, 529; females, 650—and of pupil-teachers, 11,686; males, 5,374; females, 6,312. There were 37 colleges, or normal schools, for the professional instruction of teachers, the annual expenditure of which was £100,125 = \$500,625. There were also six colleges, or training-schools, affording instruction, separately, to male and female students. In these 43 normal or training colleges there were 14,600 students, while the accommodations were sufficient for 21,400. The average annual salary of a certificated (male) teacher was £89 = \$445; and of an uncertificated one, from £52 to £70 = \$260 to \$350. The salary of a certificated mistress was about £55 = \$275, and of an uncertificated one, from £30 to £33 = \$150 to \$165. Out of every 11 children of the laboring classes attending school, 4 were aided by the Committee of Education, i. e., received assistance from the national fund for education. The appropriation for public education in *Great Britain* for 1868 was £842,500 = \$4,212,500, a little more than one-half the expenditure of the State of New York for the same purpose. The report of the Commissioners of National Education in *Ireland* gives the following particulars concerning the national schools there at the beginning of 1868: The number of schools in operation was 6,520. The total number of children on the rolls of the school-books during the year was 913,198; the average daily attendance, 321,515. The number of teachers in the service of the Board was 8,326, of whom 3,480 were trained; besides these, were 348 work-mistresses and technical teachers. In some parts of Ireland model-schools and school-farms are in active operation. The expenditure by the commissioners for the year was £370,504 = \$1,852,520. The schools are connected with all persuasions, the larger number being Catholics, next Presbyterians, next the Established Church, then other persuasions. 299 teachers had graduated from the training-schools during the year. The appropriation to public education in Ireland for 1868 was £360,195 = \$1,800,975, about three-fourths that of Massachusetts for the same purpose in that year.

GREECE, a kingdom in Europe. King, George I., second son of the King of Denmark, born December 24, 1845; elected "King of the

Hellenes" by the National Assembly of Athens, March 18 (old style 30), 1863. Area, about 19,353 square miles; population (in 1861), 1,348,412; and, according to a census of 1864, about 1,400,000. The budget for 1867 estimates the receipts at 32,472,335 drachmas (one drachma about eighteen cents); the expenditures to 29,520,000 drachmas. The public debt, in July, 1865, was officially estimated at 299,806,192 drachmas.

According to a bill presented to the Legislature in January, 1867, and adopted by it, the strength of the army was, in 1867, to be raised to 31,300 men (14,300 regular, and 17,000 irregular troops). The fleet, at the beginning of 1866, consisted of one frigate (of fifty guns); two corvettes (together of forty-eight guns); six screw steamers (of ten guns each); besides twenty-six vessels of smaller dimensions, and gunboats.

The merchant navy, in 1864,* was composed of 4,528 vessels, together of 280,342 tons.

At the official reception on New-Year's Day (old style), the King, in reply to the address of the president of the ministry, thus expressed himself with regard to the refugees from Crete, residing in Greece:

My heart and that of the Queen bleed at seeing so many thousand Christians obliged to find refuge on the maternal soil of Greece. Humanity and the indissoluble laws of fraternity impose upon us a duty to give what succor we can under so great a calamity. I hope and trust that the new year will be a happier one than the last.

On February 6th a new ministry was formed, with Bulgaris as president. A programme published by the ministry thus defined the policy to be pursued in the Eastern question:

We fully understand the serious position of our internal affairs, and the necessity dictated by pure patriotism that our dear country should make earnest preparations for the future marked out for it by Providence. We consider ostentatious demonstrations too burdensome for the country, and believe that preparations for the future ought to advance in proportion to the well-being of the present. Moved by the sufferings of a kindred people, which have enlisted the sympathies of the whole of Christendom, we will grant it all the assistance in our power.

On February 8th a royal decree was issued dissolving the Greek Chamber. New elections began on the 3d of April, and resulted in a large majority for the ministry. The principal leaders of the opposition were not reelected. The new Chamber was opened by the King on 7th of May, who delivered a speech from the throne. The King announced that, in order to consolidate the throne, he had married a princess of the orthodox religion. His object in dissolving the last Chamber had been to ascertain the opinion of the nation relative to the constitutional distribution of power. The King in his speech declared further that it was a rational duty to aid in alleviating the sufferings of a kindred people, and also drew attention

* See the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA, for 1867, for further information on the public debt, and the latest statistics of the movement of shipping.

to the inequality between the revenue and expenditure.

Soon after the opening of the Parliament, four deputies appeared from Crete, asking for admission on the ground that an assembly of delegates in Crete had declared in favor of annexation to the United States. The people of Greece showed a great deal of sympathy with this demand, but the ambassadors of the great powers of Europe strongly protested against their admission, and the Turkish ambassador declared that, in case of their admission, he would at once demand his passports. The Government of Greece yielded to this pressure, and opposed their admission; and the Chamber, by a large majority, pronounced the ministerial declarations satisfactory.

On the 27th of June the Metropolitan of Athens called on Mr. Tuckerman, the minister of the United States in Greece, to thank him, in the name of the Greek clergy and nation, for the sympathy shown in the United States with the cause of Crete. The Metropolitan said: "As one of the men of our grand struggle commencing in 1821, and which continues still, and as chief of the Hellenic clergy, I desire to express to you, the representative of the great American nation, the gratitude of my old companions in arms belonging to the orthodox clergy, and that of the whole Greek nation, for the great favors of every kind which the American nation, in the old struggle as in the new one in Crete, has conferred, and yet confers, upon Eastern Christians who fight for religion, country, and liberty. I pray your Excellency to convey the expressions of our profound gratitude to the glorious American nation, and, if it be possible, to every American citizen, and say to them that so long as there shall be Greeks in the world, the feeling of Hellenic gratitude toward the glorious American nation will be transmitted from generation to generation, and will be traced in indelible characters on the hearts of Greeks. The Greek clergy will ever pray the Eternal to grant peace and prosperity to the world, but especially to the nations so closely united by benefits and by gratitude. We could hardly stand in our great struggle without the favors of America; but for American kindness many Cretan widows and orphans must have perished of hunger and cold. God bless the Americans, the benefactors of the Christians of the East!"

The sympathy of Greece with Crete, and the aid which Grecian steamers, notwithstanding the watchfulness of the Turkish fleet, succeeded in rendering to the Cretans, by supplying them with volunteers and war materials, kept up a constant irritation between the Governments of Turkey and Greece. On the 11th of December (29th of November, old style) the Turkish ambassador, in the name of his Government, presented an ultimatum (*see* TURKEY). The Greek Minister of Foreign Affairs, P. Delyanni, replied on the 3d of December (15th,

old style). The following extracts give the Greek answer to the five points contained in the Turkish ultimatum:

The five demands, the acceptance of which the Sublime Porte considers as the terms of the continuation of peace with Greece, are—first, to disband immediately the bands of volunteers lately organized in different parts of the kingdom, and to prevent the formation of other similar bodies in future; secondly, the disarmament of the blockade-runners Erosis, Crete, and Panhellenion, or to prohibit their entrance into Greek ports; thirdly, liberty to the Cretan refugees to return to their country, and also to give them efficacious aid and protection; fourthly, the punishment according to law of those who were guilty of offence against the Ottoman military agents, with indemnification to the victims; fifthly, an engagement that Greece in future will follow a conduct according to the existing treaties and international rights.

Respecting the first and second, I regret, Monsieur le Ministre, that I have no other arguments than those of my last letter to convince you that the laws of the country will not permit the King's Government to infringe the liberties of its subjects in the interest of a foreign power. Greece cannot do more for Turkey than for any other power. During the wars that have had place in our time in Europe and America, Greek volunteers entered into the services of the various combatants, but no such demand was addressed to us, and that because those volunteers acted for themselves, on their own responsibility, and could not attach any responsibility to the King's Government. We have not done to you in this any thing new. I have told you repeatedly that during the long space of time occupied by the Cretan revolution several bands of volunteers have gone to Crete.

The Sublime Porte understood that the King's Government was powerless before the laws of this country against such arguments, and therefore has not persisted in her demands. On the other hand, volunteers have gone to Crete not only from Greece. With the Greeks went English, French, Italians, Hungarians, Americans, and Montenegrins.

The Erosis, the Crete, and the Panhellenion are not blockade-runners armed in our ports, they are steamers belonging to the Hellenic Steam Navigation Company, which ply to Candia, taking provisions to the insurgents, and at the same time are employed on other duties. If these steamers—one of which is employed on a regular line round the kingdom—are captured while running the blockade, resisting the Ottoman cruisers, or found carrying a cargo which is considered as contraband of war, she may be seized as a lawful prize, and treated according to the laws of maritime right.

No law of this kingdom prevents its subjects furnishing a blockaded port with such cargoes, because they take on themselves all the consequences of their act.

I am ignorant if the above steamers are armed, but, if by chance they are, we must not forget that all steamers, even large sailing-vessels, ordinarily carry a few guns, to defend themselves in case of need.

Respecting your third request, it is sufficient to remind you of my observations contained in my last letter on the number of the Cretan refugees sent by the Ottoman embassy back to Crete, and the protection furnished to them by our authorities. If it is necessary to bring forward another proof of the good disposition of the King's Government on this subject, I would add that, even after the said letter, and although it was reported everywhere that the Sublime Porte was determined to interrupt its relations with Greece, more than two hundred Cretans were allowed to embark at the Piræus for Crete without any molestation.

Referring to your fourth request, the King's Government learns with surprise that crimes were com-

mitted in the kingdom against Ottoman subjects, and that such crimes were left unpunished.

We repudiate with all our strength such an accusation. If you mean an Albanian soldier who was killed in a dispute by another Albanian, while passing through Syra last year, I think this is not a cause that will justify that clause of the *ultimatum*.

You know perfectly well that the authorities of Syra then took, without loss of time, the necessary steps to arrest the culprit, but that he escaped to Crete immediately after committing the crime. We gave you then every information regarding both this affair and the conduct of the authorities, and there is nothing to indicate, in the documents that we then exchanged, that the authorities neglected their duty.

Excepting this crime, which was committed by one Turkish subject against another, the subjects of the Sublime Porte enjoy on the Hellenic soil, as well as all other foreigners, the most perfect security. This pretext is as surprising as the other—namely, certain words that I spoke in the Chamber respecting the steamer Crete.

I am ignorant of what the former ministers said, and what opinion must be given on their spoken words. All I know is, that the present Government, desiring to preserve amicable relations with the Sublime Porte, has given proof of its good disposition. You remember how firmly we opposed the proposition to receive Cretan deputies in the Chamber. You remember particularly what explanations I gave you of the speech I made in the House. I explained to you in conversation that I had not the slightest hostile feeling against the Sublime Porte; that they were the expressions of our opinions on the probable solution of the question, and that the Hellenic Government did not intend to detach Crete by force from the Ottoman empire, as his Excellency Serret-Pacha complained in one of his dispatches which you read to me.

Lastly, respecting your fifth demand, viz., the engagement which the King's Government must give to follow in future a conduct in accordance with the treaties and the right of nations, I confess, Monsieur le Ministre, that I do not understand the meaning of those words.

I wish to know what treaty Greece has violated? I do not speak any longer of the obligations of international rights, because I have already sufficiently proved to you that the Royal Government has not violated any of them. Greece, on the contrary, above all others, has to complain of the non-performance of the treaties.

If we except the various difficulties which our subjects ordinarily meet in the conduct of their affairs in the Ottoman empire, if we except the violence which many of them are found to submit to, there were made during the last ten years between us two treaties for the suppression of the brigandage which desolates our provinces near our common frontier, which cost us extraordinary expense, and, notwithstanding, the Sublime Porte has not yet decided on executing either of the two treaties, in spite of all the strong remonstrances of the King's Government. The greatest part of the correspondence of the foreign office with the imperial legation treats of nothing else but the assistance given by the irregulars of the Ottoman army, who keep the frontiers, to the brigands, of the crimes committed in our provinces by bands crossing the common frontier, and of the prevention of such a state of affairs by the application of the treaties which imposed on the Ottoman empire the duty of employing only regular troops, instead of the irregular Albanians.

The King's representative at Constantinople several times invited the attention of the Sublime Porte to this, but his observations had no better success.

From this simple example it is clear that, if we wished to accumulate pretexts against the Government of the Sublime Porte to justify a rupture, we

should have such in reality. But we always reflected that the various interests of both countries imposed on us the duty of preserving amicable and harmonious relations with our neighbor.

Some of your demands, as the return of the refugees, and the protection of the Ottoman subjects in Greece, and the preservation of the neutrality of the King's Government in the struggle of the Cretans, were never the subjects of discussion or hesitation for the Royal Government.

The rest are based only on indefinite and erroneous suppositions, which become by themselves unacceptable.

GREEK CHURCH,* the largest of the Eastern Churches. Of the population of 81,500,000 which is supposed to be connected with the Eastern Churches, fully 74,000,000 belong to the Greek Church (*see* EASTERN CHURCHES).

The invitation from the Pope to the Oriental bishops to take part in the coming Ecumenical Council, met with a decided refusal on the part of the representative of the Greek Church. The Patriarch of Constantinople received the Pope's missive, engrossed on a sheet of gilt paper, from an embassy consisting of four priests. The Patriarch met the messengers with friendly cordiality, and was addressed by one of them in the following terms:

In the absence of Monsignor Brunoni (the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Constantinople), we come to invite your Holiness to the Ecumenical Council appointed to be held in Rome, on the 8th of December of next year, and with reference to this object we have to request you will be pleased to accept this written invitation of which we are the bearers.

The Patriarch, beckoning to them to be seated and to deposit the letters on the table, addressed them as follows:

If the *Diario* of Rome, and other journals which draw their intelligence from it, had not already published the Encyclical Invitation of His Holiness to the Ecumenical Council in Rome, to which you refer, and were we, in consequence, unacquainted with the scope and the contents of the document, and the principles set forth by His Holiness, with the greatest pleasure would we have received a communication addressed to us by the Patriarch of Old Rome, in the expectation of hearing something new. Since, however, the Encyclical published by the journals has explained His Holiness's tenets—tenets wholly at variance with those of the Orthodox Eastern Church—on this ground, with sorrow, but in all sincerity, we are compelled to declare to your Reverence that we neither can accept any such invitation, nor this missive of His Holiness, in which are reiterated the same unvarying principles—principles directly hostile to the spirit of the Gospel, as also to the doctrine of the Ecumenical Synods and of the holy fathers.

His Holiness, by a similar proceeding in the year 1848, provoked a reply from the Orthodox Eastern Church in the form of an Encyclical, which distinctly pointed out the antagonism which exists between the tenets of Rome and those handed down from the ancient Fathers and the Apostles, and which was not only not satisfactory, but a cause of pain to His Holiness. And how greatly His Holiness was thereby grieved manifestly appears from his rejoinder.

And since His Holiness does not appear to have receded from the principles then put forward—neither have we, through God's grace, receded from ours. Wherefore we neither find pleasure in becoming the

* *See* ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA, for 1867, for the names of the groups into which the Greek Church is divided, and for detailed statistics.

instruments of causing fresh sorrows to him uselessly; nor can we bring ourselves to tear open old wounds, or to resuscitate old and extinct animosities by discussions and "strifes of words" which terminate, for the greater part, in alienation and hatred; whereas, in these days, if ever, both parties need to exercise evangelical and mutual charity, and sympathy, in view of the many and multiform dangers and trials which beset the Church of Christ. A combined and harmonious synodical action is not possible, where there is no standing-ground in a community of principles.

On the other hand, we are of opinion that the most satisfactory and dispassionate solution of questions such as those at issue is that which is supplied by history. That is to say, inasmuch as a Church existed ten centuries ago, professing the same doctrines—both in the East and West—in the elder and new Rome, let us both revert to this Church, and let us see which of us two have made additions or retrenchments. Let additions be suppressed, if any such they are, and wherever they exist. Let all doctrines that have been suppressed be revived, if any such there are, and wherever they are; then shall we, one and all, find ourselves, insensibly as it were, marching onward in the same path of Catholic Orthodoxy, from which the Rome of later ages, deviating more and more widely, appears to find a pleasure in enlarging the gap by an ever-varying series of new dogmas and enactments, abhorrent to Divine tradition.

A conversation ensued between the delegates of the Pope and the Patriarch, on the nature and power of Œcumenical Councils, in the course of which the Patriarch thus expressed his views with regard to the authorities of councils and of the Pope:

According to us, an Œcumenical Synod, the Universal Church, genuine Catholicity, are, and are defined to be, that holy and undefiled body in which, independently of numerical completeness, is embraced and comprehended the unadulterated doctrine of the Apostles and the creed of every particular church firmly established, from the formation of such church up to the close of the first eight centuries; during which period, the fathers, both of the East and West, and the seven solely Œcumenical, most holy, and heaven-inspired Councils, echo the one uniform, heavenly voice of the Gospel. Those same Councils, and those same venerable Fathers whose records and writings are known and read of all men, who have become the sure and unerring guide of every Christian, of every Bishop of the West thirsting for and searching after Evangelical Truth, these constitute the supreme judicature of Christian verity. These are the safe way on which we may meet one another in the holy embrace of doctrinal union. But every one straying from this beaten track must be regarded by us as a wanderer from the right path, and unqualified for rallying round him the members of the Orthodox Church.

But if, perchance, certain among the Western bishops, entertaining doubts respecting any of the articles of their faith, should desire to assemble themselves together, let them so assemble, and let them examine into such matters at any time, if they are so minded. As for us, we are harassed by no doubts respecting the unchangeable doctrines according to godliness handed down to us by our forefathers.

And, moreover, O venerable abbés! adverting to the subject of Œcumenical Councils, it does not, to a certainty, escape your memory that Œcumenical Councils have been wont to be assembled with observances very different from those now promulgated by His Holiness.

If the most holy Pope of Rome had acknowledged the apostolical equality of dignity and brotherhood, it behoved him as an equal in dignity among equals,

and first in the order of his See—according to canonical right—to address a separate letter to each of the Patriarchs of the East and their respective Synods: not that he should dictate, through the medium of encyclicals and of the public press, as lord and master of all; but as a brother—as an equal in rank and dignity—to consult his brethren whether or not they approved of the convocation of a Council, and the *where* and the *how* and with *what* objects.

Seeing that these things are so, either do you recur to the lessons to be drawn from history and the Œcumenical Councils, that, according to historical precedents, the true and divinely-cemented union, longed for by all, may be accomplished; or, once more, we must seek consolation in the exercise of our unceasing prayers and supplications for the peace of the whole world, the prosperity of the Holy Churches of God, and for the union of the whole body.

Under such circumstances, then, we are grieved to have to declare to you that we regard the invitation as superfluous and fruitless, as well as the missive by which it is conveyed, of which you are the bearers.

The conversation having been brought to a close, the Patriarch motioned to his Vicar-General to take up the letter and deliver it to those who brought it, who, having been treated with every hospitable and friendly attention, took their departure.

The Holy Synod of St. Petersburg also received a formal invitation from the Pope, and prepared a reply declining the invitation.

A letter from Moscow to the London *Church News* states that the pastoral letters of the Pan-Anglican Synod held in 1867 were received with profound respect and unfeigned admiration by several prelates of the Russian Church. It adds: "The Reunion School at Moscow, well represented both at the University and Theological Seminary, is full of hope as regards the preparation of a common basis for peace negotiations."

At the meeting of the English *Eastern Church Association*, held at London in 1868, the Archpriest Popoff mentioned that he had been authorized by the Holy Governing Synod to say mass occasionally in English, in order to familiarize Englishmen with the Eastern rite.

In Russia, the "Holy Synod" is speeding its new authorized Russian version of the Bible. Already the section embracing the Old Testament is nearly finished, and, simultaneously with this, a popular edition of the same version, accompanied with brief notes and explanations, is preparing. It was reported that several persons, male and female, as voluntary agents, were distributing the Bible from house to house in Russia under encouraging circumstances. A religious library recently established had been furnished with three thousand copies by order of the bishop, and the priests of one town were proposing to hire a colporteur to place a copy in every house.

The Greek Church of Russia, in 1868, lost one of its most distinguished bishops, by the death of Archbishop Philarete of Moscow. On his successor, a St. Petersburg paper gives the following information:

The official appointment of Mgr. Innocent, Archbishop of Kamchatka, to the dignity of Primate of Moscow, in the room of the late venerable Philarete, is announced. The new archbishop, who was but a simple priest thirty-five years ago, had devoted himself to the holy mission of converting to Christianity the idolatrous population of that Asiatic country, and by his untiring zeal and eloquent language obtained results so important that in a few years there arose a necessity to raise Kamchatka into a new diocese. The worthy missionary, who was then named Jean Veniaminof, was married, and the father of several children. He repaired to Moscow to lay before Mgr. Philarete the requirements of the new see. During his stay in that city he received the news of the unexpected death of his wife, whom he had left in good health. Having thus become a widower, he was in the condition required for the episcopacy, and Mgr. Philarete did not hesitate to confer on him the dignity to which, in no circumstances, would his modesty have allowed him to pretend. Madame Potemkin, who is always ready when there is a work of charity to perform, undertook to bring up the missionary's daughters, educate them, and marry them honorably. The simple priest then became a bishop, under the title of Innocent, and returned to Kamchatka, where he exercised his apostolic zeal for thirty years. For some years past he had become archbishop, and has now been called to the highest functions in the ecclesiastical hierarchy.

In Turkey, the Greek Churches of Bulgaria continued their struggle for the organization of a National Bulgarian Church, and the Turkish Government encouraged the hope that their demands would be complied with in the course of the year 1869.

In October, the Patriarch of Constantinople addressed a letter to the Minister of Foreign Affairs on the subject of the Roumanian convents, in which, after giving an historical sketch of the question, he enters an energetical protest against the sale of the property, which had already begun. A European commission on this subject, which had held, during ten months, sessions in Constantinople, had ceased its labors when Prince Cousa was dethroned.

The Patriarch demanded that, as a large portion of the property had passed into other hands, proper measures be adopted to protect the interests of the Church.

In Prussia, a number of Greek dissenters, living in the district of Gumbinnen, had in 1867 joined the "Orthodox Union Church," which is in communion with the state Church of Russia. Some of them emigrated to Russian Poland, where the Government supplied them with land. The chief instrument in bringing about this change of creed was a travelling preacher, named Paul the Prussian. A theological paper edited by Paul, and called *The Truth*, which had heretofore been printed at Johannesburg in Prussia, and had been forbidden in Russia, was, in 1868, with the permission of the Russian Government, transferred to Pskof, in Russia, which is the centre of a large population of Greek schismatics. It is now edited by Golubof, an adherent of Paul.

GREENE, ALBERT GORTON, a jurist, poet, and bibliophile of Rhode Island, born in Providence, R. I., February 10, 1802; died in Cleveland, Ohio, January 3, 1868. He was a child of great intellectual promise, and, after enjoying the best school advantages of his native city, graduated from Brown University in the class of 1820, at the age of eighteen years. While in college, and but sixteen years of age, he wrote a ballad which, from its pathos, quaintness, and genuine humor, has become a classic. This ballad was the universally famous "Old Grimes is dead, that good old man." Soon after leaving college, he entered the office of the late John Whipple, and was admitted to the Providence bar in 1823. In June, 1832, he was chosen clerk of the Common Council of the city, and held that office for thirty-five years. He was also chosen at the same time clerk of the Municipal Court (the Probate Court of Providence) and retained that position till 1857, when he resigned, and the next year was chosen judge of the same court, and continued to preside over it till March, 1867, when in consequence of failing health he resigned. He was remarkable for the clearness of his legal perceptions, and his ability to put his ideas on these subjects into the most practical and perfect language. The school system of Providence, and the law on which it was based, both as nearly perfect in their way as any in the country, were drawn up by him without consulting any precedents or analogies. But, while he was an able and strictly upright judge, his reputation must rest largely upon his literary character. His extreme modesty and reticence led him to be more chary of the publication of his poems than could have been desired. Those which saw the light were marked by a delicacy of wit, a refinement of taste, a completeness of finish, and a thorough mastery of language, which challenged admiration. "The Baron's Last Banquet" has been pronounced by able critics one of the finest poems in the English language. "To the Weathercock on our Steeple" is replete with grace and wit; and "The Militia Training" is a curiosity in literature and artistic marshalling of provincialisms. In 1833, Mr. Greene commenced the publication and editorship of the *Literary Journal*, a most admirable newspaper, which, though continued but for a year, has ever since formed one of the literary traditions of Providence. He was very fond of historical studies, and had been President of the Rhode Island Historical Society since 1854. He was an ardent lover of books, and had accumulated one of the largest private libraries in the country, numbering over 20,000 volumes. This library was very complete in many departments, especially in its collection of American poets, and of the old English poets and dramatists. His collection of pamphlets was very large, and many of them were of extreme rarity and value.

H

HALL, JAMES, an American lawyer, editor, author, and banker, born in Philadelphia, August 19, 1793; died at his residence near Loveland, one of the suburbs of Cincinnati, July 5, 1868. He was a soldier in the War of 1812, and participated in the battle of Lundy's Lane and in the siege of Fort Erie. Subsequently he joined the navy, accompanied Decatur's squadron against the Algerines, and enjoyed a cruise in the Mediterranean. In 1815 his vessel returned to the United States, and he was stationed at Newport, R. I. In 1818 he resigned his position and entered upon the study of law at Pittsburgh. In 1820 Mr. Hall removed to Shawneetown, Ill., and began the practice of his profession. He soon thereafter began the series of "Letters from the West," which were published in *The Portfolio* at Philadelphia, at that time under the editorial charge of his brother, Harrison Hall. These letters, without his knowledge, were collected and published in England. About the same time he became the editor of the *Illinois Gazette*. He was appointed circuit attorney for ten counties, and filled this office four years, when he was chosen judge of the same circuit. He continued these duties four years, when his office was abolished by a change in the judiciary system of the State. Subsequently he held for four years the office of State Treasurer of Illinois. During this period he continued his literary labors, editing the *Illinois Intelligencer*, writing letters to *The Portfolio*, and poems and sketches for Flint's *Western Review*, at Cincinnati, over the signature of Orlando. In 1829, he compiled "The Western Souvenir," a Christmas and New-Year's Gift, the first annual of the West. This was a neatly-printed 18mo volume, containing three hundred and twenty-four pages. The *Illinois Magazine* was started in Vandalia, in December, 1830. It was a monthly octavo of forty-eight pages, and was published two years. Among its contributors were the Rev. James H. Perkins and Salmon P. Chase, but the editor was the chief writer. In 1833 Judge Hall removed to Cincinnati. The *Illinois Magazine* was discontinued, and the *Western Monthly* established. This had years of prosperity. It was conducted by the Judge until 1837, when he was succeeded by James Rees Fry. In 1836 Judge Hall was elected cashier of the Commercial Bank of Cincinnati, and from this time forward he became closely identified with the business and financial interests of that city. In 1853 he was chosen president of the bank, a position which he held until the institution was converted into the Commercial National Bank, in 1865. But while Judge Hall was a successful banker, it was rather in the literary field that he won his distinction. His labors in this field were com-

prised in sixteen volumes: "Legends of the West," 1832; "The Soldier's Bride, and other Tales," 1832; "The Harpies' Head, a Legend of Kentucky," 1833; "Sketches of the West," two volumes, 1835; "Tales of the Border," 1835; "Statistics of the West," 1836; "Notes on the Western States," 1838; "Life of General Harrison," 1836; "History of the Indian Tribes," three volumes, 1838; "The Wilderness and the War-Path," 1845; "Anniversary Address before the Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati," 1846; "Life of Thomas Posey, Governor of Indiana;" and "Romance of Western History," 1857.

HALL, HON. WILLIS, an eminent lawyer and politician of New York, born in Granville, N. Y., April 1, 1801; died in New York City of congestion of the brain, induced by the heat, July 14, 1868. He was a graduate of Yale College in the class of 1824. He studied law at New York City and Litchfield, Conn.; was admitted to the bar in 1827, and practised in Mobile four and a half years. In 1831 he returned to New York, and continued in practice until 1838. In 1837 he was made a member of the Assembly; in 1838 he was made Attorney-General of the State by the Legislature, and moved to Albany, filling this office for one year, the period of the ascendancy of the Whig party. He was also for a time a lecturer in the Law School at Saratoga. In 1842 he was again elected to the Assembly, but the next year had an attack of paralysis, from which he never fully recovered. After foreign travel, he resumed practice in New York. In 1848 he was one of the few who opposed the nomination of General Taylor as the Whig candidate for the presidency, and endeavored to bring forward the name of Henry Clay. After the failure of the effort, Mr. Hall supported Van Buren and Adams, and this concluded his connection with political affairs. Retiring from professional and political life, he devoted his latter years to his personal and domestic affairs. He was very courteous in his manners and made many warm friends.

HALPINE, Brevet Major-General CHARLES G., a poet, scholar, editor, author, soldier, and politician, born at Oldeastle, County of Meath, Ireland, November, 1829; died in New York City August 3, 1868. He was of an old and excellent family, his ancestors having resided for many generations in the County of Louth. His father, Rev. Nicholas Halpine, was a clergyman of the Irish Established Church, and distinguished both as a scholar and writer, and from 1840 till his death was editor of the Dublin *Evening Mail*, the leading paper of that city in the Protestant interest. His son Charles was carefully trained by his father, entered Trinity College, Dublin, at the earliest age at

which he could be admitted, and graduated with all the honors of his class, we believe, in 1846. He at first attempted the study of medicine, but, disliking it, turned his attention to the law, meantime writing for the press. His father's death, which occurred without premonition, left the family dependent, and Charles did not add greatly to their immediate resources by marrying at the age of nineteen a young lady without fortune, but one who proved in all their subsequent life a true helpmeet. The young scholar found employment in connection with the Irish press, and his versatile talents were beginning to win him some reputation in England, when in 1852 he determined to emigrate to America. He landed in New York in the summer of 1852, nearly twenty-three years of age, with a wife and one child, and with hardly an acquaintance on this side of the Atlantic. He soon found his way to the *N. Y. Herald*, for which he continued to be for many years a contributor, and in a few months had a connection with at least half a dozen daily and weekly periodicals. As a translator of the Continental languages he was employed by one paper, while for another he discussed in a masterly manner leading general and local political questions of the day, and at the same time he would prepare a severe criticism on some professional subject for a monthly, and then turn his attention to a pathetic poem or rollicking song for one weekly, while for another he would illustrate its columns with a stirring story founded on some legend or historical statement.

In 1856 he removed to Boston, where he became assistant editor to the *Post*. His pen was at once felt as a humorous and descriptive one. His relations with the *Post* were of the most pleasant character. After a time, in connection with B. P. Shillaber ("Mrs. Partington") and Dr. Shepley, he started a humorous paper, *The Carpet Bag*, which was a success in every way except financially. Disgusted that so meritorious a periodical was not better appreciated, Halpine returned to New York, and, keeping up his relations with the Boston *Post*, wrote also for the New York *Herald*, and was for a time associate editor of the *Times*. In 1857 he became the principal editor and part proprietor of the *Leader*, which rapidly increased in circulation under his management. He had written previously the celebrated Nicaragua correspondence of the *Times* at the time of Walker's expedition, and had been its Washington correspondent. For the *Tribune* he had written considerable poetry, among other pieces the famous one "Tear down the flaunting lie," which, since his death, has been claimed by another, who would hardly have ventured upon such a step during his life. At this time also he published a volume entitled "Poems by the Letter II." In April, 1861, at the first call of the President for troops, Mr. Halpine enlisted in the Sixty-ninth regiment N. Y. S. M., was promoted

to a first lieutenantancy, and served faithfully during the three months which followed. When the regiment was ordered to return, Lieutenant Halpine was transferred to General Hunter's staff as assistant adjutant-general, with staff-rank of major, and soon after accompanied the general to Missouri to relieve Fremont. In his new position, Major Halpine speedily made himself thoroughly familiar with all the duties pertaining to it, and received the commendation of officers who had graduated at West Point as one of the best executive officers of his grade in the army. When General Hunter was sent to Hilton Head to succeed the lamented Mitchel, Halpine accompanied him again as assistant adjutant-general. While here he published his first war-songs under the *nom de plume* of "Private Miles O'Reilly," of the Forty-seventh New York. These songs were admirable in their way, and some became great favorites with the army. One of the best of the "Miles O'Reilly" papers, written, we believe, in the autumn of 1863, was a humorous report of a dinner supposed to have been given to Private Miles O'Reilly at Delmonico's, in which the gallant private, somewhat enlivened by the punch, gives an account alternately in prose and verse of his visit to Washington, his interview with the President and Cabinet, and their and his opinions of matters at home and abroad. So particular and graphic was this, that many supposed it was a description of a real occurrence. He was subsequently for a time assistant adjutant-general on General Halleck's staff, with the rank of colonel, and accompanied his old commander, General Hunter, in his expedition to the Shenandoah Valley in the spring of 1864. This expedition was not successful, and Halpine returned to Washington, where he was made brigadier-general of volunteers and major in the regular army, but, wearying of inactivity, he resigned both commissions, and, greatly to the regret of the War Department, which complimented him with the brevet rank of major-general of volunteers, he left the service and returned to New York. Here he soon became editor of *The Citizen*, at first under the Citizens' Association, and in June, 1866, he became its proprietor. He supported Mr. Lincoln's reelection in the autumn of 1864, and during that year two volumes, one of his humorous writings under the name of Miles O'Reilly, and the other of some of his war-songs and humorous verses, were published. In the autumn of 1865 he was elected, by a coalition of Republicans and the Democratic Union, Register of the County of New York. He was constantly engaged, however, in writing for the press, and his overtasked brain and his convivial habits probably induced the neuralgic affection, to overcome which, he inadvertently took too large a dose of chloroform, which caused his death.

HAMBURG, a free city of the North-German Confederation. Area, 156 square miles;

population in 1867, 305,196. The "budget" for 1868 estimates the receipts at 11,999,450 marks current, and the expenditures at 13,574,450 marks current. The public debt, on December 31, 1866, amounted to 64,037,746 marks banco (1 mark banco equal to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents; 1 mark current equal to 27 $\frac{3}{4}$ cents). Total imports by sea, 387,871,600; total imports by land and river (Elbe), 391,216 410; total imports by land and sea in 1866, 779,088,010, against 771,668,880 in 1865. The exports of Hamburg cannot be ascertained, as, since 1857, no statement of exports has been made. The movement of transmarine shipping, in 1867, was as follows: entered, 5,055 vessels, together of 954,055 lasts; cleared 5,071 vessels, together of 956,375 lasts (1 last 4,000 pounds). The merchant navy consisted, at the end of the year 1867, of 487 sailing-vessels, together of 122,104 lasts. The contingent furnished by Hamburg to the North-German army consists of 2,163 men. According to a military convention concluded with Prussia on July 23, 1867, the troops of Hamburg were discharged on October 1, 1867, and Hamburg was occupied by a Prussian garrison, which all those liable to military service will join.

The statistics of emigration from the port of Hamburg, from 1846 to 1867, are as follows:

YEARS.	Total of Emigrants.	Direct from Hamburg.	Vessels.
1867.....	42,889	38,214	93
1866.....	44,780	39,040	97
1861-'66 ann'l average.	25,419	22,302	82
1856-'60 "	21,405	19,934	100
1851-'55 "	28,087	20,261	135
1846-'50 "	6,424	6,424	57

HAWKS, Rt. Rev. CICERO STANLEY, D. D., LL. D., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church for the diocese of Missouri, born in Newbern, North Carolina, May 26, 1812; died in St. Louis, Mo., April 19, 1868. Dr. Hawks was of British ancestry, his father being an Englishman, and his mother a native of Ireland. He was the youngest of nine children, and was brought up and educated by his brother, the late Rev. Francis L. Hawks, D. D., LL. D. He was ordained a priest and called to the rectorship of Trinity Church, Buffalo, in 1836, and remained there till 1843, when he accepted a call to Christ Church, St. Louis, and in 1844 was elected and consecrated bishop of the diocese. This position he filled with signal ability and devotion for twenty-four years, admired for his energy, his devotion, and his strong sympathies, and honored and esteemed for his courage, his humanity, and his social virtues. In 1849, when the cholera made such fearful ravages in St. Louis, the bishop was untiring in his devotion to the suffering, regardless of personal sacrifice and exposure, and attended to the physical as well as spiritual wants of the victims of the disease. As a token of their appreciation of his great services at this time, Christ Church presented him with a purse of \$3,000, and citizens of St. Louis gave him the

estate in Paul Street in which he subsequently resided. Soon after his return from the Pan-Anglican synod, he had a paralytic attack, and had been for a year past conscious of his approaching decease.

HAYTI, a republic in the West Indies, constituting the French-speaking portion of the Island of San Domingo. Area, 10,205 square miles; population, 572,000. The capital, Port-au-Prince, has 21,000 inhabitants. The President of the Republic, Silvain Salnave, was elected on June 16, 1867, for the term of four years. The public revenues in 1864 amounted to 41,032,302 Haytien dollars, and the expenditures to 34,977,687 Haytien dollars; surplus of receipts, 6,054,615 Haytien dollars (10.33 Haytien dollars paper money were, in 1863, equal to one dollar in gold).

Public debt in 1864, 9,847,233 piastres fortes (1 piastre forte, in 1863, equal to 12.25 Haytien [paper] dollars). A detailed report on the finances of Hayti was presented to President Salnave, in October, by Mr. Tate, the new Minister of Finance. The chief measures which the new minister resorted to, to relieve the embarrassed condition of the finances, were a forced loan of \$70,000, and the establishment of a complete monopoly of coffee. They enabled him to remit \$20,000 (gold) to the Haytien minister at Paris, to relieve the embarrassments in which that functionary was placed for want of means to pay the accruing interest on the French debt. He also paid \$20,000 for the Haytien war-vessel, *Trait d'Union*, and managed to liquidate several heavy overdue demands for munitions of war supplied to the Haytien Government by mercantile houses at Port-au-Prince, besides meeting the current expenses of the military and naval service.

The monopoly of coffee was declared to be a temporary measure, rendered necessary by the urgent wants of the Treasury to meet the expenses of the war. According to the regulations for the purchase of coffee exclusively by the Government, all coffee brought into the towns was to be deposited at a place selected by the authorities, and was to be carefully weighed and paid for according to quality, the scale of prices to be fixed on Monday of every week by the Chamber of Commerce.

The civil war which was raging in Hayti at the close of the year 1867 continued throughout the year without a day's interruption. The details of this conflict present no historical interest. The two principal parties waging war against each other are known by the titles of "Lizards" and "Cacos." The first support Salnave, while the second bitterly oppose him. These names, according to the correspondent to a New York paper, originated during the carnival a few years back, when politics found vent in songs to the beat of the drum. The workmen were compared in one of the songs to lizards, which may climb up to any position, while the higher-class party (chiefly

peasants, land proprietors, etc.) found vent for the declaration of their sentiments in the same humorous way, styling themselves "Cacos," after a black parrot that feeds upon lizards. (A different account of the name and the character of the "Cacos" is given below in the biographical sketch of Salmave.) The "Piquets," who are also frequently mentioned in the accounts of the civil war, as firm supporters of Salmave, are said to be the semi-savages of the woods of the interior.

In July, President Salmave issued a proclamation to the Haytiens, reviewing and defending his course of action in the past. As to the charge that he had made himself dictator, he says that, although he had been offered that power by the army as necessary to enable him successfully to grapple with the Cacos insurrection, he had declined the title, and had continued, as much as the existing state of war would permit, to abide by the Constitution. With regard to the attempts of what he calls "the pretentious and aristocratic faction" to overthrow the Government in the name of the Constitution, the address says: "Do they forget that I am constitutional President? Are they ignorant that I cannot myself overlook, violate, or suspend this fundamental act without breaking my oath and committing treason to the people at whose hands I hold my power?" After calling upon the Haytiens to give him their confidence, Salmave concluded by assuring them that as their legal defender he wished no other powers than those which belonged to him by right, and which were necessary to their welfare, and that the dearest wish of his heart was to see Hayti fulfilling the destiny marked out for her by Providence, and to see her people accomplishing, in spite of the obstacles before them, the grand work of progress and civilization as the fruits of their liberty and their independence, in furtherance of which ends he pledged himself to employ the best energies of his mind and body.

In order to prevent conflicts between foreigners and the Government, arising out of the execution of orders given by the authorities, Salmave in August addressed a circular to the generals in command of the different military posts, enjoining upon them to afford all the protection in their power to such foreigners as abstain from mixing themselves up in the affairs of the country, and conform to the laws of the republic; but at the same time to denounce to the Government all those, of whatever nationality, who shall be found acting in contravention of the laws, and giving encouragement to the rebellion, in order that legal measures might be adopted against them. He required that all violence against such persons should be carefully avoided.

The new Secretary of State for Public Worship, in August, addressed an official communication to the Vicar-General of Hayti, calling upon him to urge upon his clergy the duty of using

their influence with the people in the interests of order and peace in the Republic, and especially to remember the President in all the prayers of the Church used by them. They are to be asked to remind the people that "the powers that be are ordained of God" for the "punishment of evil-doers and for the praise of them that do well," and to give prominence in their preaching to those divine truths of Christianity which are the surest basis of all virtue, whether private or public. The Government hopes, says the Secretary, that the word of God, faithfully preached to the Haytien people, will inspire them with a holy love of country, and teach them to turn to profitable account the sad lessons which they are now receiving.

The reports from Hayti on the character and the ability of President Salmave are of the most contradictory nature. Salmave, during the year 1868, was on good terms with the minister of the United States, and was reported even to be favorable to an annexation of Hayti to the United States. A citizen of the United States, who has lived many years in Hayti, gives the following biographical sketch of the President:

Silvain Salmave was born in the city of Cape Haytien in the year 1832, and, after having passed through the various changes of youth, finally entered the service of his country as a common soldier, and gradually rose to the position of captain of Cavalry of the North, better known at the time as the "Chevaux Legers," which position he held after the establishment of the empire under Soulouque, although never sympathizing with the assumption of the imperial robes by his then chief, being at heart then, as he is now, a thorough republican, and totally ignoring the divine right of kings.

When, on the morning of December 22, 1858, Geffard raised, in the name of the people, the standard of revolt, and the cry of "*Vive la Republique!*" was shouted from valley to hill-top, till its echoes reached the capital, the Imperial Guard were at once mustered forth to quell with their prestige what was deemed but a mad enterprise; and such it would indeed have proved but for the prompt intervention of the subject of this sketch.

So inert and enslaved had the people become to every caprice of Soulouque, that, when, in response to the call of Geffard in the name of liberty, some of the prominent generals of the north assembled in Cape Haytien for secret conference, in a large room be decked with the trappings of royalty, having at one end a life-size bust of the Emperor, elaborately painted and gilded, they seemed almost awed by the presence of this "counterfeit presentment," and trembled lest the movement should prove futile, and that summary vengeance might be visited upon them. One by one they were preparing to depart, when young Salmave, springing to his feet, threw open the doors, and drawing his pistol from his belt, fired its contents into the bust of the emperor, shattering it into a thousand fragments, shouting, "Down with Soulouque! *Vive la Republique!*" Like a spark of electricity the enthusiasm sped from house to house, and from that moment the whole north rallied to the cause of Geffard, and finally resulted in completely overthrowing the empire and reestablishing the republic. Geffard, being a vain, ambitious man, used little discretion in rewarding those who espoused his cause, and, among others, conferred the position and title of major in the army upon Salmave, to whose bravery, energy, and persistency, he actually owed his exalted position. Soon, there came another call for his services. Spain, having taken advantage of

the civil war in this country, sent a strong force, and assumed to have annexed the Dominican portion of the island, and reestablished it once more as a colony—and most boldly did he respond to that call, sacrificing most of his property to supply arms and ammunition, as well as throwing his whole influence and prestige into the cause, leading in person a portion of her troops; and to him, as much, if not more than any one person, is due the credit of exterminating the Spaniards from the island, and placing the Government once more in the hands of the natives.

During his absence, the affairs of his country had undergone a great change. Geffrard, having once tasted the sweets of political honor, and having the means and opportunity of gratifying to the fullest extent his sensuality (for it is said that he was a notoriously licentious man), began to look about him to see who might possibly stand in the way of his remaining in power, and from some unexplained cause, fearing the popularity and influence of one General Oge Longuefosse, an old and valued friend of Salnave's, he ignominiously laid a snare to entrap him, then ordered his arrest, and had him confined in a dark, damp dungeon, with shackles upon his hands and feet.

Knowing the unjustness and treachery of the act, Salnave rallied around him at once a few followers and seized the arsenal at Cape Haytien. The act, however courageous and praiseworthy, was ill-timed. Forced to abandon the enterprise, he sought refuge in the Dominican territory, and General Longuefosse was ordered to be shot, when at last the wife of Salnave presented herself before Geffrard, asking for his pardon and permission to return. Taking advantage of his position, it is said that he so far debased himself as to propose such conditions, that she, as a true woman and loyal wife, left his presence with scorn and loathing, acquainting, at the earliest opportunity, her husband of the facts. From that moment he resolved never again to sheath his sword till he had driven forever from his country its base ruler. Calling to his side a few followers, he attacked and took possession of the hamlet of Cuanaminthe, on the Haytien border; from thence, by a forced march to Cape Haytien, where, raising his standard, and with but a corporal's guard, he held possession of the place for six months, although besieged by a force under Geffrard of some 16,000 men, and would doubtless have succeeded, had not Geffrard induced his friend, Mr. Spencer St. John, the English consul-general, to cause her Majesty's steamer Bulldog to bombard the fortifications of Salnave, and thus facilitate his entry into the city, and forcing Salnave to accept the protection offered to him by Captain Walker, of the United States gunboat *De Soto*, who conveyed him once more to the Dominican portion of the island, whence he embarked with a few followers for Turk's Island, there to develop more fully his plans, and renew again his attack. The seed he had sown, however, began to germinate, and on the 22d of February, 1867, there was a general rising in his favor in Port-au-Prince, and a few days later some fourteen of his friends, headed by General Chevalier, landed at night at St. Marc's, and took possession of the town. Geffrard, fearing longer to oppose the popular will, embarked at midnight, on the 13th of March, on board the French ship-of-war *Destaing*, which conveyed him and his family to Kingston, together with the public treasure, and all valuables that could be embarked. A provisional government was at once established, and a deputation sent to Turk's Island, recalling Salnave. Upon landing at the capital, the people received him with the greatest enthusiasm, and he was finally elected President of the Republic by a majority of the votes of the Chambers. Since that time the old adherents of Geffrard have been constantly intriguing and plotting against him, and have gathered together a horde of guerrillas, who have been aptly styled, by the people, "*Cacos*," after a species of lizard indigenous to the

country, who immediately hide themselves upon the approach of any one. They are principally wood-cutters and outlaws, who live between the Dominican and Haytien borders.

In person Salnave is of very commanding presence, about six feet in height, of regular features, large, lustrous eyes, dark complexion, about the color of our Indians; is now thirty-six years of age, rather reserved in his manners, says but little, and that to the point; although bred to arms, dresses habitually in plain citizen's dress; has an iron constitution, and is capable of undergoing great fatigue with little or no apparent effort. He has a good education in comparison with those around him, and displays wonderful sagacity and character in his official correspondence. He is a true and earnest friend as well as an implacable foe.

In November the insurgents in the south proclaimed General Domingue President, and those in the north General Nissage Saget, so that Hayti, for the time, had three rival Presidents.

HEAD, Sir EDMUND WALKER, Baronet, K. C. B., D. C. L., F. R. S., an English statesman, scholar, and art connoisseur, for seven years Governor-General of Canada, born in Rayleigh, Essex, in 1805; died in London, January 28, 1868. He was educated in Winchester and Oriel College, Oxford, graduating B. A. in 1827, obtaining a first class in classics. He subsequently became a Fellow of Merton College, Oxford, and in 1834 was appointed University Examiner. He was for many years one of the Poor-Law Commissioners. In October, 1847, he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of New-Brunswick, and in 1854 promoted to be Governor-General of Canada. He retired from office in 1861, and on his return home in 1862 was appointed a Civil Service Commissioner. He was a most accomplished scholar, both in ancient and modern languages, and had a very high reputation as an art connoisseur, which was enhanced by his admirable "*Hand-book of Spanish Painters*," and his other writings in art. He had also written extensively on philological subjects, and his attainments in etymology were extensive. A discussion on the auxiliary verbs "*shall and will*," from his pen, attracted much attention some years since.

HESSE-DARMSTADT, a grand-duchy of Germany. Grand-duke, Ludwig III., born June 9, 1806; succeeded his father June 16, 1848. Area, 2,970 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 823,138. Hesse-Darmstadt forms part of the North-German Confederation, but only for the province of Upper Hesse, and two little communities north of the river Main, belonging to the other provinces, together with 257,479 inhabitants. The population of the two principal cities was, in 1867, as follows: Mentz (a fortress of the North-German Confederation), 43,108; Darmstadt (capital), 31,389. The budget for one year of the financial period from 1866-'68 estimates the revenue at 9,407,008; the expenditure at 7,371,952 guilders. The public debt (exclusive of railroad debt) amounted, at the close of 1866, to 2,088,000 florins.

According to a military convention concluded with Prussia, on April 7, 1867, all the troops of Hesse have been, since October 1, 1867, incorporated with the Prussian army, constituting the third division of the Eleventh Army Corps. They number 15,000 field troops and 5,800 reserves.

HOPKINS, Rt. Rev. JOHN HENRY, D. D., D. C. L., Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, for the Diocese of Vermont, and for some years past Presiding Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States; born in Dublin, January 30, 1792; died in Rock Point, Vt., January 9, 1868. He came to America with his parents in 1800. His education was chiefly superintended by his mother. He was intended for the law, but after receiving a classical education, passed a year in a counting-room in Philadelphia; assisted Wilson, the ornithologist, in the preparation of the plates to the first four volumes of his work; and about his nineteenth year embarked in the manufacture of iron in the western part of Pennsylvania. In 1816 he married the daughter of a retired German merchant, then residing in Baltimore. The iron business was prostrated by the peace in 1815, and a year after his marriage (1817) he quitted it bankrupt in property. After six months' study, he was admitted to the bar in Pittsburgh, but in 1823, left the bar for the ministry, and in 1824 became the Rector of Trinity Church, Pittsburgh. A new building being needed, he became its architect, studying Gothic architecture for the purpose. In the Diocesan Convention of 1827, he was a prominent candidate for the office of Assistant Bishop of Pennsylvania, the members being equally divided between him and Dr. H. U. Onderdonk, and Mr. Hopkins's own vote securing the election of the latter. In 1831 Mr. Hopkins accepted a call to Trinity Church, Boston, as assistant minister. A theological seminary was at that time established in the Diocese of Massachusetts, in which he became Professor of Systematic Divinity. In the spring of 1832 he was elected the first Bishop of the separate Diocese of Vermont, and at the same time accepted the rectorship of St. Paul's Church, Burlington. He soon began a boys' school, which enabled him to give remunerative employment to a large number of candidates for orders. In erecting the needed buildings for the accommodation of this growing establishment, he became involved to a degree which resulted in the sacrifice of his property, and an amount of debt which it was not in his power to cancel for many years. He resigned his rectorship in 1856, in order that he might devote himself more unreservedly to the work of the diocese, and the building up of the Vermont Episcopal Institute at Burlington. Bishop Hopkins was a diligent writer, and published many volumes, among which may be mentioned "Christianity Vindicated in a Series of Seven Discourses on the External Evidences of the New Testa-

ment;" "The Primitive Church compared with the Protestant Episcopal Church of the Present Day;" "The Primitive Creed Examined and Explained;" "Essay on Gothic Architecture;" "History of the Confessional;" "The American Citizen, his Rights and Duties;" and "A Refutation of Milner's End of Controversy, in a Series of Letters," two vols., published in 1854. His first work was published in 1833, and his last in the last year of his life. In the early part of the war he published a work in defence of slavery, which was much spoken of at the time, because of the source from which it emanated. One of his latest works was a "Church History in Verse," published last year, but this hardly reached the dignity of poetry. Bishop Hopkins was present at the Pan-Anglican Synod at Lambeth, in which he took a prominent part. While abroad the degree of D. C. L. was conferred upon him by the University of Oxford. He had but recently returned to this country, and his diocese, at his death. In the dissension dividing the Episcopal Church, Bishop Hopkins was a decided champion of the High Church party, and refused to sign the famous protest of the bishops last year against High Church practices.

HOWELL, ROBERT BOYTÉ CRAWFORD, D. D., a Baptist clergyman and author, born in Wayne, County, N. C., March 10, 1801; died in Nashville, Tenn., April 5, 1868. His early religious and literary training was imparted to a considerable extent by his mother, and supplemented by such schools as existed in the neighborhood of his father's plantation on the Neuse River; but he was a diligent student, and having, qualified himself to enter Columbian College, Washington, D. C., in 1822, he graduated in 1826 with the highest honors of his class, having, in addition to the usual college studies, prosecuted successfully those pertaining to medicine and theology. He was then, as always afterward, intensely rapid in his mental action, and his facility in the acquisition of knowledge was very great.

During his college course he found time for performing considerable missionary and Sunday-school labor in Washington and its vicinity, and almost immediately after his graduation was licensed to preach, and labored as a domestic missionary under the direction of the Baptist General Association of Virginia. In January, 1827, he accepted a call from the Cumberland Street Baptist church, Norfolk, Va., and was ordained there on the 27th of January. His pastorate of somewhat more than eight years at Norfolk was eminently successful, and when he removed thence to Nashville, Tenn., it was only because there seemed a wider door of usefulness there. The First Baptist Church in Nashville, of which he became pastor, had been almost broken up by the course pursued and doctrines taught by Rev. Alexander Campbell, D. D., the founder of the "Disciples," but, through Mr. Howell's energy and earnest labor, it was united and became a powerful

church. In Nashville, he established and edited for some time a religious newspaper, exerted a powerful influence in favor of missions, and by his remarkable eloquence and earnestness very early took a position as leader of his denomination in the State. For years he was moderator or president of all the religious organizations of the Baptists in the State, and for ten consecutive years president of the Southern Baptist Convention. He was also a director, manager, or trustee in most of the educational institutions of the State. In 1850, after sixteen years of arduous labor in Nashville, he accepted a call to the pastorate of the Second Baptist Church in Richmond, Va., and remained there till 1857, when, at the urgent request of his former charge at Nashville, he returned there and continued in that relation till his death. In Richmond, as in Nashville, he had been called to occupy a prominent position in the management of the State denominational and educational institutions. He also found time for the preparation of several religious works. His services were in demand in Nashville on his return thither, as before, for the State denominational societies, and the public educational institutions of the State also gladly availed themselves of his counsels. In the beginning of the war, he took a decided stand with the Confederacy, and, when the city came into the possession of the Union forces, he was, for a time, by order of Andrew Johnson, then military Governor of the State, put under military surveillance. Finding, however, that, though not a unionist, he had no treasonable designs, he was after a few weeks discharged. His time was during the war mainly occupied with the preparation of several religious works. His health began to fail early in 1867, and he was unable to continue his labors either as a preacher or writer. Dr. Howell's published works were: "The Evils of Infant Baptism;" "The Cross;" "The Covenant" (this was afterward expanded into a larger work, not yet published, entitled "The Christology of the Pentateuch, as developed in the Covenants"); "The Early Baptists of Virginia" (also subsequently enlarged). These were published during his residence in Richmond, between 1850 and 1857. He subsequently (between 1857 and 1861) published "Communion;" "The Deaconship;" "The Way of Salvation," and two or three other small books. He also left, besides the two unpublished works mentioned above, two other posthumous works, "A Memorial of the First Baptist Church of Nashville from 1820 to 1863," an elaborate work on "The Family," completed in 1865, and a number of volumes of his Sermons. Dr. Howell was an elegant preacher, a vigorous writer, and a man of pleasing address.

HUGHES, BALL, a sculptor, born in London, January 19, 1806; died in Boston, March 5, 1868. He showed a talent for sculpture very early, for at twelve years of age he procured a supply of wax by collecting candle-ends,

and out of this material made a bas-relief copy of a picture representing the judgment of Solomon, which was afterward cast in silver. Fortunately his father was willing that the child's natural bent should be regarded, and placed him for instruction with the sculptor Bailey, in whose studio he remained for seven years. During this time he gained several important prizes in competition. The Royal Academy gave him the large silver medal for the best copy in bas-relief of the Apollo; the Society of Arts and Sciences gave him their silver medal for a copy of the Barberini Faun, the large silver medal for the best original model from life, and a gold medal for an original composition, "Pandora brought to Earth by Mercury." He soon began to receive commissions for important works, but, in 1829, determined to emigrate to America. His first important commission here was the statue of Alexander Hamilton for the Merchants' Exchange. This was destroyed in the great fire of 1835. The bas-relief of Bishop Hobart, which he made for Trinity Church, is now in the vestry of the present building. He made several groups which have never been put into marble, "Little Nell sitting in the Churchyard," and "Uncle Toby and the Widow Wadman," which last is admirably executed. He also made a model of an equestrian statue of Washington, intended for the city of Philadelphia; a statuette of Warren, and a bust of Irving. For a number of years he resided in Dorchester, near Boston. Among his other works of note, are a "Crucifixion;" a fine statue in bronze of Nathaniel Bowditch in Mount Auburn Cemetery, which, owing to some defect in the composition of the metal, it is feared cannot stand the vicissitudes of our climate;" a "Mary Magdalen," and several others of nearly equal merit. He had also within a few years past executed some remarkably spirited sketches, done on wood with a hot iron. Several of his statues are in private collections in England, and are very highly prized.

HUNGARY, a country of Europe, formerly an independent kingdom, but now forming part of Austria. As reconstructed in 1867,* Hungary consists of the following parts, each of which was to be, according to the Constitution of 1849, a separate crown-land:

	Population in 1867.
Hungary.....	10,814,206
Croatia and Slavonia.....	962,031
Transylvania.....	2,095,215
Military Frontier.....	1,131,502
Total.....	15,002,954
Adding army and travelling population, about.....	15,348,000

The special ministry for Hungary and its dependencies, which was appointed in February, 1867, and which remained unchanged in 1868, was composed as follows: Minister President

* See ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA, for 1867. Further statistics on the nationalities and religious denominations of Hungary and its dependencies are given on page 58 of the present volume.

and Minister of the Defence of the Country, Count Julius Andrassy; Minister *à l'interieur*, Count George Festeticz; Minister of the Interior, Baron Bela de Wenkheim; Minister of Justice, Balthasar de Horvath; Minister of Finances, Melchior de Lonyay; Minister of Public Instruction and Worship, Baron Joseph de Eotvos; Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, Stephen de Gorove; Minister of Public Works, Count Emeric Mik6.

The budget for 1868 estimated the revenue at 115,915,800 florins; the expenditures at 121,232,800 florins; the deficit at 5,317,000.

The Hungarian Diet resumed its work on March 11th. The election of Kossuth, who, at one of the supplementary elections, had been elected a member of the Chamber of Deputies, was verified, but Kossuth never took his seat, and in a letter of resignation gave at full his reasons. The fact of his resignation was announced in the Chamber on April 29th, but the ministerial majority of the House decided that the letter should not be read.

On November 24th the delegates of Croatia appeared for the first time in the Hungarian Diet. They were warmly received, and mutual greetings were exchanged in the Croatian and Hungarian languages. M. Vacanovits and M. Zuvits made speeches, in which they gave, in the name of the Croatian nation, promises of brotherhood toward Hungary, and of the maintenance of unity under the crown of St. Stephen. The elections of the Croatian deputies were then on the spot declared verified, and they proceeded to elect members for the Hungarian delegation.

The work of the Diet was brought to a close on the 10th of December. It had been elected in 1865; and as it accomplished the reconciliation of Hungary and Austria, it is one of the most memorable in the history of Hungary. The days immediately preceding the close were signalized by several important and popular acts of the government. A letter manual of the King appointed M. Bedekovich as minister for Croatia and Slavonia in the Hungarian ministry. He had been one of the staunchest advocates of the compromise between Hungary and Croatia, and his appointment was therefore favorably received by the Magyars. The law establishing the national militia received the royal sanction, and Archduke Joseph, son of the popular Palatine of the same name, and brother of the Archduke Stephen, the last Palatine, was appointed as commander. The Honveds of 1848-'49 sent a deputation to the King to offer their services, when their spokesman, Colonel Horvath, made the following address:

We appear before your Majesty to express to your Majesty the homage of the Honveds of 1848-'49, and to declare that we are ready, every one according to his power, in war or peace, to serve under the orders of your Majesty. May Heaven grant us peace in order that we may reap the benefits of the impulse given by your Majesty; but, if fate should decide otherwise, we will add more than one leaf to the laurel-crowns which may adorn your sovereign brow.

Let your Majesty receive graciously our homage and readiness to serve, and let your Majesty be convinced that no one will surpass us in loyalty to the throne and attachment to the laws. Long live the King!

The King's reply was:

I receive with pleasure your homage and the offer of your services, and I am convinced that you will faithfully fulfil your duties to the throne and to the country.

On December 8th the King issued the following address to the army, introducing to them the Honveds as their new comrades:

The monarchy wants peace; we must know how to maintain it. For this purpose I have had presented to both Legislatures a bill by which, in case of necessity, the whole population may rise in arms to defend the dearest interests of the country. Both Legislatures have passed it, and I have sanctioned it. The reorganization of the empire has been effected on those historical bases on which it reposed in the times when it fought out the most difficult wars successfully. Both sides of my empire will have henceforth the same interest in defending its security and power. My army thereby gains an auxiliary which will support it in good and ill fortune. My people, without distinction of class, will now, according to the law, rank under my colors proudly. Let the army be the school of that courage without which empires cannot maintain themselves. Side by side with the army will be a new element, the Honveds, to help in the common defence. Its aim is the same, and it is composed of the same elements—nay, partly issues from the army itself. I turn with confidence to the army. It is my will that those who serve the country in arms should do so with pleasure. It is my will that the loyalty and comradeship—that dear inheritance of the army—should animate all its parts, and that army, navy, and Honveds should hold together, like good comrades, animated by the same duties, and called to the same glory. I, therefore, confidently trust that all officers of the army and of the Honveds will receive this new institution in this spirit; particularly I expect that the generals, as leaders, will draw closely the links which unite the two; that they will keep up the spirit of order and discipline, and stop from the beginning any false directions which may be taken. My army has gone through hard trials, but its courage is not broken, and my faith in it is not shaken. The path of honor and loyalty on which the brave sons of my empire have followed hitherto may be their path henceforth, too. Let them be faithful to their past, and bring with them the glorious traditions of former times. Progressing in science and in the spirit of the times, strengthened by new elements, it will inspire respect in the enemy and be a stronghold of throne and empire.

FRANCIS JOSEPH.

BUDA, December 8, 1868.

On closing the Diet, on December 10th, the King delivered the following speech from the throne:

Gentlemen, my Lords, and Representatives: The present Legislature ceases to-day, and we wished to close in person the Diet whose fruitful activity stands unparalleled in the long history of Hungary. We called you together three years ago, under difficult and anxious circumstances, to accomplish a great task. Our common aim and endeavor has been to solve all those questions which, not only in these late times, but for centuries, have been the sources of distrust and of collisions. Although prejudices inherited from times past, the power of habit, suspicions nourished by events, and the seeming antagonism of interests, contributed to complicate the situation, we have succeeded, nevertheless, in accomplishing our difficult task successfully. This success is owing to the loyal alliance between the

King and the nation. To this Diet belongs the glory of having put an end to the political uncertainty which has benumbed the noblest forces of the nation. Mutual friendship and esteem have taken the place of the political struggles between the two states of our monarchy. Both states of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, by means of their constitutional and parliamentary government, arrange their own affairs independently; while in those important questions which concern the common affairs of the monarchy, as stipulated by mutual consent, each of them exercises in the same measure its constitutional influence. The monarchy, having sought and found its centre of gravity within itself, progresses with renewed vigor on the new path, the goal of which is peace and prosperity, as well as the maintenance of that position which the monarchy is called upon to occupy among the states of Europe. Thus the source from which came the evils of the past is stopped, and over it Hungarian loyalty, patriotism, and moderation have raised a lasting monument, on which history has inscribed a long list of great and salutary achievements. Having been solemnly crowned with the crown of St. Stephen, inherited from my ancestors, the Hungarian Constitution has become a full reality; we have reestablished the ancient honor and weight of the title of the king of Hungary, and we feel that by this our empire has not only not been weakened, but, on the contrary, has only regained its old basis and strength. We have, therefore, adopted, with regard to foreign countries, a title for our empire which is in conformity with the laws and the facts. A political compromise on the basis of equity and of common interests has been effected with Croatia and Slavonia, which renews the link which has existed for centuries in weal and woe between the two sister nations. We hope confidently that this alliance will unite again, in devotion to my house and to the common country, the Hungarian and Croatian nations for centuries to come. The union of Hungary and Transylvania has become an accomplished fact. Thus the integrity of the empire of St. Stephen has been restored in a way in which it has not existed for the last three hundred years. One of the guarantees of the integrity, both of the Hungarian crown and of our empire, is the new army organization. Moved by confidence, and judging with deep wisdom, you have recognized the necessity of a common army, and thus the defensive force which is to protect the development of the monarchy has been created.

Immediately after the close of the Diet, the preparations for the elections began. Manifestoes to the people were issued by Deak in behalf of the Government party, and by Ghyozy and Tirsá, the leaders of the Left. The main points of the political programme of the Left are: the abolition of meetings of delegations from Hungary and Austria Proper, the establishment of a Hungarian Ministry of War, and, finally, the reduction of the union of Hungary with Austria to a merely personal union, such as exists between Sweden and Norway. The extreme Left, which, in the Diet of 1868, comprised only a few members, would, if possible, sever the connection of Hungary with Austria altogether. The law of 1848 says, that, at the latest, 20 days after the publication of the writ, the counties and towns are to meet in assembly and choose a central committee, which is to have the whole management of the elections for all the electoral districts situated in the county or town. In this committee all the electoral districts are to be represented in fair proportion, as well as the villages and commu-

nities situated in them. This committee, which sometimes consists of as many as 200 and more members, must constitute itself within a week after its election, and then select a committee of three members to make out the lists of electors. It decides the day on which the lists are to be opened, and sits for a fortnight after to allow time for reclamations and for the verification of the lists. Having completed this, the lists are presented to the central committee, when, again, during a fortnight, reclamations and objections may be made. The proceedings of both these bodies are public. The House of Deputies consists of 88 members for cities, 289 for comitats and districts, and 32 for sees.

HYDROGENIUM, THE SUPPOSED METALLIC BASE OF HYDROGEN. In a paper read before the Royal Society, Mr. Thomas Graham, Master of the Mint, gives some interesting conclusions arrived at after a long investigation of the relation of hydrogen to palladium. (For some details of his earlier experiments on this subject, see *CHEMISTRY*.)

It has often been maintained on chemical grounds that hydrogen gas is the vapor of a highly volatile metal; and the proposition which Mr. Graham sought to demonstrate was, that a true alloy could be formed between that metal (designated by the experimenter, or discoverer if he might so be called, as "hydrogenium") and some other metal in which hydrogen gas is readily occluded in large volumes, as, for instance, palladium, which was the metal chosen for making the test. The details of charging the palladium wire with hydrogen need not be described any further than to say that every precaution was taken to insure accuracy of measurement. The original length of the wire exposed was 23.982 inches and its weight 1.6832 grammes. It received a charge of hydrogen amounting to 0.936 times its volume, and weighing 0.01147 grammes. When the gas was ultimately expelled, the loss, as ascertained by direct weighing, was 0.01164 grammes. The wire, when charged, showed an increase in length of 0.885 of an inch. The increase in linear dimensions was from 100 to 101.605; and in cubic capacity assuming the expansion to be in all directions, from 100 to 104.908. Supposing the two metals united without any change of volume, the alloy may then be said to be composed of

	By volume.	
Palladium.....	100	or 95.32
Hydrogenium.....	4.908	or 4.68
	<hr/> 104.908 100.	

The density of hydrogenium, ascertained by this experiment, was 1.708; but a second experiment gave it at 1.898, and a third at 1.977. It was necessary to assume that the two metals remain of their proper volume in uniting, in accordance with the general rule that metals, in the formation of alloys, retain approximately their original densities. In the first experiment, Mr. Graham considers it probable that the

maximum absorption of gas by the palladium wire was obtained. It may be charged with any smaller proportion by shortening the time of exposure to the gas. The tenacity of palladium wire is reduced by the addition of hydrogen, but not to any great extent. Taking the tenacity of the wire unalloyed at 100, the tenacity of palladium and hydrogen is estimated at 81.29. The electric conductivity of palladium is 8.10; of palladium plus hydrogen 5.99. The addition of hydrogen manifestly increases the small natural magnetism of palladium, as experiments demonstrated; from which it appears to follow that hydrogenium is magnetic, a property confined to metals and their compounds. Magnetism, however, is not perceptible in hydrogen gas, which was placed both by Faraday and M. E. Becquerel at the bottom of the list of diamagnetic substances. But magnetism is so liable to extinction under the influence of heat, that the magnetism of a metal may very possibly disappear entirely when it is fused or vaporized, as appears with hydrogen in the form of gas. As palladium stands high in the group of paramagnetic metals, hydrogenium may be allowed to rise out of that class and to take place in the strictly magnetic group with iron, nickel, cobalt, chromium, and manganese. The higher palladium is heated, the more permeable it is by hydrogen. The highest velocity of permeation was observed in an experiment where four litres of hydrogen per minute passed through a plate of palladium one millimetre in thickness and calculated for a square metre in surface, at a bright-red heat a little short of the melting-point of gold. This is a travelling movement of hydrogen through the substance of the

metal with the velocity of four millimetres a minute. The chemical properties of hydrogenium distinguish it from hydrogen. The palladium alloy precipitates mercury and calomel from a solution of the chloride of mercury without any disengagement of hydrogen; that is, hydrogenium decomposes chloride of mercury, which hydrogen does not. This explains why M. Stanislas Mennier failed to discover the occluded hydrogen of meteoric iron by dissolving the latter in a solution of chloride of mercury; for the hydrogen would be consumed like the iron itself in precipitating mercury. Hydrogen (associated with palladium) unites with chlorine and iodine in the dark, reduces a persalt of iron to the state of protosalt, converts red prussiate of potash into yellow prussiate, and has considerable deoxidizing power. Mr. Graham sums up as follows: that, in palladium fully charged with hydrogen there exists a compound of the two in a proportion which may approach to equal equivalents; that both substances are solid, metallic, and of a white aspect; that the alloy contains about 20 volumes of palladium united with one of hydrogenium; that the density of hydrogenium is about 2, a little higher than magnesium, to which the metal may be supposed to bear some analogy; that hydrogenium has a certain amount of tenacity, and possesses the electrical conductivity of a metal; and finally, that hydrogenium takes its place among magnetic metals. The latter fact may have its bearing upon the appearance of hydrogenium in meteoric iron in association with certain other magnetic elements. Mr. W. E. Roberts rendered valuable assistance to Mr. Graham in this important investigation.

I

ILLINOIS. Of the 36,000,000 acres of land which constitute the area of the State of Illinois, 21,000,000 were to some extent improved, and 10,000,000 were under actual cultivation in the year 1868. The resources of the State are rapidly developing under the operations of enterprise and industry. The geological survey, which has been going on for several years, and which has been liberally encouraged by the Legislature, is now substantially finished, and the third volume of the Report of the State Geologist has just been published. It will require three more volumes to contain a full record of the results of this great work. This report contains an account of the mineral wealth and the natural resources of each county in the State, and will have a great permanent value. It is found that inexhaustible supplies of coal underlie the soil in several of the counties, and some notion of their value may be formed from the statement of the geologist that a single *stratum* in Perry County contains a quantity sufficient, if

estimated at one dollar a ton, as it lies in the bed, to liquidate the entire national debt of the United States. The annual product of the mines already in operation is about two million tons. Iron is also found in considerable quantity, and there are already many flourishing manufactories in that metal. Other manufactures are rapidly springing up, and even now the State has eighty-seven wool-carding mills, and one hundred and thirty-three manufactories of woollen fabrics, with a capital of, \$3,600,000 invested in buildings and machinery, and employing 3,450 operatives, and consuming 4,000,000 lbs. of wool.

Yet Illinois maintains her preëminence as an agricultural State, and Chicago has probably become the greatest stock-market in the world, more animals having been received at her stock-yards in 1868 than in the markets of the three great cities of Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Milwaukee combined. The following tables exhibit the receipts and shipments for the year:

RECEIPTS.

	Cattle.	Hogs.	Sheep.	Horses.	Mules.
January..	17,160	156,517	11,899	25	55
February..	18,445	65,326	25,213	224	82
March....	20,986	69,567	24,517	228	17
April.....	35,143	100,368	40,635	94	..
May.....	32,560	131,564	27,352	103	..
June.....	34,334	102,369	15,101	92	..
July.....	33,398	78,859	15,673	45	..
August...	15,964	85,195	23,798	279	..
September	30,383	104,016	22,009	263	50
October..	34,779	169,273	27,358	183	88
November	29,650	243,472	17,374	75	..
December	21,722	400,256	20,016	10	..
Total, '68	324,524	1,706,782	270,875	1,626	292
Total, '67	329,188	1,696,738	180,388
Decrease in receipts of cattle.....					4,664
Increase in receipts of hogs.....					10,044
Increase in receipts of sheep.....					89,987

SHIPMENTS.

	Cattle.	Hogs.	Sheep.	Horses.	Mules.
January..	9,868	39,029	1,403	55
February..	12,146	45,948	8,699	275	45
March....	15,283	65,449	15,208	388	..
April.....	30,332	86,914	27,842	130	76
May.....	31,020	121,959	14,639	92	..
June.....	25,508	87,573	2,828	77	..
July.....	27,351	79,734	3,292	141	..
August...	9,839	77,375	3,202	133	..
September	17,334	89,212	882	350	..
October..	16,009	147,518	1,391	176	88
November	10,903	119,616	1,737	75	..
December	10,394	60,002	660	22
Total, '68	215,987	1,020,329	81,773	1,837	286
Total, '67	203,580	758,789	88,052
Increase in shipments of cattle.....					12,407
Increase in shipments of hogs.....					261,540
Decrease in shipments of sheep.....					6,279

The sales of stock for the year amount to nearly \$65,000,000. Notwithstanding these figures, the trade suffered some check on account of the ravages of what is called the Texas fever, although the importation of cattle from Texas and the Cherokee Territory was prohibited by an act of the Legislature of 1867. Measures have been taken to prevent the spread of this disease, and commissioners from various States, appointed to take the matter into consideration, met in convention at Springfield, on the first day of December. The subject of the Texas cattle fever was fully discussed, and much information brought to light, and, as a result of their deliberations, the commissioners drew up a law, to be submitted to the various State Legislatures, to regulate the trade in Texas cattle. (*See CATTLE DISEASE.*)

The property of the State as assessed in 1868 may be briefly tabulated as follows:

Improved lands, 21,292,021 acres.....	\$131,125,994
Value of improvements on lands.....	46,889,698
Unimproved lands, 10,923,000 acres.....	44,025,740
Town lots and improvements.....	103,517,244
Railroad property.....	14,189,931
Taxable personal property.....	124,027,887

Total.....\$463,776,494

The receipts of money into the public treas-

ury for the two years ending November 30, 1868, amounted to \$2,276,763.19. The warrants issued by the auditor for the same period drew from the public funds \$2,126,668.74, of which \$1,050,882.32 were for special purposes, and \$1,075,726.41 for the ordinary expenses of public institutions and the support and administration of the government. The rate of taxation at present is 25 cents on each hundred dollars of property assessed.

The public debt of Illinois is rapidly diminishing, and this prosperous commonwealth bids fair in a few years to be free from all her liabilities. In 1840, the State of Illinois, which had at that time a population of only 500,000, had incurred a debt of \$14,000,000 by the failure of the State Bank, and expenses attending the construction of the Illinois and Michigan Canal and other internal improvements. The State credit for several years was very low, but the constitution of 1847 provided for a sinking fund known as the two-mill tax, which has continued ever since. The mere accumulations of unpaid interest increased the debt to \$18,000,000 in 1857; and in 1861 \$2,000,000 more were added by the expenses attending the outbreak of the civil war. From that time, by the application of the two-mill tax and the receipts from the Illinois Central Railroad and canal revenues, the debt has been steadily diminished. On the 1st of December, 1866; it amounted to \$8,638,252, and in the next two years a reduction of more than \$2,500,000 was made. At the beginning of the year 1869 the entire indebtedness of the State is little more than \$5,000,000, the greater part of which falls due in 1870. Under a law of 1865, the State has had an agent at Washington to attend to the collection of claims against the Federal Government. In accordance with the instructions from the Governor of the State, he closed his office on the 31st of December, 1868. During the three years while the agent remained at the Federal capital he settled 4,761 claims of soldiers, and sent them \$507,831.74 in money. Besides the duty of urging the personal claims of soldiers, this agent has been intrusted with the settlement of the claims of the State against the Government for expenses incurred during the war. In the past two years \$46,000 have been collected on the fourth instalment of these claims, \$50,000 on the fifth instalment, and \$136,345.08 on the sixth. There is still a balance due on the instalments presented of \$583,818.74.

Several new plans for internal improvement are on foot in Illinois, prominent among which is an enterprise for opening the navigation of the Illinois River, from its mouth to the Illinois and Michigan Canal. This would cost about \$2,500,000 dollars, and would probably increase the business of the Canal ten times. This canal, which is sometimes spoken of as a financial incubus on the State, and which occasioned a large portion of the embarrassing debt which existed prior to 1860, has been shown

to have paid more than its cost since it was constructed. The commissioners under the act of 1836, for the construction of this great public work, expended \$4,979,903 upon it, and \$1,429,606 more were expended by the Canal Trustees under the act of 1843. Since the year 1848, when the canal was opened to navigation, \$4,527,825 have been received from the sales of lands given in aid of the work by the Government of the United States, and the tolls have yielded \$2,185,695 over and above the expense of operating the canal and keeping it in repair. Thus it will be seen that the receipts have exceeded the cost by the sum of \$771,966. The receipts from the tolls of this public property in 1867 amounted to \$252,231.23, and in 1868 they were \$215,720.72.

The first river tunnel constructed in this country was begun at Chicago, in July, 1867, and completed in December, 1868, at a cost of about \$330,000. The length of the foot-way from entrance to entrance is 810 feet. The diameter of the tunnel is $19\frac{1}{2}$ feet at the entrance, and increases to $23\frac{1}{2}$ 150 feet from the river centre. There are ventilation-shafts 110 feet from the entrance, and lights at intervals of forty or fifty feet. There is a double carriage-way throughout the structure, each roadway being 11 feet wide and 15 feet high.

The commissioners appointed under the act of February 25, 1867, to superintend the erection of a new State-House at Springfield, have been prosecuting their labors with energy. The county of Sangamon and the city of Springfield conveyed to the State in fee simple the land on which the building is located, and more than \$350,000 have been expended already in preparing the ground and laying the foundation of the structure. In the opinion of the commissioners and architects who have the work in charge, \$650,000 will be required in the next two years to carry it on efficiently.

Previous to the extra session of the Legislature in June, 1867, the State Penitentiary, at Joliet, had been leased to the Illinois Manufacturing Company, but, by an act of the General Assembly at that time, provision was made for its management by the State authorities; and on the 1st of July it was surrendered by the lessees. Up to that time, \$1,075,000 had been expended in its erection, and \$54,525 worth of property was then found on the premises in the form of workshops, fixtures, etc. Since this institution has been in charge of the State, two systems of management have been tried, one by hiring out the labor of the convicts, and the other by employing it directly by the State. The former plan is pronounced a failure, and by the latter the expenses have been \$463,569.60 in eighteen months, while the earnings derived from the sales of manufactured articles have amounted to \$333,373. A large outlay, however, was necessarily incurred in inaugurating the new system of employing the convicts. The number of inmates of the Penitentiary on the first of December,

1864, was 586; in 1866, it had increased to 1,073, and December 1, 1868, they numbered 1,162. Need is felt of larger accommodations, and separate institutions for women and for youthful offenders are required; 33 of the present inmates are females. The act of the last Legislature providing for a new prison, to be called the Illinois Southern Penitentiary, has not been carried into effect, owing to the fact that the nominations of commissioners to take charge of the work were never acted on by the Senate. A law was also passed in 1867, for establishing a State Reform School, for the correction of juvenile offenders, which failed to go into operation from the same cause which defeated the Southern Penitentiary Act. The nomination of commissioners in both cases was made at the extra session of the Legislature in June, 1867, and it was voted by the Senate that all nominations sent in by the Governor "be postponed until the next regular session of the General Assembly."

Much has been done in Illinois to provide for the unfortunate classes of persons who are the natural wards of the State; but the provisions which have been made have hardly kept pace with the rapid increase of the population. The number of patients admitted to the Insane Asylum since December 1, 1866, is 623, of whom 333 are males, and 290 females. Of the males 198 were unmarried, and 123 married; while of females, 93 were unmarried, and 170 married. The most prominent causes of insanity, according to the report of the superintendent, were vicious indulgences and religious excitement. Much the greater part of the inmates consisted of farmers, laborers, and persons occupied with domestic labors. There were 48 students, 10 teachers, 8 physicians, 3 clergymen, and 1 lawyer. The expenditures of the institution for two years have amounted to \$229,749. The number of inmates remaining in the hospital on the 1st of December was 406.

In 1865 an experimental school for the instruction and training of idiots and feeble-minded children was established, and, from appropriations made in 1867, convenient buildings have been erected for its use, capable of giving adequate accommodations to about sixty pupils. Since the opening of the school, 221 applications for admission have been received, 131 of them in behalf of male children, and 90 for females. The efforts of those who have charge of these unfortunates have found great encouragement in the marked improvement which has been displayed in many instances. The superintendent of the school says: "In no other class can the power of amelioration be applied by private individuals, or local authorities, with such prospects of success. Furthermore, in a large percentage of cases, it may be affirmed that an appropriate education will develop a capacity for productive industry, where, without it, an utter inability for useful occupation would exist."

The State has an institution for the deaf and

dumb, where gardens, workshops, and schools, contribute greatly to the comfort and improvement of this class. The number of pupils admitted, since its organization in 1846, is 682, of whom 271 are now at the school. The expenditures for the two years ending December, 1868, were \$116,350, while \$108,604 have been received from various sources. The Institution for the Blind, at Jacksonville, has been in operation 20 years; 331 persons have been admitted and provided with instruction and support, and 260 have completed their course and returned home. At the State Eye and Ear Infirmary, 400 patients have received gratuitous treatment in the last two years. A Home for Soldiers' Orphans has been established at Normal, in McLean County, where a farm and substantial brick buildings have been obtained at a cost of \$100,000. This institution has under its care about 300 orphans. The appropriations of the last Legislature for the various charitable institutions of the State amounted to upward of \$335,000.

The number of schools in the State on the 3d of September was 10,705; the number of school-houses, 10,381; male teachers, 8,240; female teachers, 10,797; number of school-going children between the ages of 6 and 21, 826,820; number actually attending school, 706,780. The expense of supporting these schools for the year was \$6,430,881.

The Normal University, at Normal, was organized in 1857, and has been, ever since, under the superintendence of the Board of Education. By an act of the Assembly, of February 28, 1867, it was declared a State institution, and all the property real and personal, held by the Board of Education in trust for the university, was declared to be the property of the State of Illinois. The school opened in 1857, with 47 students, and now there are over 1,000. The current annual expenses of this university are about \$25,000, of which \$5,000 are paid from tuitions received at the model school, which forms an interesting feature of the institution.

The donation of 480,000 acres of land by Congress, for the aid of a college intended to furnish an education in agriculture and other practical pursuits, was accepted by the State of Illinois, and on the 28th of February, 1867, an act was approved providing for the establishment of the Illinois Industrial University, and fixing its location at Urbana, Champaign County. Nine hundred and eighty acres of land were given by the county, together with the buildings of the Champaign Institute, and \$100,000 in county bonds payable in ten years, bearing interest at the rate of ten per cent. Over \$250,000 were derived from the sale of the scrip representing 380,000 acres of the congressional grant of land. The trustees who were charged with the organization of the university chose Dr. J. M. Gregory regent, and in March, 1868, the institution was opened, and has since had a regular attendance of 110 students. The course of study occupies three years, and embraces a

department of agriculture, a department of mechanical science and literature, a department of military science, and a commercial department. The department of agriculture includes instruction and practice in the various processes of husbandry, as well as the study of physical sciences and modern history and languages. In the mechanical department great prominence is given to mathematical studies and mechanics, and a workshop, with a supply of tools and machinery, is at the service of the student. The various branches of military science are taught, and all the students are required to wear a uniform of cadet gray mixed cloth. A valuable beginning has been made in procuring apparatus necessary in illustrating the various branches of study. The practical labors of the students are systematized, and each receives a compensation not to exceed eight cents an hour for the three regular working hours, and 12½ cents for extra hours. The following is a statement of a year's expenses at the university, but it is said that any young man can pay his way through by the labors of the year:

Tuition, room-rent, and incidentals,		
from.....	\$34 50	to \$39 50
Board in hall.....	108 00	to 123 00
Fuel and lights.....	10 50	to 15 00
Washing, 75 cents per dozen.....	10 00	to 15 50
Total	\$163 00	\$196 00

The political campaign in Illinois was spirited, but entirely free from disorders. The Democratic State Convention assembled in Rudolph's Opera-House, at the city of Springfield, on the 15th of April. After the convention was duly organized, a Committee on Resolutions was appointed, who, at a later stage of the proceedings, reported a platform, of which the following are the leading features:

Resolved, That, as ever, we are inflexibly opposed to all measures, the tendency of which is to lead to a consolidation of all power in the hands of the agents of the Federal Government—believing, as we do, that the happiness of the whole people, and preservation and continuation of our Union as a republic, and its free institutions, depend upon maintaining inviolate the great principles of the equal sovereignty and equality of each and all the States—subordinate to the exercise of the just and clearly-granted powers of the Federal Government—in all their just rights and constitutional privileges as integral members of the Federal Union.

Resolved, That, from this declaration, it necessarily results that we are now, have been, and will be unalterably opposed to all the various measures of the two last Congresses which, under the name of reconstruction measures, and other specious and deceptive titles, seek in effect to extend and perpetuate the power and domination of the present ruling party, by force and fraud, over the people of what should be ten equal States of the Union, and thereby maintain their present iniquitous supremacy; and, under the guise of military protectors, they have accomplished, in a time of profound peace, what their principles have ever tended to, and which the armed hosts of rebellion failed to accomplish—the dismemberment of the Federal Union, and the subversion of our established system of popular government.

Resolved, That we regard the Union, to-day, as unbroken as it was confessed to be, by every department of the Federal Government, after the armies of

the rebellion had hurled their power against it for more than four years; and now, when peace has once again visited the land, we imperatively demand that all the rights, privileges, and obligations of the Federal Constitution be evermore reinstated in their full force and effect.

Resolved, That the right of suffrage shall be limited to the white race in this country, and, while we unhesitatingly declare this shall be the law in our State, we fully recognize the right of the people in each and every State to determine for themselves, free from any outside interference, from any power whatever.

Resolved, That the intended and designed political effect of the so-called reconstruction measures of the present and last Congress is to deliver over the political control of the Southern States to the lately emancipated negroes therein, and thereby thus aid, by the utter prostration of the white men, citizens thereof, to retain the lease of power the ruling party have so long held, and which they have so flagrantly abused, all of which we will resist as freemen by every means which is given us by the Constitution of the country.

Resolved, That the vast bulk of the indebtedness of the country, known as 5.20's, are lawfully payable in legal-tender notes of the Government, and should be so paid, as the said obligations are within the power of the Government to relieve and discharge; and that whereof the faith of the Government is pledged to pay in gold, we will so fulfil, and beyond this we will not go.

Resolved, That the present system of national banks can and should be abolished at once, and the notes of the said institutions redeemed, and their place relieved by non-interest bearing notes of the Government, thus saving annually to the people twenty millions of dollars.

Resolved, That all the wealth of the country, whether invested in Government securities or otherwise, should sustain its full and fair share of taxation.

Resolved, That the present attempted impeachment of the President of the United States exhibits to the world the malignancy of the representatives of a party, part of whom were repudiated by their constituents at the last expression of their views, and who, to secure a partisan advantage, would destroy in their power a coordinate branch of the Government.

Resolved, That the nation is deeply indebted to the soldiers and sailors who gallantly defended it in the late war of rebellion, and that the memory of those who perished in the conflict should and will be held in grateful remembrance, and their widows and children should be tenderly cared for by the nation; that those who returned and are in our midst we congratulate, and tender them the assurance of our honor and regard, and trust they will aid in perpetuating the liberties of the Constitution of the country they periled their lives to save.

Resolved, That, recognizing the doctrine that allegiance is alienable, our national Government should protect American citizens abroad, whether native or foreign-born, and any outrage committed on the person of an American citizen by a foreign government should be resisted at every cost, and at all hazards.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of the Democracy of Illinois, we find in the political life and character of Hon. George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, the assurance of his entire accord with the principles we have here declared; and, recognizing in him the possession of every quality fitting for that station, we do declare him to be the choice of the Democracy of this State for President of the United States, and do instruct the members from this State to the National Convention to vote as a unit, and to use all honorable means in their power to secure his nomination by that body for that position.

The following was also reported by a minority of the committee, but was laid on the table, and the majority report adopted without amendment:

Resolved, That our delegates to the National Convention are instructed to insist upon the policy of paying 5.20 bonds in the lawful money of the country as a part of our national platform; and while we recognize in the Hon. George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, a statesman of the first order, and a pure patriot, we deem it inexpedient at this time to trammel our delegates in their choice of candidates, but desire that they shall, after a full and fraternal conference with the delegates of other States, favor the nomination of those candidates best suited to the positions, and most likely to be elected at the polls.

The nominations for the State ticket were: John R. Eden, of Moultrie, for Governor; W. H. Van Epps, of Lee, for Lieutenant-Governor; Gustavus Van Hoersbeck, of Clinton, for Secretary of State; Jesse J. Phillips, of Montgomery, for Treasurer; and Robert E. Williams, of McLean, for Auditor.

The Republican State Central Committee published a call for a Republican Union State Convention, to be held at Peoria on the 6th of May, representing the voters of Illinois "who support the congressional plan of reconstructing the disorganized States; who are in favor of their speedy admission to a participation in the Government; who are in favor of retrenchment of public expenditures; of honest and economical administration of government; of reducing taxes to the greatest practical extent; of maintaining the national faith and honor inviolate; who are opposed to paying the rebel debt or damages for loss of slaves caused by treason and rebellion; who are in favor of the protection of all American citizens, native and adopted, everywhere; and who are in favor of the election of a President and Vice-President whose faith to the loyal people of the nation will not be broken."

The convention met in accordance with this call, and proceeded to make the following nominations: for Governor, Major-General John M. Palmer, of Sangamon; for Lieutenant-Governor, John Dougherty, of Union; for Secretary of State, Edward Rummel, of Peoria; for Auditor, General Charles E. Lippincott, of Cass; for Treasurer, Erastus N. Bates, of Marion; and for Attorney-General, Washington Bushnell, of La Salle. The platform adopted was in the following terms:

The Republican party of the State of Illinois, continuing their great contest against the political action which culminated in open rebellion against the Constitution and the laws, and which now seeks to save from the wreck of the rebel creeds and rebel armies the seeds of future wars and more intolerant despotism, do hereby appeal to the people in the following resolutions:

Resolved, 1. That we congratulate the country on the assured success of the reconstruction laws of Congress as evidenced by the return of six of the eleven seceding States of the Union, under constitutions securing equal civil and political rights to all; we hold that the policy of Andrew Johnson, supported by the Democratic party, which proposes to confer a monopoly of such rights upon conquered rebels and discontented slaveholders, was fraught with the gravest perils, both to the peace of the nation and to the freedom of individuals.

2. That it is the duty of Congress to restore the lately-revolted States to their practical relations in the

Union on a footing of equality with the other States, whenever the conditions imposed in the reconstruction laws should have been complied with.

3. That we denounce all forms of repudiation as a national crime; and that the national honor requires the payment of the public indebtedness, in the utmost good faith, to all creditors at home and abroad, according to the letter and spirit of the laws under which it was contracted.

4. That it is due to the labor of the nation that taxation should be equalized and reduced as rapidly as the national faith will permit, and that any surplus which may remain in the Treasury, after economical and necessary appropriations, shall be applied to the reduction of the public debt by purchase in open market.

5. That the burden of the national debt should be extended over a fair time before redemption, and that it is the duty of Congress to reduce the rate of interest on such debt whenever and however it can be lawfully done.

6. That as it is probable that no form of Government indebtedness will be presented for many years, the principal of the war debt being the heritage of the future, it is premature to consider the question of calling in the loans; that, before the first issue of such indebtedness becomes payable, the currency of the country will be equivalent in value to gold, unless the enemies of the public credit should, in the mean while, destroy it.

7. That General Ulysses S. Grant, by his remarkable series of triumphs in the field of battle, and by his equally remarkable success in executing the reconstruction laws of Congress, has twice rescued the country from the greatest perils, that the consummate ability and loyalty which he has exhibited in every emergency of peace and war have made him the most illustrious exponent of the principles which triumphed in the late war for the Union, and is the natural successor of Abraham Lincoln in the affections of the people; and our delegates in the Chicago Convention are hereby instructed to cast their votes for him as nominee of the Republican party for the office of President of the United States.

8. That the right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right, and is indispensable to "the enjoyment of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness;" that while the citizen owes allegiance to the Government, the Government owes protection to the citizen; and that it is the duty of the Government of the United States to protect all its citizens, native-born and naturalized, in the full enjoyment of the same, and by whosoever, and under whatever color or pretence, these rights may be invaded.

9. That the thanks of the American people are due to the soldiers and sailors of the army and navy who have perilled their lives in defence of their country and in vindication of the honor of its flag; that the nation owes to them a perpetual recognition of their patriotism and valor; and that ample and permanent provision should be made for those of their survivors who have received disabling and honorable wounds in the service of their country; and that the memory of those who have fallen in its defence will be held in grateful and everlasting remembrance.

10. That we reiterate and reaffirm the following resolutions of the recent Democratic Convention of Illinois, to wit: "*Resolved*, That in the administration of the present system of internal revenue a reform is loudly called for, and which, in our judgment, can only be effected by expelling from place the present horde of thieves and plunderers, who have rioted and fattened upon the substance of the people, and who, under the pretence of collecting the revenue for the Government, have succeeded in enriching themselves at the expense of the people;" and, inasmuch as the frauds here recited have been mainly, if not wholly, committed since Andrew Johnson betrayed his own party and sought the alliance and friendship of the Democratic party, by removing

the appointees of Abraham Lincoln, and filling their places with supporters of his policy of reconstruction, we can see no end to the corruption prevailing in the collection of the revenue but in a change in the administration of the presidential office.

11. That the wages of labor constitute, in this country, one of the strongest bonds of society; and as labor is confined to no race, nationality, or creed, the rights of laboring men are everywhere the same.

12. That as those rights cannot be assailed anywhere by slavery or by any of its modifications without inflicting wrong upon labor everywhere, therefore, in the issue now before the American people, we most earnestly invite the coöperation of every laboring man in our efforts to shape the institutions of the Southern States, that the rule shall be universal and inviolable, "An honest day's wages for a faithful day's work."

13. That the Republican party, mindful of the truth that genuine national greatness and prosperity must always be founded upon public morality, recognize in perfect civil and religious liberty, in support of which our forefathers fought and bled, the most efficient means to raise the moral standard of the people.

The Legislature of 1867 made provision for submitting to the suffrages of the people the question of holding a convention to revise and amend the constitution of the State, the time of holding the election for delegates, in case the people decided in favor of the convention, to be fixed by the next Legislature, and the convention to be held within three months after such election. This was one of the questions before the people at the last election, and they decided that the convention should be held. The total vote cast was 444,860, of which 223,124 were for the convention, giving a majority of 704 in the whole State in favor of revising the constitution. The election on the general ticket resulted in a large Republican majority. The whole vote cast for presidential electors was 449,436, of which 250,293 were in favor of Grant's election, and 199,143 for Seymour. Grant's majority, 51,150. General John A. Logan was nominated by the Republicans, and ——— Dickey by the Democrats for member of Congress at large, to represent the whole State in the House of Representatives at Washington. Logan's majority at the election was 55,987. Members of Congress were also elected from the thirteen congressional districts, nine of whom were Republicans, and four Democrats. The State officers elected were all Republican. The Legislature, which meets biennially, assembled on the 5th of January, 1869. Its composition is as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	18	53	76
Democrats	7	27	34
Rep. majority....	11	31	42

The Governor of Illinois is chosen for a term of four years. R. J. Oglesby who had been the efficient Executive of the State since the beginning of 1865, retired from office immediately after the opening of the Legislature, and on the 13th of January, 1869, General John M. Palmer was inaugurated as the fourteenth Governor of the Commonwealth.

IMPEACHMENT. *Proceedings of the Senate sitting for the trial of ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, on Articles of Impeachment exhibited by the House of Representatives.*

On Monday, February the 24th, 1868, the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States resolved to impeach Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, of high crimes and misdemeanors, of which the Senate was apprised, and arrangements were made for the trial. On Monday, the 3d of March, articles of impeachment were agreed upon by the House of Representatives, and on the 4th the following letter of Chief-Justice Chase was presented to the Senate :

To the Senate of the United States :

Inasmuch as the sole power to try by impeachment is vested by the Constitution in the Senate, and it is made the duty of the Chief Justice to preside when the President is on trial, I take the liberty of submitting, very respectfully, some observations in respect to the proper mode of proceeding upon the impeachment which has been preferred by the House of Representatives against the President now in office. That, when the Senate sits for the trial of an impeachment, it sits as a court, seems unquestionable: that for the trial of an impeachment of the President this court must be constituted of the members of the Senate, with the Chief Justice presiding, seems equally unquestionable. The "Federalist" is regarded as the highest contemporary authority in the construction of the Constitution; and in the sixty-fourth number the functions of the Senate, sitting in their judicial capacity as a court, for the trial of an impeachment, are examined.

In a paragraph explaining the reasons for uniting the Supreme Court with the Senate in the formation of the court of impeachment, it is observed that, to a certain extent, the benefits of that union will be obtained from making the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court the president of the court of impeachment, as is proposed in the plan of the convention; while the inconveniences of an entire incorporation of the former into the latter will thus be substantially avoided. This was perhaps the prudent measure. This authority seems to leave no doubt upon either of the propositions just stated; and a statement of them will serve to introduce the question, upon which I think it my duty to state the result of my reflections to the Senate; namely, at what period, in the case of the impeachment of the President, should the court of impeachment be organized, under oath, as directed in the Constitution?

It will readily suggest itself to any one who reflects on the abilities and learning in the law which distinguished so many of the Senators, besides the reason assigned in the "Federalist," that there must have been still another for the provision requiring the Chief Justice to preside in the court of impeachment. Under the Constitution, in the case of a vacancy in the office of President, the Vice-President succeeds; and it was doubtless thought prudent and befitting that the next in succession should not preside in a proceeding through which a vacancy might be created. It was not doubted that the Senate, while sitting in its ordinary capacity, must necessarily receive from the House of Representatives some notice of its intention to impeach the President at its bar; and it does not seem to me an unwarrantable opinion, in view of this constitutional provision, that the organization of the Senate, as a court of impeachment under the Constitution, should precede the actual announcement of the impeachment on the part of the House, and it may be thought a still less unwarrantable opinion that articles of impeachment

should only be presented to a court of impeachment, that no summons or other process should issue except from the organized court, and that the rules for the government of the proceedings of such a court should be framed only by the court itself.

I have found myself unable to come to any other conclusions than these. I can assign no reason for requiring the Senate to organize a court under any other than its ordinary presiding officer for the latter proceedings upon an impeachment of the President, which does not seem to me to apply equally to the earlier. I am informed that the Senate has proceeded upon other views, and it is not my purpose to contest what its superior wisdom may have directed. All good citizens will fervently pray that no occasion may ever arise when the grave proceedings now in progress will be cited as a precedent. But it is not impossible that such an occasion may come.

Inasmuch, therefore, as the Constitution has charged the Chief Justice with an important function in the trial of an impeachment of the President, it has seemed to me fitting and obligatory, when he is unable to concur in the views of the Senate concerning matters essential to the trial, that his respectful dissent should appear.

S. P. CHASE,

Chief Justice of the United States.

On the 5th the articles of impeachment were presented to the Senate by the managers on the part of the House, who were accompanied by the House, the grand inquest of the nation, as a Committee of the Whole on the state of the Union. Mr. Bingham, chairman of the managers, read the articles as follows :

Articles exhibited by the House of Representatives of the United States, in the name of themselves and all the people of the United States, against ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, in maintenance and support of their impeachment against him for high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE I.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, unmindful of the high duties of his office, of his oath of office, and of the requirement of the Constitution that he should take care that the laws be faithfully executed, did unlawfully and in violation of the Constitution and laws of the United States issue an order in writing for the removal of Edwin M. Stanton from the office of Secretary for the Department of War, said Edwin M. Stanton having been theretofore duly appointed and commissioned, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, as such Secretary, and said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, on the 12th day of August, in the year of our Lord 1867, and during the recess of said Senate, having suspended by his order Edwin M. Stanton from said office, and within twenty days after the first day of the next meeting of said Senate, that is to say, on the 12th day of December, in the year last aforesaid, having reported to said Senate such suspension, with the evidence and reasons for his action in the case and the name of the person designated to perform the duties of such office temporarily until the next meeting of the Senate, and said Senate thereafter, on the 13th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1868, having duly considered the evidence and reasons reported by said Andrew Johnson for said suspension, and having refused to concur in said suspension, whereby and by force of the provisions of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, said Edwin M. Stanton did forthwith resume the functions of his office, whereof the said Andrew Johnson had then and there due notice, and said Edwin M. Stanton, by reason of the premises, on said 21st day of February, being lawfully entitled to hold said office as Secretary for the Department of

War, which said order for the removal of said Edwin M. Stanton is in substance as follows, that is to say :

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 21, 1868. }

SIR: By virtue of the power and authority vested in me as President by the Constitution and laws of the United States, you are hereby removed from office as Secretary for the Department of War, and your functions as such will terminate upon receipt of this communication.

You will transfer to Brevet Major-General Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General of the Army, who has this day been authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, all records, books, papers, and other public property now in your custody and charge.

Respectfully yours,
ANDREW JOHNSON.
Hon. EDWIN M. STANTON, Washington, D. C.

Which order was unlawfully issued, with intent then and there to violate the act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867; and, with the further intent, contrary to the provisions of said act, in violation thereof, and contrary to the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, and without the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, the said Senate then and there being in session, to remove said Edwin M. Stanton from the office of Secretary for the Department of War, the said Edwin M. Stanton being then and there Secretary of War, and being then and there in the due and lawful execution and discharge of the duties of said office, whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE II.

That on said 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office, of his oath of office, and in violation of the Constitution of the United States, and contrary to the provisions of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, without the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, said Senate then and there being in session, and without authority of law, did, with intent to violate the Constitution of the United States and the act aforesaid, issue and deliver to one Lorenzo Thomas a letter of authority, in substance as follows, that is to say :

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 21, 1868. }

SIR: Hon. Edwin M. Stanton having this day been removed from office as Secretary for the Department of War, you are hereby authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, and will immediately enter upon the discharge of the duties pertaining to that office.

Mr. Stanton has been instructed to transfer to you all the records, books, papers, and other public property now in his custody and charge.

Respectfully yours,
ANDREW JOHNSON.
To Brevet Major-General LORENZO THOMAS, Adjutant-General United States Army, Washington, D. C.

then and there being no vacancy in said office of Secretary for the Department of War; whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit, and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE III.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, did commit and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office, in this, that, without authority of law, while the Senate of the United States was then and there in session, he did appoint one Lorenzo Thomas to be Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*, without the advice and consent of the Senate, and with intent to violate the Constitution of the United States, no vacancy having happened in said office of Secretary for the Department of War during the recess of the Senate, and no vacancy existing in said office at the time, and which said appointment, so

made by said Andrew Johnson, of said Lorenzo Thomas, is in substance as follows, that is to say :
[Same as in Article II.]

ARTICLE IV.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office, and of his oath of office, in violation of the Constitution and laws of the United States, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, did unlawfully conspire with one Lorenzo Thomas, and with other persons, to the House of Representatives unknown, with intent by intimidation and threats unlawfully to hinder and prevent Edwin M. Stanton, then and there the Secretary for the Department of War, duly appointed under the laws of the United States, from holding said office of Secretary for the Department of War, contrary to and in violation of the Constitution of the United States, and of the provisions of an act entitled "An act to define and punish certain conspiracies," approved July 31, 1861, whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit and was guilty of a high crime in office.

ARTICLE V.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office, and of his oath of office, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, and on divers other days and times in said year, before the 2d day of March, A. D. 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, did unlawfully conspire with one Lorenzo Thomas, and with other persons to the House of Representatives unknown, to prevent and hinder the execution of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, and in pursuance of said conspiracy did unlawfully attempt to prevent Edwin M. Stanton, then and there being Secretary for the Department of War, duly appointed and commissioned under the laws of the United States, from holding said office, whereby the said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE VI.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office and of his oath of office, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, did unlawfully conspire with one Lorenzo Thomas by force to seize, take, and possess the property of the United States in the Department of War, and then and there in the custody and charge of Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary for said Department, contrary to the provisions of an act entitled "An act to define and punish certain conspiracies," approved July 31, 1861, and with intent to violate and disregard an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit a high crime in office.

ARTICLE VII.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office and of his oath of office, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, did unlawfully conspire with one Lorenzo Thomas with intent unlawfully to seize, take, and possess the property of the United States in the Department of War, in the custody and charge of Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of said Department, with intent to violate and disregard the act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE VIII.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office and of his oath of office, with intent unlawfully to control the disbursements of the moneys appropriated for the military service and for the Department of War, on the 21st day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, did unlawfully and contrary to the provisions of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, and in violation of the Constitution of the United States, and without the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, and while the Senate was then and there in session, there being no vacancy in the office of Secretary for the Department of War, with intent to violate and disregard the act aforesaid, then and there issue and deliver to one Lorenzo Thomas a letter of authority in writing, in substance as follows, that is to say:

[Same as in Article II.]

Whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE IX.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, on the 22d day of February, in the year of our Lord 1868, at Washington, in the District of Columbia, in disregard of the Constitution and the laws of the United States, duly enacted, as Commander-in-chief of the Army of the United States, did bring before himself then and there William H. Emory, a major-general by brevet in the Army of the United States, actually in command of the department of Washington and the military forces thereof, and did then and there, as such Commander-in-chief, declare to and instruct said Emory that part of a law of the United States, passed March 2, 1867, entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the Army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," especially the second section thereof, which provides, among other things, that "all orders and instructions, relating to military operations, issued by the President or Secretary of War, shall be issued through the General of the Army, and, in case of his inability, through the next in rank," was unconstitutional, and in contravention of the commission of said Emory, and which said provision of law had been theretofore duly and legally promulgated by general order for the government and direction of the Army of the United States, as the said Andrew Johnson then and there well knew, with intent thereby to induce said Emory, in his official capacity as commander of the department of Washington, to violate the provisions of said act, and to take and receive, act upon, and obey such orders as he, the said Andrew Johnson, might make and give, and which should not be issued through the General of the Army of the United States, according to the provisions of said act, and with the further intent thereby to enable him, the said Andrew Johnson, to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, and to unlawfully prevent Edwin M. Stanton, then being Secretary for the Department of War, from holding said office and discharging the duties thereof, whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then and there commit and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE X.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office and the dignity and proprieties thereof, and of the harmony and courtesies which ought to exist and be maintained between the executive and legislative branches of the Government of the United States, designing and intending to set aside the rightful authority and powers of Congress, did attempt to

bring into disgrace, ridicule, hatred, contempt and reproach the Congress of the United States and the several branches thereof, to impair and destroy the regard and respect of all the good people of the United States for the Congress and legislative power thereof (which all officers of the Government ought inviolably to preserve and maintain), and to excite the odium and resentment of all the good people of the United States against Congress and the laws by it duly and constitutionally enacted; and, in pursuance of said design and intent, openly and publicly, and before divers assemblages of the citizens of the United States convened in divers parts thereof to meet and receive said Andrew Johnson, as the Chief Magistrate of the United States, did, on the 18th day of August, in the year of our Lord 1866, and on divers other days and times, as well before as afterward, make and deliver, with aloud voice, certain intemperate, inflammatory, and scandalous harangues, and did therein utter loud threats and bitter menaces, as well against Congress as the laws of the United States duly enacted thereby, amid the cries, jeers, and laughter of the multitudes then assembled and within hearing, which are set forth in the several specifications hereinafter written, in substance and effect, that is to say:

[Here are set out three specifications, quoting parts of speeches alleged to have been made by the President, August 15, September 3, and September 8, 1866.]

Which said utterances, declarations, threats, and harangues, highly censurable in any, are peculiarly indecent and unbecoming in the Chief Magistrate of the United States, by means whereof said Andrew Johnson has brought the high office of the President of the United States into contempt, ridicule, and disgrace, to the great scandal of all good citizens, whereby said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did commit and was then and there guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ARTICLE XI.

That said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, unmindful of the high duties of his office and of his oath of office, and in disregard of the Constitution and laws of the United States, did heretofore, to wit: on the 18th day of August, 1866, at the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, by public speech, declare and affirm in substance that the Thirty-ninth Congress of the United States was not a Congress of the United States authorized by the Constitution to exercise legislative power under the same, but, on the contrary, was a Congress of only part of the States, thereby denying and intending to deny that the legislation of said Congress was valid or obligatory upon him, the said Andrew Johnson, except in so far as he saw fit to approve the same, and also thereby denying and intending to deny the power of said Thirty-ninth Congress to propose amendments to the Constitution of the United States; and, in pursuance of said declaration, the said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, afterward, to wit: on the 21st day of February, 1868, at the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, did unlawfully and in disregard of the requirements of the Constitution, that he should take care that the laws be faithfully executed, attempt to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March, 2, 1867, by unlawfully devising and contriving, and attempting to devise and contrive, means by which he should prevent Edwin M. Stanton from forthwith resuming the functions of the office of Secretary for the Department of War, notwithstanding the refusal of the Senate to concur in the suspension theretofore made by Andrew Johnson of said Edwin M. Stanton from said office of Secretary for the Department of War, and also by further unlawfully devising and contriving, and attempting to devise and contrive, means then and there to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of

the Army for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," approved March 2, 1867, and also to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867; whereby the said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, did then, to wit: on the 21st day of February, 1868, at the city of Washington, commit and was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

And the House of Representatives, by protestation, saving to themselves the liberty of exhibiting at any time hereafter any further articles or other accusation, or impeachment against the said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, and also of replying to his answers which he shall make unto the articles herein preferred against him, and of offering proof to the same and every part thereof, and to all and every other article, accusation, or impeachment which shall be exhibited by them, as the case shall require, do demand that the said Andrew Johnson may be put to answer the high crimes and misdemeanors in office herein charged against him, and that such proceedings, examinations, trials, and judgments may be thereupon had and given as may be agreeable to law and justice.

The Senate, in its preparation for so momentous an event, adopted rules of procedure and practice for the guidance of the court; and, to accord with the conviction of the Chief Justice that the court should adopt its own rules, they were *pro forma* again adopted when the court met. They are as follows:

Rules of Procedure and Practice in the Senate when sitting on the Trial of Impeachments.

I. Whenever the Senate shall receive notice from the House of Representatives that managers are appointed on their part to conduct an impeachment against any person, and are directed to carry articles of impeachment to the Senate, the Secretary of the Senate shall immediately inform the House of Representatives that the Senate is ready to receive the managers for the purpose of exhibiting such articles of impeachment agreeably to said notice.

II. When the managers of an impeachment shall be introduced at the bar of the Senate, and shall signify that they are ready to exhibit articles of impeachment against any person, the Presiding Officer of the Senate shall direct the Sergeant-at-Arms to make proclamation, who shall, after making proclamation, repeat the following words, viz.: "All persons are commanded to keep silence, on pain of imprisonment, while the House of Representatives is exhibiting to the Senate of the United States articles of impeachment against ————;" after which the articles shall be exhibited, and then the Presiding Officer of the Senate shall inform the managers that the Senate will take proper order on the subject of the impeachment, of which due notice shall be given to the House of Representatives.

III. Upon such articles being presented to the Senate, the Senate shall, at one o'clock afternoon of the day (Sunday excepted) following such presentation, or sooner if so ordered by the Senate, proceed to the consideration of such articles, and shall continue in session from day to day (Sundays excepted), after the trial shall commence (unless otherwise ordered by the Senate), until final judgment shall be rendered, and so much longer as may, in its judgment, be needful. Before proceeding to the consideration of the articles of impeachment, the Presiding Officer shall administer the oath hereinafter provided to the members of the Senate then present, and to the other members of the Senate as they shall appear, whose duty it shall be to take the same.

IV. When the President of the United States, or the Vice-President of the United States, upon whom the powers and duties of the office of President shall have devolved, shall be impeached, the Chief Justice

of the Supreme Court of the United States shall preside; and in a case requiring the said Chief Justice to preside, notice shall be given to him, by the Presiding Officer of the Senate, of the time and place fixed for the consideration of the articles of impeachment, as aforesaid, with a request to attend; and the said Chief Justice shall preside over the Senate during the consideration of said articles, and upon the trial of the person impeached therein.

V. The Presiding Officer shall have power to make and issue, by himself or by the Secretary of the Senate, all orders, mandates, writs, and precepts authorized by these rules, or by the Senate, and to make and enforce such other regulations and orders in the premises as the Senate may authorize or provide.

VI. The Senate shall have power to compel the attendance of witnesses, to enforce obedience to its orders, mandates, writs, precepts, and judgments, to preserve order, and to punish in a summary way contempts of and disobedience to its authority, orders, mandates, writs, precepts, or judgments, and to make all lawful orders, rules, and regulations, which it may deem essential or conducive to the ends of justice. And the Sergeant-at-Arms, under the direction of the Senate, may employ such aid and assistance as may be necessary to enforce, execute, and carry into effect the lawful orders, mandates, writs, and precepts of the Senate.

VII. The Presiding Officer of the Senate shall direct all necessary preparations in the Senate Chamber, and the presiding officer upon the trial shall direct all the forms of proceeding while the Senate are sitting for the purpose of trying an impeachment, and all forms during the trial not otherwise specially provided for. The presiding officer may, in the first instance, submit to the Senate, without a division, all questions of evidence and incidental questions; but the same shall, on the demand of one-fifth of the members present, be decided by yeas and nays.

VIII. Upon the presentation of articles of impeachment and the organization of the Senate as hereinbefore provided, a writ of summons shall issue to the accused, reciting said articles and notifying him to appear before the Senate upon a day and at a place to be fixed by the Senate and named in such writ, and file his answer to said articles of impeachment, and to stand to and abide the orders and judgments of the Senate thereon; which writ shall be served by such officer or person as shall be named in the precept thereof such number of days prior to the day fixed for such appearance as shall be named in such precept, either by the delivery of an attested copy thereof to the person accused, or, if that cannot conveniently be done, by leaving such copy at the last known place of abode of such person or at his usual place of business, in some conspicuous place therein; or if such service shall be, in the judgment of the Senate, impracticable, notice to the accused to appear shall be given in such other manner, by publication or otherwise, as shall be deemed just; and if the writ aforesaid shall fail of service in the manner aforesaid the proceedings shall not thereby abate, but further service may be made in such manner as the Senate shall direct. If the accused, after service, shall fail to appear, either in person or by attorney, on the day so fixed therefor as aforesaid, or, appearing, shall fail to file his answer to such articles of impeachment, the trial shall proceed, nevertheless, as upon a plea of not guilty. If a plea of guilty shall be entered, judgment may be entered thereon without further proceedings.

IX. At twelve o'clock and thirty minutes afternoon of the day appointed for the return of the summons against the person impeached, the legislative and executive business of the Senate shall be suspended, and the Secretary of the Senate shall administer an oath to the returning officer in the form following, viz.: "I, ————, do solemnly swear that the return made by me upon the process issued on the

— day of —, by the Senate of the United States, against —, is truly made, and that I have performed such service as therein described; so help me God." Which oath shall be entered at large on the records.

X. The person impeached shall then be called to appear and answer the articles of impeachment against him. If he appear, or any person for him, the appearance shall be recorded, stating particularly if by himself, or by agent, or attorney, naming the person appearing, and the capacity in which he appears. If he do not appear, either personally or by agent or attorney, the same shall be recorded.

XI. At twelve o'clock and thirty minutes afternoon of the day appointed for the trial of an impeachment, the legislative and executive business of the Senate shall be suspended, and the Secretary shall give notice to the House of Representatives that the Senate is ready to proceed upon the impeachment of —, in the Senate Chamber, which Chamber is prepared with accommodations for the reception of the House of Representatives.

XII. The hour of the day at which the Senate shall sit upon the trial of an impeachment shall be (unless otherwise ordered) twelve o'clock *m.*; and, when the hour for such sitting shall arrive, the Presiding Officer of the Senate shall so announce; and thereupon the presiding officer upon such trial shall cause proclamation to be made, and the business of the trial shall proceed. The adjournment of the Senate sitting in said trial shall not operate as an adjournment of the Senate; but on such adjournment the Senate shall resume the consideration of its legislative and executive business.

XIII. The Secretary of the Senate shall record the proceedings in cases of impeachment as in the case of legislative proceedings, and the same shall be reported in the same manner as the legislative proceedings of the Senate.

XIV. Counsel for the parties shall be admitted to appear and be heard upon an impeachment.

XV. All motions made by the parties or their counsel shall be addressed to the presiding officer, and if he, or any Senator, shall require it, they shall be committed to writing, and read at the Secretary's table.

XVI. Witnesses shall be examined by one person on behalf of the party producing them, and then cross-examined by one person on the other side.

XVII. If a Senator is called as a witness, he shall be sworn and give his testimony standing in his place.

XVIII. If a Senator wishes a question to be put to a witness, or to offer a motion or order (except a motion to adjourn), it shall be reduced to writing, and put by the presiding officer.

XIX. At all times while the Senate is sitting upon the trial of an impeachment the doors of the Senate shall be kept open, unless the Senate shall direct the doors to be closed while deliberating upon its decisions.

XX. All preliminary or interlocutory questions, and all motions, shall be argued for not exceeding one hour on each side, unless the Senate shall, by order, extend the time.

XXI. The case, on each side, shall be opened by one person. The final argument on the merits may be made by two persons on each side (unless otherwise ordered by the Senate, upon application for that purpose), and the argument shall be opened and closed on the part of the House of Representatives.

XXII. On the final question whether the impeachment is sustained, the yeas and nays shall be taken on each article of impeachment separately; and if the impeachment shall not, upon any of the articles presented, be sustained by the votes of two-thirds of the members present, a judgment of acquittal shall be entered; but if the person accused in such articles of impeachment shall be convicted upon any of said

articles by the votes of two-thirds of the members present, the Senate shall proceed to pronounce judgment, and a certified copy of such judgment shall be deposited in the office of the Secretary of State.

XXIII. All the orders and decisions shall be made and had by yeas and nays, which shall be entered on the record, and without debate, except when the doors shall be closed for deliberation, and in that case no member shall speak more than once on one question, and for not more than ten minutes on an interlocutory question, and for not more than fifteen minutes on the final question, unless by consent of the Senate, to be had without debate; but a motion to adjourn may be decided without the yeas and nays, unless they be demanded by one-fifth of the members present.

XXIV. Witnesses shall be sworn in the following form, namely: "You, —, do swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that the evidence you shall give in the case now depending between the United States and — shall be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth: so help you God." Which oath shall be administered by the Secretary or any other duly-authorized person.

Form of subpoena to be issued on the application of the managers of the impeachment, or of the party impeached, or of his counsel:

To —, greeting:

You and each of you are hereby commanded to appear before the Senate of the United States, on the — day of —, at the Senate Chamber, in the city of Washington, then and there to testify your knowledge in the cause which is before the Senate, in which the House of Representatives have impeached —.

Fail not.

Witness —, and Presiding Officer of the Senate, at the city of Washington, this — day of —, in the year of our Lord —, and of the independence of the United States the —.

Form of direction for the service of said subpoena:
The Senate of the United States to — greeting:

You are hereby commanded to serve and return the within subpoena according to law.

Dated at Washington, this — day of —, in the year of our Lord —, and of the independence of the United States the —.

Secretary of the Senate.

Form of oath to be administered to the members of the Senate sitting in the trial of impeachments:

"I solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that in all things appertaining to the trial of the impeachment of —, now pending, I will do impartial justice according to the Constitution and laws: so help me God."

Form of summons to be issued and served upon the person impeached:

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, ss:

The Senate of the United States to — greeting:

Whereas the House of Representatives of the United States of America did, on the — day of —, exhibit to the Senate articles of impeachment against you, the said —, in the words following:

[Here insert the articles.]

And demand that you, the said —, should be put to answer the accusations as set forth in said articles, and that such proceedings, examinations, trials, and judgments might be thereupon had as are agreeable to law and justice;

You, the said —, are therefore hereby summoned to be and appear before the Senate of the United States of America, at their Chamber, in the city of Washington, on the — day of —, at twelve o'clock and thirty minutes afternoon, then and there to answer to the said articles of impeachment, and then and there to abide by, obey, and perform such orders, directions, and judgments as the Senate of the United States shall make in the prem-

ises according to the Constitution and laws of the United States.

Hereof you are not to fail.

Witness ———, and Presiding Officer of the said Senate, at the city of Washington, this ——— day of ———, in the year of our Lord ———, and of the independence of the United States the ———.

Form of precept to be indorsed on said writ of summons:

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, ss:

The Senate of the United States to ——— greeting:

You are hereby commanded to deliver to and leave with ———, if conveniently to be found, or, if not, to leave at his usual place of abode, or at his usual place of business, in some conspicuous place, a true and attested copy of the within writ of summons, together with a like copy of this precept; and in whichever way you perform the service let it be done at least ——— days before the appearance day mentioned in said writ of summons.

Fail not, and make return of this writ of summons and precept, with your proceedings thereon indorsed, on or before the appearance day mentioned in the said writ of summons.

Witness ———, and Presiding Officer of the Senate, at the city of Washington, this ——— day of ———, in the year of our Lord ———, and of the independence of the United States the ———.

All process shall be served by the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate, unless otherwise ordered by the court.

XXV. If the Senate shall at any time fail to sit for the consideration of articles of impeachment on the day or hour fixed therefor, the Senate may, by an order to be adopted without debate, fix a day and hour for resuming such consideration.

The court was organized on Thursday, the 5th of March, the oath being administered to the Chief Justice of the United States by Associate Justice Nelson, and by the Chief Justice to the Senators present, except Mr. Wade, whose right to sit on the trial was challenged. On Friday the 6th, at the close of the debate on the point suggested, the objection was withdrawn, and the oath was administered. On Friday, the 13th of March, the trial commenced.

The Chief Justice entered the Senate Chamber and took the chair.

The Chief Justice (to the Sergeant-at-Arms): "Make proclamation."

The Sergeant-at-Arms: "Hear ye! hear ye! All persons are commanded to keep silence while the Senate of the United States is sitting for the trial of the articles of impeachment exhibited by the House of Representatives against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States."

The Secretary read the Journal of the proceedings of the Senate sitting for the trial of impeachment of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, on Friday, March 6, 1868.

Mr. Howard: "If it be now in order, to save time I ask that the order which I sent to the Chair be passed by the Senate, informing the House of Representatives that the Senate is organized for the trial of the impeachment."

The Chief Justice: "The Secretary will read the order submitted by the Senator from Michigan."

The Secretary read as follows:

Ordered, That the Secretary inform the House of Representatives that the Senate is in its Chamber, and ready to proceed with the trial of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, and that seats are provided for the accommodation of the members.

The order was agreed to.

The Chief Justice: "The Sergeant-at-Arms will introduce the managers."

The managers on the part of the House of Representatives appeared at the bar, were announced by the Sergeant-at-Arms, and conducted to the position assigned them.

Managers.—Hon. John A. Bingham, of Ohio; George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; James F. Wilson, of Iowa; John A. Logan, of Illinois; Thomas Williams, of Pennsylvania; Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts; Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania.

The Secretary then called the names of Senators who were not previously sworn.

Messrs. Edmunds, Patterson of New Hampshire, and Vickers, severally, as their names were called, advanced to the desk, and the prescribed oath was administered to them by the Chief Justice.

The Chief Clerk then read the following return appended to the writ of summons:

The foregoing writ of summons, addressed to Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, and the foregoing precept, addressed to me, were this day duly served on the said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, by delivering to and leaving with him true and attested copies of the same at the Executive Mansion, the usual place of abode of the said Andrew Johnson, on Saturday, the 7th day of March instant, at seven o'clock in the afternoon of that day.

GEORGE T. BROWN,

Sergeant-at-Arms of the U. S. Senate.

WASHINGTON, March 7, 1868.

The Chief Clerk administered to the Sergeant-at-Arms the following oath:

"I, George T. Brown, Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate of the United States, do swear that the return made and prescribed by me upon the process issued on the 7th day of March, A. D. 1868, by the Senate of the United States against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, is truly made, and that I have performed said service therein prescribed. So help me God."

The Chief Justice: "The Sergeant-at-Arms will call the accused."

The Sergeant-at-Arms: "Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, appear and answer the articles of impeachment exhibited against you by the House of Representatives of the United States."

Mr. Johnson: "I understand that the President has retained counsel, and that they are now in the President's room attached to this wing of the Capitol. They are not advised, I believe, of the court being organized. I move that the Sergeant-at-Arms inform them of that fact."

The Chief Justice: "If there be no objection, the Sergeant-at-Arms will so inform the counsel of the President."

The Sergeant-at-Arms presently returned with Hon. Henry Stanbery, of Kentucky; Hon.

Benjamin R. Curtis, of Massachusetts; and Hon. Thomas A. R. Nelson, of Tennessee; who were conducted to the seats assigned the counsel of the President.

Mr. Conkling: "To correct a clerical error in the rules or a mistake of the types which has introduced a repugnance into the rules, I offer the following resolution by direction of the committee which reported the rules:

Ordered, That the twenty-third rule respecting proceedings on trial of impeachments be amended, by inserting after the word "debate" the words "subject, however, to the operation of rule seven."

"If thus amended the rule will read:

All orders and decisions shall be made and had by yeas and nays, which shall be entered on the record and without debate, subject, however, to the operation of rule seven, except when the doors shall be closed, etc.

"The whole object is to commit to the presiding officer the option to submit a question without the call of the yeas and nays, unless they be demanded. That was the intention originally, but the qualifying words were dropped out in the print."

The Chief Justice: "The question is on amending the rules in the manner proposed by the Senator from New York."

The amendment was agreed to.

The Sergeant-at-Arms announced the members of the House of Representatives, who entered the Senate Chamber preceded by the chairman of the Committee of the Whole House, into which that body had resolved itself to witness the trial, the chairman being accompanied by the Speaker and Clerk.

The Chief Justice (to the counsel for the President): "Gentlemen, the Senate is now sitting for the trial of the President of the United States upon articles of impeachment exhibited by the House of Representatives. The court will now hear you."

Mr. Stanbery: "Mr. Chief Justice, my brothers Curtis and Nelson and myself are here this morning as counsel for the President. I have his authority to enter his appearance, which, with your leave, I will proceed to read:

In the matter of the impeachment of ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States.

MR. CHIEF JUSTICE: I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, having been served with a summons to appear before this honorable court, sitting as a court of impeachment, to answer certain articles of impeachment found and presented against me by the honorable House of Representatives of the United States, do hereby enter my appearance by my counsel, Henry Stanbery, Benjamin R. Curtis, Jeremiah S. Black, William M. Everts, and Thomas A. R. Nelson, who have my warrant and authority therefor, and who are instructed by me to ask of this honorable court a reasonable time for the preparation of my answer to said articles.

After a careful examination of the articles of impeachment and consultation with my counsel, I am satisfied that at least forty days will be necessary for the preparation of my answer, and I respectfully ask that it be allowed.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

The Chief Justice: "The paper will be filed."

After argument, and the Senate had retired for consultation, it was ordered that the respondent file answer to the articles of impeachment, on or before Monday, the 23d day of March, and further, that, unless otherwise ordered by the Senate for cause shown, the trial of the pending impeachment shall proceed immediately after replication shall be filed.

March 23d, the court convened, when the answer of the President was read by his counsel as follows:

Senate of the United States, sitting as a Court of Impeachment for the trial of ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States.

The answer of the said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, to the articles of impeachment exhibited against him by the House of Representatives of the United States.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE I.

For answer to the first article he says: that Edwin M. Stanton was appointed Secretary for the Department of War on the 15th day of January, A. D. 1862, by Abraham Lincoln, then President of the United States, during the first term of his Presidency, and was commissioned, according to the Constitution and laws of the United States, to hold the said office during the pleasure of the President; that the office of Secretary for the Department of War was created by an act of the First Congress, in its first session, passed on the 7th day of August, A. D. 1789, and in and by that act it was provided and enacted that the said Secretary for the Department of War shall perform and execute such duties as shall from time to time be enjoined on and intrusted to him by the President of the United States, agreeably to the Constitution, relative to the subjects within the scope of the said Department; and furthermore, that the said Secretary shall conduct the business of the said Department in such a manner as the President of the United States shall, from time to time, order and instruct.

And this respondent, further answering, says that by force of the act aforesaid and by reason of his appointment aforesaid, the said Stanton became the principal officer in one of the Executive Departments of the Government within the true intent and meaning of the second section of the second article of the Constitution of the United States, and according to the true intent and meaning of that provision of the Constitution of the United States; and in accordance with the settled and uniform practice of each and every President of the United States, the said Stanton then became, and so long as he should continue to hold the said office of Secretary for the Department of War must continue to be, one of the advisers of the President of the United States, as well as the person intrusted to act for and represent the President in matters enjoined upon him or intrusted to him by the President touching the Department aforesaid, and for whose conduct in such capacity, subordinate to the President, the President is, by the Constitution and laws of the United States, made responsible. And this respondent, further answering, says he succeeded to the office of President of the United States upon, and by reason of, the death of Abraham Lincoln, then President of the United States, on the 15th day of April, 1865, and the said Stanton was then holding the said office of Secretary for the Department of War under and by reason of the appointment and commission aforesaid; and, not having been removed from the said office by this respondent, the said Stanton continued to hold the same under the appointment and commission aforesaid, at the pleasure of the President, until the time hereinafter particularly mentioned; and at no time

received any appointment or commission save as above detailed.

And this respondent, further answering, says that on and prior to the 5th day of August, A. D. 1867, this respondent, the President of the United States—responsible for the conduct of the Secretary for the Department of War, and having the constitutional right to resort to and rely upon the person holding that office for advice concerning the great and difficult public duties enjoined on the President by the Constitution and laws of the United States—became satisfied that he could not allow the said Stanton to continue to hold the office of Secretary for the Department of War, without hazard of the public interest; that the relations between the said Stanton and the President no longer permitted the President to resort to him for advice, or to be, in the judgment of the President, safely responsible for his conduct of the affairs of the Department of War, as by law required, in accordance with the orders and instructions of the President; and thereupon, by force of the Constitution and laws of the United States, which devolve on the President the power and the duty to control the conduct of the business of that executive department of the Government, and by reason of the constitutional duty of the President to take care that the laws be faithfully executed, this respondent did necessarily consider, and did determine, that the said Stanton ought no longer to hold the said office of Secretary for the Department of War. And this respondent, by virtue of the power and authority vested in him as President of the United States, by the Constitution and laws of the United States, to give effect to such his decision and determination, did, on the 5th day of August, A. D. 1867, address to the said Stanton a note, of which the following is a true copy:

“SIR: Public considerations of a high character constrain me to say that your resignation as Secretary of War will be accepted.”

To which note the said Stanton made the following reply:

WAR DEPARTMENT,
WASHINGTON, August 5, 1867.

SIR: Your note of this day has been received, stating that “public considerations of a high character constrain you” to say “that my resignation as Secretary of War will be accepted.”

In reply I have the honor to say, that public considerations of a high character, which alone have induced me to continue at the head of this Department, constrain me not to resign the office of Secretary of War, before the next meeting of Congress.

Very respectfully, yours,

EDWIN M. STANTON.

This respondent, as President of the United States, was thereon of opinion that, having regard to the necessary official relations and duties of the Secretary for the Department of War to the President of the United States, according to the Constitution and laws of the United States, and having regard to the responsibility of the President for the conduct of the said Secretary, and having regard to the paramount executive authority of the office which the respondent holds under the Constitution and laws of the United States, it was impossible, consistently with the public interests, to allow the said Stanton to continue to hold the said office of Secretary for the Department of War; and it then became the official duty of the respondent, as President of the United States, to consider and decide what act or acts should and might lawfully be done by him, as President of the United States, to cause the said Stanton to surrender the said office.

This respondent was informed and verily believed that it was practically settled by the First Congress of the United States, and had been so considered and, uniformly and in great numbers of instances, acted on by each Congress and President of the United States, in succession, from President Washington to and including President Lincoln, and from

the First Congress to the Thirty-ninth Congress, that the Constitution of the United States conferred on the President, as part of the executive power, and as one of the necessary means and instruments of performing the executive duty expressly imposed on him by the Constitution, of taking care that the laws be faithfully executed, the power at any and all times of removing from office all executive officers, for cause, to be judged of by the President alone. This respondent had, in pursuance of the Constitution, required the opinion of each principal officer of the Executive Departments, upon this question of constitutional executive power and duty, and had been advised by each of them, including the said Stanton, Secretary for the Department of War, that under the Constitution of the United States this power was lodged by the Constitution in the President of the United States, and that, consequently, it could be lawfully exercised by him, and the Congress could not deprive him thereof; and this respondent, in his capacity of President of the United States, and because in that capacity he was both enabled and bound to use his best judgment upon this question, did, in good faith, and with an earnest desire to arrive at the truth, come to the conclusion and opinion, and did make the same known to the honorable the Senate of the United States by a message dated on the 2d day of March, 1867 (a true copy whereof is herewith annexed and marked A), that the power last mentioned was conferred and the duty of exercising it, in fit cases, was imposed on the President by the Constitution of the United States, and that the President could not be deprived of this power or relieved of this duty, nor could the same be vested by law in the President and the Senate jointly, either in part or whole; and this has ever since remained, and was the opinion of this respondent at the time when he was forced, as aforesaid, to consider and decide what act or acts should and might lawfully be done by this respondent, as President of the United States, to cause the said Stanton to surrender the said office.

This respondent was also then aware that by the first section of “an act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices,” passed March 2, 1867, by a constitutional majority of both Houses of Congress, it was enacted as follows:

That every person holding any civil office to which he has been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and every person who shall hereafter be appointed to any such office, and shall become duly qualified to act therein, is and shall be entitled to hold such office until a successor shall have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified, except as herein otherwise provided: *Provided*, That the Secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General, shall hold their offices respectively for and during the term of the President, by whom they may have been appointed, and one month thereafter, subject to removal by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

This respondent was also aware that this act was understood and intended to be an expression of the opinion of the Congress by which that act was passed, that the power to remove executive officers for cause might, by law, be taken from the President and vested in him and the Senate jointly; and although this respondent had arrived at and still retained the opinion above expressed and verily believed, as he still believes, that the said first section of the last-mentioned act was and is wholly inoperative and void by reason of its conflict with the Constitution of the United States, yet, inasmuch as the same had been enacted by the constitutional majority in each of the two Houses of that Congress, this respondent considered it to be proper to examine and decide whether the particular case of the said Stanton, on which it was this respondent's duty to act, was within or without the terms of that first section of the act; or, if within it, whether the President had not the power, according to the terms of the

act, to remove the said Stanton from the office of Secretary for the Department of War, and having, in his capacity of President of the United States, so examined and considered, did form the opinion that the case of the said Stanton and his tenure of office were not affected by the first section of the last-named act.

And this respondent, further answering, says, that although a case thus existed which, in his judgment as President of the United States, called for the exercise of the executive power to remove the said Stanton from the office of Secretary for the Department of War, and although this respondent was of opinion, as is above shown, that under the Constitution of the United States the power to remove the said Stanton from the said office was vested in the President of the United States; and although this respondent was also of the opinion, as is above shown, that the case of the said Stanton was not affected by the first section of the last-named act; and although each of the said opinions had been formed by this respondent upon an actual case, requiring him, in his capacity of President of the United States, to come to some judgment and determination thereon, yet this respondent, as President of the United States, desired and determined to avoid, if possible, any question of the construction and effect of the said first section of the last-named act, and also the broader question of the executive power conferred on the President of the United States, by the Constitution of the United States, to remove one of the principal officers of one of the Executive Departments, for cause seeming to him sufficient; and this respondent also desired and determined that, if, from causes over which he could exert no control, it should become absolutely necessary to raise and have, in some way, determined either or both of the said last-named questions, it was in accordance with the Constitution of the United States, and was required of the President thereby, that questions of so much gravity and importance, upon which the legislative and executive departments of the Government had disagreed, which involved powers considered by all branches of the Government, during its entire history, down to the year 1867, to have been confided by the Constitution of the United States to the President, and to be necessary for the complete and proper execution of his constitutional duties, should be in some proper way submitted to that judicial department of the Government intrusted by the Constitution with the power, and subjected by it to the duty, not only of determining finally the construction and effect of all acts of Congress, but of comparing them with the Constitution of the United States, and pronouncing them inoperative when found in conflict with that fundamental law which the people have enacted for the government of all their servants. And to these ends, first, that, through the action of the Senate of the United States, the absolute duty of the President to substitute some fit person in place of Mr. Stanton as one of his advisers, and as a principal subordinate officer whose official conduct he was responsible for, and had lawful right to control, might, if possible, be accomplished without the necessity of raising any one of the questions aforesaid; and, second, if this duty could not be so performed, then that these questions, or such of them as might necessarily arise, should be judicially determined in manner aforesaid, and for no other end or purpose, this respondent, as President of the United States, on the 12th day of August, 1867, seven days after the reception of the letter of the said Stanton of the 5th of August, hereinbefore stated, did issue to the said Stanton the order following, namely:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }

WASHINGTON, August 12, 1867. }

SIR: By virtue of the power and authority vested in me, as President, by the Constitution and laws of the United States, you are hereby suspended from office as Secretary of War, and will cease to exercise any and all functions pertaining to the same.

You will at once transfer to General Ulysses S. Grant, who has this day been authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, all records, books, papers, and other public property now in your custody and charge.

HON. EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

To which said order the said Stanton made the following reply:

WAR DEPARTMENT, }

WASHINGTON CITY, August 12, 1867. }

SIR: Your note of this date has been received, informing me that by virtue of the powers vested in you as President, by the Constitution and laws of the United States, I am suspended from office as Secretary of War, and will cease to exercise any and all functions pertaining to the same; and also directing me at once to transfer to General Ulysses S. Grant, who has this day been authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, all records, books, papers, and other public property now in my custody and charge. Under a sense of public duty, I am compelled to deny your right, under the Constitution and laws of the United States, without the advice and consent of the Senate, and without legal cause, to suspend me from office as Secretary of War, or the exercise of any or all functions pertaining to the same, or without such advice and consent to compel me to transfer to any person the records, books, papers, and public property in my custody as Secretary. But, inasmuch as the General commanding the armies of the United States has been appointed *ad interim*, and has notified me that he has accepted the appointment, I have no alternative but to submit, under protest, to superior force.

TO THE PRESIDENT.

And this respondent, further answering, says, that it is provided, in and by the second section of "an act to regulate the tenure of certain civil offices," that the President may suspend an officer from the performance of the duties of the office held by him, for certain causes therein designated, until the next meeting of the Senate, and until the case shall be acted on by the Senate; that this respondent, as President of the United States, was advised and he verily believed and still believes, that the executive power of removal from office, confided to him by the Constitution as aforesaid, includes the power of suspension from office at the pleasure of the President, and this respondent, by the order aforesaid, did suspend the said Stanton from office, not until the next meeting of the Senate, or until the Senate should have acted upon the case, but by force of the power and authority vested in him by the Constitution and laws of the United States, indefinitely, and at the pleasure of the President, and the order, in form aforesaid, was made known to the Senate of the United States, on the 12th day of December, A. D. 1867, as will be more fully hereinafter stated.

And this respondent, further answering, says, that in and by the act of February 13, 1795, it was, among other things, provided and enacted that, in case of vacancy in the office of Secretary for the Department of War, it shall be lawful for the President, in case he shall think it necessary, to authorize any person to perform the duties of that office until a successor be appointed or such vacancy filled, but not exceeding the term of six months; and this respondent, being advised and believing that such law was in full force and not repealed, by an order dated August 12, 1867, did authorize and empower Ulysses S. Grant, General of the armies of the United States, to act as Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*, in the form in which similar authority had theretofore been given, not until the next meeting of the Senate, and until the Senate should act on the case, but at the pleasure of the President, subject only to the limitation of six months, in the said last-mentioned act contained; and a copy of the last-named order was made known to the Senate of the United States, on the 12th day of December, A. D. 1867, as will be hereinafter more fully stated; and, in pursuance of the design and intention aforesaid, if it should become necessary, to submit the said questions to a judicial determination, this respondent, at or near the date of the last-mentioned order, did make known

such his purpose to obtain a judicial decision of the said questions, or such of them as might be necessary.

And this respondent, further answering, says, that in further pursuance of his intention and design, if possible, to perform what he judged to be his imperative duty, to prevent the said Stanton from longer holding the office of Secretary for the Department of War, and at the same time avoiding, if possible, any question respecting the extent of the power of removal from executive office confided to the President, by the Constitution of the United States, and any question respecting the construction and effect of the first section of the said "act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," while he should not, by any act of his, abandon and relinquish, either a power which he believed the Constitution had conferred on the President of the United States, to enable him to perform the duties of his office, or a power designedly left to him by the first section of the act of Congress last aforesaid, this respondent did, on the 12th day of December, 1867, transmit to the Senate of the United States a message, a copy whereof is hereunto annexed and marked B, wherein he made known the orders aforesaid, and the reasons which had induced the same, so far as this respondent then considered it material and necessary that the same should be set forth, and reiterated his views concerning the constitutional power of removal vested in the President, and also expressed his views concerning the construction of the said first section of the last-mentioned act, as respected the power of the President to remove the said Stanton from the said office of Secretary for the Department of War, well hoping that this respondent could thus perform what he then believed, and still believes, to be his imperative duty in reference to the said Stanton, without derogating from the powers which this respondent believed were confided to the President, by the Constitution and laws, and without the necessity of raising, judicially, any questions respecting the same.

And this respondent, further answering, says, that this hope not having been realized, the President was compelled either to allow the said Stanton to resume the said office and remain therein contrary to the settled convictions of the President, formed as aforesaid, respecting the powers confided to him, and the duties required of him by the Constitution of the United States, and contrary to the opinion formed as aforesaid, that the first section of the last-mentioned act did not affect the case of the said Stanton, and contrary to the fixed belief of the President that he could no longer advise with or trust or be responsible for the said Stanton, in the said office of Secretary for the Department of War, or else he was compelled to take such steps as might, in the judgment of the President, be lawful and necessary to raise, for a judicial decision, the questions affecting the lawful right of the said Stanton to resume the said office, or the power of the said Stanton to persist in refusing to quit the said office, if he should persist in actually refusing to quit the same; and to this end, and to this end only, this respondent did, on the 21st day of February, 1868, issue the order for the removal of the said Stanton, in the said first article mentioned and set forth, and the order authorizing the said Lorenzo F. Thomas to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, in the said second article set forth.

And this respondent, proceeding to answer specifically each substantial allegation in the said first article, says: He denies that the said Stanton, on the 21st day of February, 1868, was lawfully in possession of the said office of Secretary for the Department of War. He denies that the said Stanton, on the day last mentioned, was lawfully entitled to hold the said office against the will of the President of the United States. He denies that the said order for the removal of the said Stanton was unlawfully issued. He denies that the said order was issued with intent to violate the act entitled "An act to regulate

the tenure of certain civil offices." He denies that the said order was a violation of the last-mentioned act. He denies that the said order was a violation of the Constitution of the United States, or of any law thereof, or of his oath of office. He denies that the said order was issued with an intent to violate the Constitution of the United States, or any law thereof, or this respondent's oath of office; and he respectfully, but earnestly, insists that not only was it issued by him in the performance of what he believed to be an imperative official duty, but in the performance of what this honorable court will consider was, in point of fact, an imperative official duty. And he denies that any and all substantive matters, in the said first article contained, in manner and form as the same are therein stated and set forth, do, by law, constitute a high misdemeanor in office, within the true intent and meaning of the Constitution of the United States.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE II.

And for answer to the second article, this respondent says that he admits he did issue and deliver to said Lorenzo Thomas the said writing set forth in said second article, bearing date at Washington, District of Columbia, February 21, 1868, addressed to Brevet Major-General Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General United States Army, Washington, District of Columbia, and he further admits that the same was so issued without the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, then in session, but he denies that he thereby violated the Constitution of the United States, or any law thereof, or that he did thereby intend to violate the Constitution of the United States, or the provisions of any act of Congress; and this respondent refers to his answer to said first article, for a full statement of the purposes and intentions with which said order was issued, and adopts the same as part of his answer to this article; and he further denies that there was then and there no vacancy in the said office of Secretary for the Department of War, or that he did then and there commit, or was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office, and this respondent maintains and will insist:

1. That at the date and delivery of said writing there was a vacancy existing in the office of Secretary for the Department of War.

2. That, notwithstanding the Senate of the United States was then in session, it was lawful and according to long and well-established usage to empower and authorize the said Thomas to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*.

3. That, if the said act regulating the tenure of civil offices be held to be a valid law, no provision of the same was violated by the issuing of said order, or by the designation of said Thomas to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE III.

And for answer to said third article, this respondent says that he abides by his answer to said first and second articles, in so far as the same are responsive to the allegations contained in the said third article, and, without here again repeating the same answer, prays the same be taken as an answer to this third article as fully as if here again set out at length; and as to the new allegation contained in said third article, that this respondent did appoint the said Thomas to be Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*, this respondent denies that he gave any other authority to said Thomas than such as appears in said written authority, set out in said article, by which he authorized and empowered said Thomas to act as Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*; and he denies that the same amounts to an appointment, and insists that it is only a designation of an officer of that Department to act temporarily as Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*, until an appointment should be made. But, whether the said written authority amounts to an appointment, or to a temporary authority or design-

nation, this respondent denies that in any sense he did thereby intend to violate the Constitution of the United States, or that he thereby intended to give the said order the character or effect of an appointment in the constitutional or legal sense of that term. He further denies that there was no vacancy in said office of Secretary for the Department of War existing at the date of said written authority.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE IV.

And for answer to said fourth article this respondent denies that on the said 21st day of February, 1868, at Washington aforesaid, or at any other time or place, he did unlawfully conspire with the said Lorenzo Thomas, or with the said Thomas and any other person or persons, with intent by intimidations and threats unlawfully to hinder and prevent the said Stanton from holding said office of Secretary for the Department of War, in violation of the Constitution of the United States or of the provisions of the said act of Congress in said article mentioned, or that he did then and there commit or was guilty of a high crime in office. On the contrary thereof, protesting that the said Stanton was not then and there lawfully the Secretary for the Department of War, this respondent states that his sole purpose in authorizing the said Thomas to act as Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim* was, as is fully stated in his answer to the said first article, to bring the question of the right of the said Stanton to hold said office, notwithstanding his said suspension, and notwithstanding the said order of removal and notwithstanding the said authority of the said Thomas to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, to the test of a final decision by the Supreme Court of the United States in the earliest practicable mode by which the question could be brought before that tribunal.

This respondent did not conspire or agree with the said Thomas, or any other person or persons, to use intimidation or threats to hinder or prevent the said Stanton from holding the said office of Secretary for the Department of War, nor did this respondent at any time command or advise the said Thomas or any other person or persons to resort to or use either threats or intimidation for that purpose. The only means in the contemplation or purpose of respondent to be used are set forth fully in the said orders of February 21, the first addressed to Mr. Stanton, and the second to the said Thomas. By the first order the respondent notified Mr. Stanton that he was removed from the said office, and that his functions as Secretary for the Department of War were to terminate upon the receipt of that order, and he also thereby notified the said Stanton that the said Thomas had been authorized to act as Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*, and ordered the said Stanton to transfer to him all the records, books, papers, and other public property in his custody and charge; and by the second order this respondent notified the said Thomas of the removal from office of the said Stanton, and authorized him to act as Secretary for the Department of War *ad interim*, and directed him to immediately enter upon the discharge of the duties pertaining to that office, and to receive the transfer of all the records, books, papers, and other public property from Mr. Stanton, then in his custody and charge.

Respondent gave no instructions to the said Thomas to use intimidation or threats to enforce obedience to these orders. He gave him no authority to call in the aid of the military, or any other force to enable him to obtain possession of the office, or of the books, papers, records, or property thereof. The only agency resorted to or intended to be resorted to was by means of the said executive orders requiring obedience. But the Secretary for the Department of War refused to obey these orders, and still holds undisturbed possession and custody of that Department, and of the records, books, papers, and other public property therein. Respondent further states that, in execution of the orders so by this respondent given

to the said Thomas, he, the said Thomas, proceeded in a peaceful manner to demand of the said Stanton a surrender to him of the public property in the said Department, and to vacate the possession of the same, and to allow him, the said Thomas, peaceably to exercise the duties devolved upon him by authority of the President. That, as this respondent has been informed and believes, the said Stanton peremptorily refused obedience to the orders so issued. Upon such refusal no force or threat of force was used by the said Thomas, authority of the President, or otherwise, to enforce obedience, either then or at any subsequent time.

This respondent doth here except to the sufficiency of the allegations contained in said fourth article, and states for ground of exception that it was not stated that there was any agreement between this respondent and the said Thomas, or any other person or persons, to use intimidation and threats, nor is there any allegation as to the nature of said intimidation and threats, or that there was any agreement to carry them into execution, or that any step was taken or agreed to be taken to carry them into execution, and that the allegation in said article that the intent of said conspiracy was to use intimidation and threats is wholly insufficient, inasmuch as it is not alleged that the said intent formed the basis or became a part of any agreement between the said alleged conspirators, and, furthermore, that there is no allegation of any conspiracy or agreement to use intimidation or threats.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE V.

And for answer to said fifth article, this respondent denies that on the said 21st day of February, 1868, or at any other time or times, in the same year before the said 2d day of March, 1868, or at any prior or subsequent time, at Washington aforesaid, or at any other place, this respondent did unlawfully conspire with the said Thomas, or with any other person or persons, to prevent or hinder the execution of the said act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," or that, in pursuance of said alleged conspiracy, he did unlawfully attempt to prevent the said Edwin M. Stanton from holding said office of Secretary for the Department of War, or that he did thereby commit, or that he was thereby guilty of, a high misdemeanor in office. Respondent, protesting that said Stanton was not then and there Secretary for the Department of War, begs leave to refer to his answer given to the fourth article and to his answer given to the first article as to his intent and purpose in issuing the orders for the removal of Mr. Stanton, and the authority given to the said Thomas, and prays equal benefit therefrom as if the same were here again repeated and fully set forth.

And this respondent excepts to the sufficiency of the said fifth article, and states his ground for such exception, that it is not alleged by what means or by what agreement the said alleged conspiracy was formed or agreed to be carried out, or in what way the same was attempted to be carried out, or what were the acts done in pursuance thereof.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE VI.

And for answer to the said sixth article, this respondent denies that on the said 21st day of February, 1868, at Washington aforesaid, or at any other time or place, he did unlawfully conspire with the said Thomas by force to seize, take, or possess, the property of the United States in the Department of War, contrary to the provisions of the said acts referred to in the said article, or either of them, or with intent to violate either of them. Respondent, protesting that said Stanton was not then and there Secretary for the Department of War, not only denies the said conspiracy as charged, but also denies any unlawful intent in reference to the custody and charge of the property of the United States in the said Department of War, and again refers to his former answers for a full statement of his intent and purpose in the premises.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE VII.

And for answer to the said seventh article, respondent denies that on the said 21st day of February, 1868, at Washington aforesaid, or at any other time and place, he did unlawfully conspire with the said Thomas with intent unlawfully to seize, take, or possess the property of the United States in the Department of War, with intent to violate or disregard the said act in the said seventh article referred to, or that he did then and there commit a high misdemeanor in office. Respondent, protesting that the said Stanton was not then and there Secretary for the Department of War, again refers to his former answers, in so far as they are applicable, to show the intent with which he proceeded in the premises, and prays equal benefit therefrom, as if the same were here again fully repeated. Respondent further takes exception to the sufficiency of the allegations of this article as to the conspiracy alleged, upon the same ground as stated in the exceptions set forth in his answer to said article fourth.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE VIII.

And for answer to said eighth article, this respondent denies that on the 21st day of February, 1868, at Washington aforesaid, or at any other time or place, he did issue and deliver to the said Thomas the said letter of authority set forth in the said eighth article, with the intent unlawfully to control the disbursements of the money appropriated for the military service and for the Department of War. This respondent, protesting that there was a vacancy in the office of Secretary for the Department of War, admits that he did issue the said letter of authority, and he denies that the same was with any unlawful intent whatever, either to violate the Constitution of the United States or any act of Congress. On the contrary, this respondent again affirms that his sole intent was to vindicate his authority as President of the United States, and by peaceful means to bring the question of the right of the said Stanton to continue to hold the said office of Secretary of War to a final decision before the Supreme Court of the United States, as has been hereinbefore set forth; and he prays the same benefit from his answer in the premises as if the same were here again repeated at length.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE IX.

And for answer to the said ninth article, the respondent states that on the said 22d day of February, 1868, the following note was addressed to the said Emory by the private secretary of respondent:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 22, 1868. }

GENERAL: The President directs me to say that he will be pleased to have you call upon him as early as practicable.

Respectfully and truly yours,

WILLIAM G. MOORE, U. S. Army.

General Emory called at the Executive Mansion according to this request. The object of respondent was to be advised by General Emory, as commander of the department of Washington, what changes had been made in the military affairs of the department. Respondent had been informed that various changes had been made, which in nowise had been brought to his notice or reported to him from the Department of War, or from any other quarter, and desired to ascertain the facts. After the said Emory had explained in detail the changes which had taken place, said Emory called the attention of respondent to a general order which he referred to and which this respondent then sent for, when it was produced. It is as follows:

[General Orders, No. 17.]

WAR DEPARTMENT, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }

WASHINGTON, March 14, 1867. }

The following acts of Congress are published for the information and government of all concerned:

II—PUBLIC—No. 85.

An act making appropriations for support of the Army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes.

SEC. 2. And be it further enacted, That the headquarters of the General of the Army of the United States shall be at the city of Washington, and all orders and instructions relating to military operations, issued by the President or Secretary of War, shall be issued through the General of the Army, and, in case of his inability, through the next in rank. The General of the Army shall not be removed, suspended, or relieved from command or assigned to duty elsewhere than at said headquarters, except at his own request, without the previous approval of the Senate; and any orders or instructions relating to military operations issued contrary to the requirements of this section shall be null and void; and any officer, who shall issue orders or instructions contrary to the provisions of this section, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor in office; and any officer of the Army who shall transmit, convey, or obey any orders or instructions so issued, contrary to the provisions of this section, knowing that such orders were so issued, shall be liable to imprisonment for not less than two nor more than twenty years, upon conviction thereof in any court of competent jurisdiction.

* * * * *
Approved March 2, 1867.

By order of the Secretary of War,
E. D. TOWNSEND, Assistant Adjutant-General.
Official: _____, Assistant Adjutant-General.

General Emory not only called the attention of respondent to this order, but to the fact that it was in conformity with a section contained in an appropriation act passed by Congress. Respondent, after reading the order, observed, "This is not in accordance with the Constitution of the United States, which makes me Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy, nor with the language of the commission which you hold." General Emory then stated that this order had met respondent's approval. Respondent then said in reply, in substance, "Am I to understand that the President of the United States cannot give an order but through the General-in-chief?" General Emory again reiterated the statement that it had met respondent's approval, and that it was the opinion of some of the leading lawyers of the country that this order was constitutional. With some further conversation, respondent then inquired the names of the lawyers who had given the opinion, and he mentioned the names of two. Respondent then said that the object of the law was very evident, referring to the clause in the appropriation act upon which the order purported to be based. This, according to respondent's recollection, was the substance of the conversation held with Gen. Emory. Respondent denies that any allegations in the said article of any instructions or declarations given to the said Emory, then or at any other time, contrary to or in addition to what is hereinbefore set forth, are true. Respondent denies that, in said conversation with said Emory, he had any other intent than to express the opinions then given to the said Emory, nor did he then or at any other time request or order the said Emory to disobey any law or any order issued in conformity with any law, or intend to offer any inducement to the said Emory to violate any law. What this respondent then said to General Emory was simply the expression of an opinion which he then fully believed to be sound, and which he yet believes to be so, and that is, that, by the express provisions of the Constitution, this respondent, as President, is made the Commander-in-chief of the Armies of the United States, and as such he is to be respected, and that his orders, whether issued through the War Department or through the General-in-chief, or by any other channel of communication, are entitled to respect and obedience, and that such constitutional power cannot be taken from him by virtue of any act of Congress. Respondent doth therefore deny that by the expression of such opinion he did commit or was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office; and this respondent doth further say that the said article nine lays no foundation whatever for the conclusion stated in the said article, that the respondent, by reason of the allegations therein contained, was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

In reference to the statement made by General Emory, that this respondent had approved of said act of Congress containing the section referred to, the respondent admits that his formal approval was given to said act, but accompanied the same by the following message, addressed and sent with the act to the House of Representatives, in which House the said act originated, and from which it came to respondent:

To the House of Representatives:

The act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the Army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," contains provisions to which I must call attention. These provisions are contained in the second section, which, in certain cases, virtually deprives the President of his constitutional functions as Commander-in-chief of the Army, and in the sixth section, which denies to ten States of the Union their constitutional right to protect themselves, in any emergency, by means of their own militia. These provisions are out of place in an appropriation act, but I am compelled to defeat these necessary appropriations if I withhold my signature from the act. Pressed by these considerations, I feel constrained to return the bill with my signature, but to accompany it with my earnest protest against the sections which I have indicated.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 2, 1867.

Respondent, therefore, did no more than to express to said Emory the same opinion which he had so expressed to the House of Representatives.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE X.

And in answer to the tenth article and specifications thereof, the respondent says that on the 14th and 15th days of August, in the year 1866, a political convention of delegates from all or most of the States and Territories of the Union was held in the city of Philadelphia, under the name and style of the National Union Convention, for the purpose of maintaining and advancing certain political views and opinions before the people of the United States, and for their support and adoption in the exercise of the constitutional suffrage, in the elections of Representatives and Delegates in Congress, which were soon to occur in many of the States and Territories of the Union; which said convention, in the course of its proceedings, and in furtherance of the objects of the same, adopted a "declaration of principles" and "an address to the people of the United States," and appointed a committee of two of its members from each State, and of one from each Territory, and one from the District of Columbia, to wait upon the President of the United States and present to him a copy of the proceedings of the convention; that on the 18th day of said month of August, this committee waited upon the President of the United States, at the Executive Mansion, and was received by him in one of the rooms thereof, and by their chairman, Hon. Reverdy Johnson, then and now a Senator of the United States, acting and speaking in their behalf, presented a copy of the proceedings of the convention, and addressed the President of the United States in a speech, of which a copy (according to a published report of the same, and as the respondent believes substantially a correct report), is hereto annexed as a part of this answer, and marked Exhibit C.

That thereupon and in reply to the address of said committee by their chairman, this respondent addressed the said committee so waiting upon him in one of the rooms of the Executive Mansion; and this respondent believes that this his address to said committee is the occasion referred to in the first specification of the tenth article; but this respondent does not admit that the passages therein set forth, as if extracts from a speech or address of this respondent upon said occasion, correctly or justly present his speech or address upon said occasion, but, on the contrary, this respondent demands and insists that if this honorable court shall deem the said article and the said first specification thereof to contain allegation of matter cognizable by this honorable court as a high misdemeanor in office, within the intent and meaning of the Constitution of the United States, and shall

receive or allow proof in support of the same, that proof shall be required to be made of the actual speech and address of this respondent on said occasion, which this respondent denies that said article and specification contain or correctly or justly represent.

And this respondent, further answering the tenth article and specifications thereof, says that at Cleveland, in the State of Ohio, and on the 8d day of September, in the year 1866, he was attended by a large assemblage of his fellow-citizens, and in deference and obedience to their call and demand he addressed them upon matters of public and political consideration; and this respondent believes that said occasion and address are referred to in the second specification of the tenth article; but this respondent does not admit that the passages therein set forth, as if extracts from a speech of this respondent on said occasion, correctly or justly present his speech or address upon said occasion; but, on the contrary, this respondent demands and insists that if this honorable court shall deem the said article and the said second specification thereof to contain allegation of matter cognizable by this honorable court as a high misdemeanor in office within the intent and meaning of the Constitution of the United States, and shall receive or allow proof in support of the same, that proof shall be required to be made of the actual speech and address of this respondent on said occasion, which this respondent denies that said article and specification contain or correctly or justly represent.

And this respondent, further answering the tenth article and the specifications thereof, says that at St. Louis, in the State of Missouri, and on the 8th day of September, in the year 1866, he was attended by a numerous assemblage of his fellow-citizens, and in deference and obedience to their call and demand he addressed them upon matters of public and political consideration; and this respondent believes that said occasion and address are referred to in the third specification of the tenth article; but this respondent does not admit that the passages therein set forth, as if extracts from a speech of this respondent on said occasion, correctly or justly present his speech or address upon said occasion; but, on the contrary, this respondent demands and insists that if this honorable court shall deem the said article and the said third specification thereof to contain allegation of matter cognizable by this honorable court as a high misdemeanor in office, within the intent and meaning of the Constitution of the United States, and shall receive or allow proof in support of the same, that proof shall be required to be made of the actual speech and address of this respondent on said occasion, which this respondent denies that the said article and specification contain or correctly or justly represent.

And this respondent, further answering the tenth article, protesting that he has not been unmindful of the high duties of his office, or of the harmony or courtesies which ought to exist and be maintained between the executive and legislative branches of the Government of the United States, denies that he has ever intended or designed to set aside the rightful authority or powers of Congress, or attempted to bring into disgrace, ridicule, hatred, contempt, or reproach, the Congress of the United States, or either branch thereof, or to impair or destroy the regard or respect of all or any of the good people of the United States for the Congress or the rightful legislative power thereof, or to excite the odium or resentment of all or any of the good people of the United States, against Congress, and the laws by it duly and constitutionally enacted. This respondent further says that at all times he has, in his official acts as President, recognized the authority of the several Congresses of the United States, as constituted and organized during his administration of the office of President of the United States.

And this respondent, further answering, says that he has, from time to time, under his constitutional

right and duty as President of the United States, communicated to Congress his views and opinions in regard to such acts or resolutions thereof, as, being submitted to him as President of the United States, in pursuance of the Constitution, seemed to this respondent to require such communications; and he has, from time to time, in the exercise of that freedom of speech which belongs to him as a citizen of the United States, and, in his political relations as President of the United States to the people of the United States, is upon fit occasions a duty of the highest obligation, expressed to his fellow-citizens his views and opinions respecting the measures and proceedings of Congress; and that in such addresses to his fellow-citizens, and in such his communications to Congress, he has expressed his views, opinions, and judgment of and concerning the actual constitution of the two Houses of Congress without representation therein of certain States of the Union, and of the effect that in wisdom and justice, in the opinion and judgment of this respondent, Congress in its legislation and proceedings should give to this political circumstance; and whatsoever he has thus communicated to Congress or addressed to his fellow-citizens or any assemblage thereof, this respondent says was and is within and according to his right and privilege as an American citizen, and his right and duty as President of the United States.

And this respondent not waiving or at all disparaging his right of freedom of opinion and of freedom of speech, as hereinbefore or hereinafter more particularly set forth, but claiming and insisting upon the same, further answering the said tenth article, says that the views and opinions expressed by this respondent in his said addresses to the assemblages of his fellow-citizens, as in said article or in this answer thereto mentioned, are not and were not intended to be other or different from those expressed by him in his communications to Congress—that the eleven States lately in insurrection never had ceased to be States of the Union, and that they were then entitled to representation in Congress by loyal Representatives and Senators as fully as the other States of the Union, and that, consequently, the Congress, as then constituted, was not, in fact, a Congress of all the States, but a Congress of only a part of the States. This respondent, always protesting against the unauthorized exclusion therefrom of the said eleven States, nevertheless gave his assent to all laws passed by said Congress which did not, in his opinion and judgment, violate the Constitution, exercising his constitutional authority of returning bills to said Congress with his objections when they appeared to him to be unconstitutional or inexpedient.

And, further, this respondent has also expressed the opinion, both in his communications to Congress and in his addresses to the people, that the policy adopted by Congress in reference to the States lately in insurrection did not tend to peace, harmony, and union, but, on the contrary, did tend to disunion and the permanent disruption of the States, and that, in following its said policy, laws had been passed by Congress in violation of the fundamental principles of the Government, and which tended to consolidation and despotism; and, such being his deliberate opinions, he would have felt himself unmindful of the high duties of his office if he had failed to express them in his communications to Congress or in his addresses to the people when called upon by them to express his opinions on matters of public and political consideration.

And this respondent, further answering the tenth article, says that he has always claimed and insisted, and now claims and insists, that both in his personal and private capacity of a citizen of the United States, and in the political relations of the President of the United States, to the people of the United States, whose servant, under the duties and responsibilities of the Constitution of the United States, the President of the United States is and should always re-

main, this respondent had and has the full right, and in his office of President of the United States is held to the high duty, of forming, and on fit occasions expressing, opinions of and concerning the legislation of Congress, proposed or completed, in respect of its wisdom, expediency, justice, worthiness, objects, purposes, and public and political motives and tendencies; and within and as a part of such right and duty to form, and on fit occasions to express, opinions of and concerning the public character and conduct, views, purposes, objects, motives, and tendencies of all men engaged in the public service, as well in Congress as otherwise, and under no other rules or limits upon this right of freedom of opinion and of freedom of speech, or of responsibility and amenability for the actual exercise of such freedom of opinion and freedom of speech than attend upon such rights and their exercise on the part of all other citizens of the United States, and on the part of all their public servants.

And this respondent, further answering said tenth article, says that the several occasions on which, as is alleged in the several specifications of said article, this respondent addressed his fellow-citizens on subjects of public and political considerations were not, nor was any one of them, sought or planned by this respondent; but, on the contrary, each of said occasions arose upon the exercise of a lawful and accustomed right of the people of the United States to call upon their public servants, and express to them their opinions, wishes, and feelings upon matters of public and political consideration, and to invite from such, their public servants, an expression of their opinions, views, and feelings on matters of public and political consideration; and this respondent claims and insists before this honorable court, and before all the people of the United States, that of or concerning this his right of freedom of opinion, and of freedom of speech, and this his exercise of such rights on all matters of public and political consideration, and in respect of all public servants, or persons whatsoever engaged in or connected therewith, this respondent, as a citizen, or as President of the United States, is not subject to question, inquisition, impeachment, or inculpation, in any form or manner whatsoever.

And this respondent says that neither the said tenth article, nor any specification thereof, nor any allegation therein contained, touches or relates to any official act or doing of this respondent in the office of President of the United States, or in the discharge of any of its constitutional or legal duties or responsibilities; but said article and the specifications and allegations thereof, wholly and in every part thereof, question only the discretion or propriety of freedom of opinion or freedom of speech, as exercised by this respondent as a citizen of the United States in his personal right and capacity, and without allegation or imputation against this respondent of the violation of any law of the United States, touching or relating to freedom of speech or its exercise by the citizens of the United States, or by this respondent as one of the said citizens or otherwise; and he denies that, by reason of any matter in said article or its specifications alleged, he has said or done any thing indecent or unbecoming in the Chief Magistracy of the United States, or that he has brought the high office of the President of the United States into contempt, ridicule, or disgrace, or that he has committed or has been guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

ANSWER TO ARTICLE XI.

And in answer to the eleventh article this respondent denies that on the 18th day of August, in the year 1866, at the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, he did, by public speech or otherwise, declare or affirm, in substance or at all, that the Thirty-ninth Congress of the United States was not a Congress of the United States authorized by the

Constitution to exercise legislative power under the same, or that he did then and there declare or affirm that the said Thirty-ninth Congress was a Congress of only part of the States in any sense or meaning other than that ten States of the Union were denied representation therein; or that he made any or either of the declarations or affirmations in this behalf, in the said article alleged, as denying or intending to deny that the legislation of said Thirty-ninth Congress was valid or obligatory upon this respondent, except so far as this respondent saw fit to approve the same; and as to the allegation in said article, that he did thereby intend or mean to be understood that the said Congress had not power to propose amendments to the Constitution, this respondent says that in said address he said nothing in reference to the subject of amendments of the Constitution, nor was the question of the competency of the said Congress to propose such amendments, without the participation of said excluded States, at the time of said address, in any way mentioned or considered or referred to by this respondent, nor in what he did say had he any intent regarding the same, and he denies the allegation so made to the contrary thereof. But this respondent, in further answer to, and in respect of, the said allegations of the said eleventh article hereinbefore traversed and denied, claims and insists upon his personal and official right of freedom of opinion and freedom of speech, and his duty in his political relations as President of the United States, to the people of the United States, in the exercise of such freedom of opinion and freedom of speech, in the same manner, form, and effect as he has in this behalf stated the same in his answer to the said tenth article, and with the same effect as if he here repeated the same; and he further claims and insists, as in said answer to said tenth article he has claimed and insisted, that he is not subject to question, inquisition, impeachment, or inculpation, in any form or manner, of or concerning such rights of freedom of opinion or freedom of speech, or his said alleged exercise thereof.

And this respondent further denies that, on the 21st day of February, in the year 1868, or at any other time, at the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, in pursuance of any such declaration as is in that behalf in said eleventh article alleged, or otherwise, he did unlawfully, and in disregard of the requirement of the Constitution that he should take care that the laws should be faithfully executed, attempt to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, by unlawfully devising or contriving, or attempting to devise or contrive, means by which he should prevent Edwin M. Stanton from forthwith resuming the functions of Secretary for the Department of War; or by unlawfully devising or contriving, or attempting to devise or contrive, means to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act making appropriations for the support of the Army for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes," approved March 2, 1867, or to prevent the execution of an act entitled "An act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867.

And this respondent, further answering the said eleventh article, says that he has, in his answer to the first article, set forth in detail the acts, steps, and proceedings done and taken by this respondent to and toward or in the matter of the suspension or removal of the said Edwin M. Stanton in or from the office of Secretary for the Department of War, with the times, modes, circumstances, intents, views, purposes, and opinions of official obligation and duty, under and with which such acts, steps, and proceedings were done and taken; and he makes answer to this eleventh article, of the matters in his answer to the first article, pertaining to the suspension or removal of said Edwin M. Stanton, to the same intent and effect as if they were here repeated and set forth.

And this respondent, further answering the said eleventh article, denies that by means or reason of any thing in said article alleged this respondent, as President of the United States, did, on the 21st day of February, 1868, or at any other day or time, commit, or that he was guilty of a high misdemeanor in office.

And this respondent, further answering the said eleventh article, says, that the same and the matters therein contained do not charge or allege the commission of any act whatever by this respondent, in his office of President of the United States, nor the omission by this respondent of any act of official obligation or duty in his office of President of the United States; nor does the said article nor the matters therein contained name, designate, describe, or define any act or mode or form of attempt, device, contrivance, or means, or of attempt at device, contrivance, or means, whereby this respondent can know or understand what act or mode or form of attempt, device, contrivance, or means, or of attempt at device, contrivance, or means, are imputed to or charged against this respondent in his office of President of the United States, or intended so to be, or whereby this respondent can more fully or definitely make answer unto the said article than he hereby does.

And this respondent, in submitting to this honorable court this his answer to the articles of impeachment exhibited against him, respectfully reserves leave to amend and add to the same from time to time, as may become necessary or proper, and when and as such necessity and propriety shall appear.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

HENRY STANBURY,
B. R. CURTIS,
THOMAS A. R. NELSON,
WILLIAM M. EVARTS,
W. S. GROESBECK,
Of Counsel.

There were annexed to the answer, as Exhibits A, B, and C, copies of the message of the President of March 2, 1867 (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1867, page 650*); message of the President, of December 12, 1867 (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1867, page 744*); and the address of Hon. Reverdy Johnson to the President on presenting the resolutions of the Philadelphia Union Convention, August 18, 1866 (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1866, page 757*).

Application was then made by the counsel for the President for thirty days' time after the filing of the replication by the managers, for preparation for trial, pending the discussion of which the court adjourned to the next day, the 24th of March, on which day the managers on the assembling of the court presented the following replication:

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
UNITED STATES, March 24, 1868.
Replication by the House of Representatives of the United States to the answer of ANDREW JOHNSON, President of the United States, to the Articles of Impeachment exhibited against him by the House of Representatives.

The House of Representatives of the United States have considered the several answers of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, to the several articles of impeachment against him by them exhibited in the name of themselves, and of all the people of the United States, and reserving to themselves all advantage of exception to the insufficiency of his answer to each and all of the several articles of impeachment exhibited against said Andrew Johnson,

President of the United States, do deny each and every averment in said several answers, or either of them, which denies or traverses the acts, intents, crimes, or misdemeanors charged against said Andrew Johnson in the said articles of impeachment, or either of them; and for replication to said answer do say that said Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, is guilty of the high crimes and misdemeanors mentioned in said articles, and that the House of Representatives are ready to prove the same.

SCHUYLER COLFAX,

Speaker of the House of Representatives.

ED. McPHERSON, Clerk of House of Representatives.

The Chief Justice: "The replication will be received by the Secretary and filed."

After discussion and consultation upon the application of the President's counsel for further time, it was

Ordered, That the Senate will commence the trial of the President upon the articles of impeachment exhibited against him, on Monday, the 30th of March instant, and proceed therein with all convenient dispatch, under the rules of the Senate sitting upon the trial of an impeachment.

And the court adjourned to March 30th.

March 30.—The court having convened, the case on the part of the prosecution was opened by Mr. Manager Butler, after which the evidence relied on to make good the articles of impeachment was presented by Mr. Manager Wilson. The presentation and reading of the following documentary evidence occupied the remainder of the day:

The oath of office of Mr. Johnson as President, April 15, 1865; the appointment of Mr. Stanton as Secretary of War by Mr. Lincoln, January 18, 1862; his confirmation by the Senate, January 15, 1862; and the message of President Johnson of December 12, 1867, explaining his reasons for removing Mr. Stanton (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*, 1867, p. 744).

March 31.—The managers put in the Senate resolution of January 13, 1868 (*see CONGRESS*, U. S.), not concurring in the suspension of Mr. Stanton; the President's message of February 21, 1868 (*see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS*), announcing the removal of Mr. Stanton and appointment of General Lorenzo Thomas as Secretary of War *ad interim*, and an extract of the Senate journal showing the action of the Senate thereon, as follows—

Resolved by the Senate of the United States, That under the Constitution and laws of the United States the President has no power to remove the Secretary of War and to designate any other officer to perform the duties of that office *ad interim*—

Mr. Stanton's commission from President Lincoln as Secretary of War. The chief clerk of the Senate testified that notice of the Senate resolution of February 21st, as to the removal of Mr. Stanton, had been served on the President. Another officer of the Senate testified to having served the same on General Thomas, at 11 P. M., February 21st. A clerk in the Treasury Department testified to a change in the form of commissions since the passage of the Tenure-of-Office Act; substituting, for "during the pleasure of the President for the time being," the words, "until a successor shall have been ap-

pointed and duly qualified." This change was made March 6, 1867. Mr. Burt Van Horn, of the House of Representatives, and others, testified to the demand of General Thomas on Mr. Stanton, on the 22d of February, 1868, that the latter should give up to him the office of Secretary of War; and the refusal of the latter so to do. Evidence of General Thomas's declaration at that time, being offered in order to show an intent to take possession of the Department by violence, the same was ruled admissible by the Chief Justice. This led to a discussion of his right to take part in the proceedings, and to an amendment of the seventh rule as follows, 31 to 19:

The presiding officer of the Senate shall direct all necessary preparations in the Senate Chamber, and the presiding officer on the trial shall direct all the forms of proceeding while the Senate are sitting for the purpose of trying an impeachment, and all forms, during the trial, not otherwise specially provided for. And the presiding officer on the trial may rule all questions of evidence and incidental questions, which ruling shall stand as the judgment of the Senate, unless some member of the Senate shall ask that a formal vote shall be taken thereon; in which case it shall be submitted to the Senate for decision, or he may, at his option, in the first instance submit any such question to a vote of the members of the Senate.

April 1.—A resolution, denying the right of the Chief Justice to vote in case of a tie, rejected, 21 to 27; the ruling of the Chief Justice, as to Thomas's declaration of intention, was sustained, 39 to 11; and Mr. Burleigh testified that the General stated on the 21st of February, that he should take possession by ten o'clock, and that he would use force, if possession were refused him. At the end of the argument on the admissibility of the testimony, it was decided *nem. con.* that the limitation of one hour on the twentieth rule applies to the whole number of persons to speak on each side. Other declarations of Thomas's, before February 21st, were ruled out by the Chief Justice, but admitted by the Senate, 28 to 22. They were to the effect that, ten days before that date, the General said to certain clerks in the War Office, that he intended to relax certain rules then in force. Other witnesses testified to the same effect.

April 2.—Further evidence corroborating the above, as to the interview between Stanton and Thomas. General Emory testified that he was summoned to the President by a note from his secretary, and that the President made inquiries about recent movements of troops round Washington. Witness replied that such movements could not have taken place without his knowledge under Order No. 17, series of 1867. The President sent for the order, read it, and said: "This is not in conformity with the Constitution of the United States, that makes me Commander-in-chief, nor with the terms of your commission;" and asked if he was to understand that the President of the United States cannot give an order except through the General of the Army or General Grant. Witness replied that the Ar-

my was a unit in that belief, and that the opinion of several eminent lawyers had been taken, all of whom held that the Army was bound to obey the orders, whether the law was constitutional or not, until the question was decided by the Supreme Court, and it was promulgated in orders that the law was void.

The President said, "The object of the law is evident." The above-mentioned order was put in the last sections of an appropriation act, approved March 2, 1867, establishing the headquarters of the Army at Washington, and enacting that all orders, etc., relating to military operations, issued by the President or Secretary of War, should be issued through the General of the Army, and that the General should not be suspended from command, nor be assigned to duty elsewhere, except at his own request, without the previous approval of the Senate. General Emory's commission; the order of August 27, 1867, assigning him to duty in Washington; a note from the President, dated February 13, 1868, to General Grant, desiring that General Thomas resume his duties as Adjutant-General; a note from General Grant, January 24, 1868, requesting the President to give him certain previous verbal instructions in writing, and indorsement of the letter, January 29th, directing the General not to obey any orders from the War Department, assumed to be issued by direction of the President, unless known to the General commanding the Armies of the United States to have been authorized by the Executive, and the President's letter to General Grant of February 10th (*see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS*), were next put in. The latter was objected to unless accompanied by the letters of the several heads of departments enclosed with and referred to in the same; but was admitted without them, 20 to 29. Copies of the letters removing Mr. Stanton, and appointing General Thomas Secretary *ad interim*, furnished by General Thomas to Mr. Stanton, and indorsed with dates of receipt, and General Grant's presence, by Mr. Stanton; General Order No. 17, March 14, 1867, and General Grant's order to General Thomas, February 14, 1868, to resume duty as Adjutant-General, the order issued in pursuance of the President's request, were next put in. Evidence that the President appointed his own private secretary Assistant Secretary of the Treasury *ad interim*, as one means of defeating the Tenure-of-Office and other acts, was offered under the eighth and eleventh articles, but was rejected, 22 to 27. The President's dispatch to Governor Parsons, of Alabama, in answer to the dispatch of Governor Parsons to him, as follows, was admitted under the eleventh article, 27 to 17:

MONTGOMERY, ALABAMA, January 17, 1867.

Legislature in session. Efforts making to reconsider vote on constitutional amendment. Report from Washington says it is probable an enabling act will pass. We do not know what to believe. I find nothing here. LEWIS E. PARSONS, Exchange Hotel.

His Excellency ANDREW JOHNSON, President.

The response is:

U. S. MILITARY TELEGRAPH, EXECUTIVE OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., January 17, 1867. }

What possible good can be obtained by reconsidering the constitutional amendment? I know of none in the present posture of affairs; and I do not believe the people of the whole country will sustain any set of individuals in attempts to change the whole character of our Government by enabling acts or otherwise. I believe, on the contrary, that they will eventually uphold all who have patriotism and courage to stand by the Constitution, and who place their confidence in the people. There should be no faltering on the part of those who are honest in their determination to sustain the several coordinate departments of the Government in accordance with its original design. ANDREW JOHNSON.

Hon. LEWIS E. PARSONS, Montgomery, Alabama.

April 3.—Rule seventh amended, by inserting, at the end of the same, "Upon all such questions, the vote shall be without a division, unless the yeas and nays be demanded by one-fifth of the members present, when the same shall be taken."

The President's message at the time of the concurrent resolution of the two Houses, as to the proposal of a fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, was put in (*see ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA*, 1866, page 195). Several stenographers testified as to the President's speeches charged in the tenth article; one of the witnesses being allowed to refresh his memory from a newspaper report which he knew to be correct. Also, the *Cleveland Leader's* report of the above speeches was admitted, against the ruling of the Chief Justice, 35 to 11; although it was objected that the managers were in possession of the notes of the shorthand writer of the whole speech, and of his transcript therefrom sworn to by him, and that the *Leader's* report was made partly by another person besides the witness, whose notes were not produced.

April 4.—Further evidence as to the President's speeches; change in certain commissions in the Departments testified to, and copies of the forms used put in. The words, "during the pleasure of the President for the time being," were struck out, and "subject to the conditions prescribed by law" inserted; and commissions issued since the Tenure-of-Office Act had contained these words. Some changes in temporary commissions were also proved. No commission had been issued to a head of a department since that time. The correspondence relative to the removal of Mr. Pickering from the office of Secretary of State, by President John Adams, was read from the works of John Adams (*see works of John Adams*, ed. of 1854, Little & Brown, vol. ix., pp. 53-55), and an extract from the Executive Journal of the Senate of the same date as the letter of removal, May 12, 1800, which contained a nomination of John Marshall as successor to Mr. Pickering, was read. A list of heads of departments removed and appointed by the President during the session of the Senate was also put in (Mr. Pickering being the only one removed), and it was shown that the letter of authority in case of such temporary appointments came from the

President,—by whom signed, was left to be shown from the documents themselves.

A letter of the President's of August 14, 1867, in compliance with the requirements of the eighth section of the Tenure-of-Office Act notifying Mr. McCulloch that he had suspended Mr. Stanton, and that General Grant was authorized to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, was read. Also, messages of his, announcing the suspension of other officers. The case on the part of the House was closed. Judge Curtis then requested an adjournment till Thursday, which was carried, 37 to 10.

April 9.—Mr. Butler put in the letter of General Thomas, accepting the office of Secretary of War *ad interim*, and evidence of the suspension of Foster Blodgett, a Georgia postmaster, which suspension had not been reported to the Senate. Mr. Curtis opened the case for the defence.

April 10.—Mr. Curtis finished the opening for the defence.

TESTIMONY IN DEFENCE.

General Thomas was called, and testified as to his services as Adjutant-General, his being sent for on the 21st of February, by the President, and of his being handed by the President a letter dismissing Mr. Stanton and one appointing himself Secretary *ad interim*, and that at this interview the President declared his determination to support the Constitution and the laws, and his desire that witness would do the same, and that Mr. Stanton, when the office was demanded of him, at first only asked if he would be allowed time to remove his private property, but later sent the General a letter forbidding him to issue any orders as Secretary *ad interim*. That on the 22d of February he was arrested at his house before breakfast, and was taken by the officer at his request to see the President. The remark of the President, when informed by General Thomas of his arrest, was objected to, but admitted, 42 to 10. He said, "Very well: that is just where I want it,—in courts." Mr. Stanton and General Thomas drank together at the War Office after the members of Congress were gone. The words, "Kick that fellow out," were first used by the witness, Karsner, and repeated jocularly by Thomas to get rid of him. The President never authorized or directed him to use force, intimidation, or threats to get possession of the War Office (objected to, but allowed). On cross-examination, witness said he had abandoned the idea of using force before he was arrested; was recognized by the President as Secretary; attended Cabinet meetings; never gave advice there, except as to a plan to get rid of Stanton, submitted to the President about March 13th. The President said he would let it rest till after impeachment.

April 11.—General Thomas corrected his testimony of the 10th. When the President was told of Stanton's answer to the demand on him for the War Office, he said, "Then go ahead, and take charge of the office," instead

of "possession." General William T. Sherman was called to show declarations of the President to him January 27th, at the time of tendering him the place of Secretary of War *ad interim*. This was objected to, and ruled out, against the opinion of the Chief Justice (based on yesterday's decision as to the conversation, after the event, with Thomas), 23 to 28. The question was put in various forms; but all of them were ruled out.

April 13.—General Sherman was asked whether, after Mr. Stanton was restored to the War Department, he had formed his opinion, and communicated the same to the President, that the good of the service required another Secretary of War. Objected to, and ruled out, 15 to 35.

Senator Reverdy Johnson proposed a question, whether, at any time before the order for Mr. Stanton's removal, the witness had advised the President to appoint some other person than Mr. Stanton. Objected to by Senator Drake, and decided inadmissible, 18 to 32. The warrant of arrest of General Thomas, dated February 22, 1868, and the affidavit of Mr. Stanton on which the warrant issued, was admitted over objection, 34 to 17.

Senator Johnson proposed a question, whether, when the office of Secretary of War *ad interim* was tendered to the witness, General Sherman, by the President, on January 27th and 31st, the latter at that very time stated what his purpose in so doing was. Objected to, but admitted, 26 to 22. What did he state his purpose was? Objected to, but admitted, 26 to 25. The President said that the relations between Mr. Stanton and himself, and the other members of the Cabinet, were such, that he could not execute his office as President without making provision *ad interim* for that office, that he had the right under the law; he claimed to have the right, and his purpose was to have the office administered in the interest of the army and country, and offered the witness the office in that view. Witness asked him why the lawyers could not make a case. The President replied that it was found impossible, or a case could not be made up; but, said he, "If we can bring the case to the courts, it would not stand half an hour." Witness, being asked if he had answered as to both occasions comprised in the question, said: "The question first asked me seemed to restrict me so close to the purpose that I endeavored to confine myself to that point alone. On the first day or the first interview in which the President offered me the appointment *ad interim*, he confined himself to very general terms, and I gave him no definite answer. The second interview, which was on the afternoon of the 30th, not the 31st, was the interview during which he made the points which I have testified to. In speaking he referred to the constitutionality of the bill known as the Civil Tenure-of-Office Bill, I think, or the Tenure-of-Civil-Office Bill, and it

was the constitutionality of that bill which he seemed desirous of having tested, and which, he said, if it could be brought before the Supreme Court properly, would not stand half an hour. We also spoke of force. I first stated that if Mr. Stanton would simply retire, although it was against my interest, against my desire, against my personal wishes, and against my official wishes, I might be willing to undertake to administer the office *ad interim*. Then he supposed that the point was yielded; and I made this point, 'Suppose Mr. Stanton do not yield?' He answered, 'Oh! he will make no objection; you present the order, and he will retire.' I expressed my doubt, I then begged to be excused from giving him an answer, to give the subject more reflection, and I gave him my final answer in writing. My reasons for declining the office were mostly personal in their nature."

The following questions were then asked and answers given:

"Did the President, on either of the occasions alluded to, express to you a fixed resolution or determination to remove Stanton from his office?"

"If by removal is meant a removal by force, he never conveyed to my mind such an impression; but he did most unmistakably say that he could have no more intercourse with him in the relation of President and Secretary of War."

"You say the President spoke of force. What did he say about force?"

"I inquired, 'Suppose Mr. Stanton do not yield, what then shall be done?' 'Oh,' said he, 'there is no necessity of considering that question; upon the presentation of an order he will simply go away,' or 'retire.'"

The docket entries of the case of *United States v. Lorenzo Thomas* were put in.

The nomination of Thomas Ewing, Sen., of Ohio, as Secretary of War, dated February 22, 1868, was put in with evidence that it was received by the Executive Clerk of the Senate the same day.

April 14.—The court adjourned, on account of Mr. Stanbery having been taken ill.

April 15.—The President's message of February 24 (*see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS), in reply to the Senate resolution as to the removal of Mr. Stanton, was rejected, on the simple ruling of the Chief Justice.

A list was ordered to be printed as part of the proceedings, although not as evidence, which was prepared at the Attorney-General's office, and showed, with certain exceptions, approximately all other executive and territorial officers of the United States, now and heretofore, by statutory designation, with their respective statutory tenure.

Documents were put in evidence, from the Department of State, relating to the removal of Mr. Pickering, in addition to the letters put in by the managers.

A correction of the evidence as to the nomination of Mr. Ewing was made. The nomina-

tion was sent to the Senate, February 22d; but, the Senate having adjourned, it was not delivered to them till the 24th.

A certified copy of the appointment of Mr. Nelson, Attorney-General, as Secretary of State *ad interim*, during the session of the Senate, by President Tyler, on the death of Mr. Upshur, until a successor should be appointed, and the nomination and appointment of Mr. Calhoun to the place, were next put in evidence. Similar papers in the case of General Scott, appointed Secretary of War *ad interim*, during the session of the Senate, by President Fillmore, and the appointment and confirmation of Charles M. Conrad, as Secretary of War; an appointment of Mr. Moses Kelley, Secretary of the Interior *ad interim*, by President Buchanan; a copy of the commission of Mr. Caleb B. Smith in the same office, from Mr. Lincoln; a copy of a letter removing the appraiser of the port of Philadelphia, by direction of the President, signed by Mr. McClintock Young, Acting Secretary of the Treasury, August 17, 1842,—were all read. A schedule, showing the practice of the Navy Department as to removal, the same not being a copy from the records, but an abstract of their substance, was ruled by the Chief Justice to be competent in substance, and within the discretion of the Senate as to form, admitted, 36 to 15; and a list from this same department of civil officers appointed for four years under the statute of May 15, 1820, and "removable from office at pleasure," who were removed as indicated (by the President), their terms of office not having expired, was put in.

A statement from the Department of State, showing the removal of officers not only during the session of the Senate, but during the recess, and covering all cases of vacancy, the purpose of the evidence being to show the practice of the Government coextensive with the necessity that arises out of the different cases—death, resignation, sickness, absence, removal. It differs from the schedule put in by the managers, which covered certain heads of Departments only, because that applies only to removals during the session of the Senate. Objected to, as having reference only to the acts of 1791 and 1795, but admitted, as were similar documents from the Department of the Postmaster-General, showing the removals of postmasters during the session of the Senate, and *ad interim* appointments to fill the places, and the appointment, by President Buchanan, of St. John B. L. Skinner, as First Assistant Postmaster-General *ad interim*, February 8, 1861, and the same appointment by President Lincoln, September 22, 1862. Mr. Buchanan's message to the Senate, explaining his appointment of Mr. Holt, Secretary of War *ad interim*, in place of Mr. John B. Floyd, resigned, was read (against objection), together with a list annexed of the names of those persons, as shown by the records of the Department of State, who discharged the duties of officers of

the Cabinet, whether by appointment made in recess, and those confirmed by the Senate, as well as those acting *ad interim*, or simply acting, certified by Mr. J. S. Black, Secretary of State, January 15, 1861.

April 16.—A continuation of the list put in the day before, bringing the statement down to the present time, and a statement of the beginning and end of all the sessions of the Senate, were put in. Mr. Walter S. Cox, counsel for General Thomas when arrested on the affidavit of Mr. Stanton, testified, objection being overruled (29 to 21), that the President sent for him on the 22d of February, and told him he desired the necessary legal proceedings to be instituted without delay to test General Thomas's right to the office, and to put him in possession, and that the witness intended to do this by procuring a writ of *habeas corpus* from the Supreme Court of the United States, in the Thomas matter. In order to procure this, it was necessary that the commitment of General Thomas should be made by a court, which was sought to be brought about, but the intention was frustrated by the counsel for the Government consenting to the General's discharge. Admitted, 27 to 23.

Afterward went to District Attorney for an information in the nature of a *quo warranto*, which he refused to sign without the Attorney-General's authority. This fact was communicated to the Attorney-General. Admitted, 27 to 23.

Did not tell the other side of his intention, but supposed they divined it.

Mr. R. T. Merrick, another of the counsel in Thomas's case, testified to a similar effect.

Declarations made at the same to a member of Congress were ruled inadmissible, 9 to 37.

April 17.—Some testimony as to the President's Cleveland and St. Louis speeches; that he spoke reluctantly, and as to the incorrectness of the reports of those speeches as put in by the managers.

Washington's commission as Lieutenant-General was put in—"during the pleasure of the President of the United States for the time being." Further evidence of the custom as to *ad interim* appointments, from the Departments of the Interior and of State, and also by Mr. F. W. Seward. Secretary Welles testified that he communicated some movements of troops of General Emory to the President, who said, "I don't know what Emory means," and that he would send for him, or send and inquire into this.

Secretary Welles also testified (objection being overruled, 26 to 23) that the President told the Cabinet, at a meeting, that he had removed Mr. Stanton, and appointed General Thomas *ad interim*, and that the latter was then in possession, Mr. Stanton only requiring time enough to remove his papers; and that, as the President understood it, Mr. Stanton acquiesced. Evidence was then offered that the President laid the Tenure-of-Office Act be-

fore the Cabinet when it was enacted, and that they advised him that the same was unconstitutional, and that Secretaries Seward and Stanton undertook to draw up a veto. This was objected to, and, after argument, the court adjourned.

April 18.—After further argument on the question of yesterday, the evidence was rejected, against a strong expression of the Chief Justice's opinion that it was admissible, 20 to 29. Evidence of the opinion of the Cabinet at the same meeting, that Mr. Stanton was not within the terms of the act, was also rejected, 22 to 26. A further question, whether the President and Cabinet regarded it as necessary for the public service to obtain a judicial decision as to the constitutionality of the act, was not allowed to be put, 19 to 30. A question, whether any thing was said about getting possession of the War Department by force, was rejected, 18 to 26. The witness testified to the nomination of Mr. Ewing as made out February 22d. Mr. E. F. Welles testified to having noticed movements of troops, February 21st, P. M., and having vainly tried to notify the President.

The testimony of other members of the Cabinet was treated by the President's counsel as ruled out under the former rulings. Postmaster-General Randall testified as to the suspension of Foster Blodgett, the postmaster, which had been alluded to on the other side, that it was done by him without the President's knowledge, on account of a complaint that the party had been indicted for perjury in taking the test oath, and the papers in that case were put in, though objected to, as not accompanied by the indictment referred to in the same.

Senator Sherman offered a question, whether the question of applicability of the Tenure-of-Office law to the members appointed by Mr. Lincoln ever came before the Cabinet for discussion; and, if so, what the opinions were. This was overruled, 20 to 26.

This closed the evidence for the defence.

TESTIMONY IN REBUTTAL.

April 20.—The Journal of Congress of 1774-75 of the First Congress, pp. 121, 122, which is a report of the committee appointed to draft a commission to the General, George Washington, who had first been theretofore appointed, was first put in to show that the only form of commission authorized by law was that drawn up by said committee, and read "until revoked by this or a future Congress." In the draft of commissions under the Constitution, "the pleasure of the President" was substituted.

Next a letter from James Guthrie, Secretary of the Treasury, stating to the applicant for office that the place could not be filled during the recess of the Senate, the vacancy having occurred during the recess. The indictment of Foster Blodgett, the postmaster, before referred to, and other testimony in reference to the case, was offered and ruled out. A list of

the officers who would be affected by the right claimed by the President to remove and appoint *ad interim* was put in to be printed as part of the proceedings, though not as evidence.

Evidence of the President's nomination of Generals Sherman and Thomas for extraordinary brevet commissions was ruled out, 35 to 14.

This closed the evidence in the case, and the court adjourned till the 22d instant.

April 22.—It was *ordered*, That as many of the managers, and of the counsel for the President, as desire to do so, be permitted to file arguments, or to address the Senate orally; but the conclusion of the oral argument shall be by one manager, as provided in the twenty-first rule. Mr. Manager Logan filed a written argument in accordance with the above. Mr. Manager Boutwell began his argument.

April 23.—Mr. Boutwell finished, and Mr. Nelson began his argument for the President.

April 24.—Mr. Nelson finished.

April 25.—Mr. Groesbeck followed on the same side.

April 27.—Mr. Manager Stevens made an argument, followed by Mr. Manager Williams.

April 28.—Mr. Williams finished. Mr. Evarts began with his argument for the President.

April 29.—Mr. Evarts continued his argument.

April 30.—Mr. Evarts continued his argument.

May 1.—Mr. Evarts finished. Mr. Stanbery began on the same side.

May 2.—Mr. Stanbery finished.

May 4.—Mr. Manager Bingham began the closing argument.

May 5.—Mr. Bingham continued his argument.

May 6.—Mr. Bingham finished.

May 11.—The Chief Justice stated to the court that he should direct the secretary to read the several articles successively, and, after the reading of each article, he should put the question of "guilty or not guilty" to each Senator, sitting in his place, as follows: "Mr. Senator, how say you? Is the respondent, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, guilty or not guilty of a high (crime or) misdemeanor, as charged in this article?"

On motion of Mr. Sumner, it was *ordered*, That the questions be put as proposed by the presiding officer of the Senate, and each Senator shall rise in his place, and answer "guilty" or "not guilty" only.

May 16.—It was voted to take up the eleventh article first, 34 to 19. That article was accordingly read by the clerk, and the question was proposed to the Senators in the form before given. The vote stood:

Guilty—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey,

Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Wade, Willey, Williams, Wilson, Yates—35.

Not Guilty—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Henderson, Hendricks, Johnson, McCreery, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Saulsbury, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers—19.

The Chief Justice rose, and announced the result in these words: "On this article there are thirty-five Senators who have voted guilty, and nineteen Senators who have voted not guilty. The President, therefore, is acquitted on this article." The court then adjourned till the 26th.

May 26.—The President was acquitted on the second and third articles by the same vote as that on the eleventh, and the court adjourned *sine die*, 34 to 16.

INDIA, BRITISH, a dependency of Great Britain, in Asia. According to the "Statistical Abstract for the Colonial and other Possessions," etc., 1852-1866 (London, 1868), British India had, in 1866, an area of 988,091 square miles, and 150,767,851 inhabitants. The revenue was £48,935,000; the expenditures £47,332,000; the debt £98,384. The imports were valued at £56,160,000; the exports at £67,660,000.*

The Government of India has obtained the sanction of the Secretary of State to take a general census of all India in 1871, when the rest of the British empire will be undergoing enumeration. So long ago as June, 1865, this census was resolved on in India, the success of those taken in the northwestern and central provinces† removing every possible objection. The eight local Governments, accordingly, were instructed to familiarize the minds of the people with the idea of a census, and to furnish reports on the best means of taking it, and the Statistical Committee were asked to prepare uniform tables for the purpose. In 1867 and 1868 a census was taken in Madras, in the Berar, and the Punjab. The results of the Madras census (not arrived at, however, by the same accurate methods as were adopted in Northwest and Central India) show an area of 140,573 square miles, and a population of 26,512,490, against an area of 124,250 and a population of 22,644,519 in previous returns—a gain of some 4,000,000 of population. In the Punjab the population has increased from 15,000,000 to 17,000,000. The most satisfactory results are generally expected from this progress of statistical inquiry, which is chiefly due to the establishment, in 1863, of a "statistical committee," to compile uniform tables of trade, finance, justice, and general administration for all the ten provinces which publish

* See the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for the latest official statistics of the native states in India, and the French and Portuguese possessions, and for full statistics on the commerce, finances, army, etc.

† We have given an abstract of the census taken in the northwestern and central provinces, in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

annual administrative reports. The basis of the statistical system is that recommended some years ago by the International Statistical Congress, and adapted to India. The five great divisions are—Statistics of Physical, Political, and Fiscal Geography; of Protection, of Production and Distribution, of Instruction, and of Life. The first includes physical geography, or the area, character of the surface and climate, political relations with native states, civil divisions, and machinery, of British territory, population classified as far as possible, and fiscal statistics, including survey, settlements, land tenures, and land revenue. The second division embraces legislation, the courts civil and criminal, prisons, police, the army, and the marine. Under the third division we have finance, public works, railways, agriculture, prices of produce and labor, mines, manufactures, trade, coinage, and currency, and charitable institutions. In the fourth division we find an ecclesiastical head, including places of worship and ministers of all creeds, education, and literary and scientific societies and publications. The division of vital statistics has three heads—births, deaths, and marriages, hospital returns, and vaccination returns.

The first full financial account was published by the Government of India at the close of the year 1868. In this financial account the gross revenue of India for the year ending March 31, 1868, is estimated at £48,363,269. The gross receipts from land revenue, including tribute, is stated at £23,467,700; customs, £2,545,200; salt, £6,024,300; opium, £8,814,200; stamps, £2,393,900; post-office, £652,300; telegraphs, £298,916; license-tax, £658,000. The expenditure for the year 1867-'68 is estimated at £46,708,146. The payments in realization of revenue, £9,227,331, include £2,486,700 on land revenue; £1,863,200, opium; £209,000, customs; £353,300, salt; £543,349, post-office; telegraphs, £645,934; allowances under treaties, £2,082,379. "Charges," including interest on debt and public works ordinary, amount to £36,238,415; and the charge for guaranteed interest on railway, etc., capital, deducting net traffic receipts, amounts to £1,242,400. The ordinary expenditure in the year 1867-'68, £46,708,146, would leave a surplus of £1,656,123; but a charge of £2,761,200 for public works extraordinary converts this surplus into a deficiency of £1,106,077. Owing to the change in the financial year, which does not now terminate on the 30th of April (but, as at home, on the 31st of March), these items have to compare with those for the preceding 11 months only. The result of those 11 months is stated to have been a receipt of £42,122,433, and an expenditure of £44,639,924, showing an excess of expenditure over income to the extent of £2,517,491.

Constant and most satisfactory progress is made in the department of public instruction. In 1868 the University of Bombay supplied upward of 500 candidates for matriculation

against 440 last year, a number that is large in proportion to its population. In Calcutta, the list of entrance candidates rose from 1,350 last year to 1,509, making a total number of 12,161 in the 11 years since the foundation of the university. Of the 1,509 candidates from Northern India and Ceylon, 1,228 were Hindoos, 103 Christians, only 58 Mohammedans, and 120 of other creeds, chiefly Deists. Of the second language besides English, 1,150 professed Bengali, 213 Urdu, 72 Latin, 26 Hindi, 23 Sanscrit, 15 Persian, 9 Oorya, and 1 Arabic.

According to the report of the tenth (1868) annual meeting of the "*English Christian Vernacular Education Society for India*," which was established as a memorial of the Indian Mutiny, to advance education in India through the 14 principal languages of the country by means of natives, it is stated that four training institutions for native schoolmasters were now opened in the different presidencies, and 140 native students were now receiving Bible and secular knowledge, preparatory to their being appointed to conduct village schools in various parts of India. Efforts were also being made upon a large scale to utilize the available Christian native teachers. The society has also issued 250 different publications in the 14 languages for the use of schools, and about two millions and a half of copies of those books have been printed in the most important cities of India. Fifty book depots have been opened for the sale of those publications at low prices. The income of the past year (1868) had been £8,260, and the expenditure £8,005.

A new English society for the diffusion of education in India is the "*Indian Female Normal School and Instruction Society*," which in 1868 held its first general meeting. The Marchioness of Cholmondeley is president, and the Hon. Mrs. A. F. Kinnaird vice-president of the society. The object of the institution is to send forth a mission from the Christian women of England to their heathen sisters and fellow-subjects in India, to educate and train them in the principles of the Christian religion. There are in India 90,000,000 women, of whom at least one-third are beyond the reach of ordinary missionary effort, owing to their seclusion. Normal schools have been established in all the presidencies for training European and native girls to be teachers. European women have been sent out from England to be missionaries in the zenanas, assisted by the teachers trained in India, and there are native Christian Bible women employed in the same good work. Previous to the year 1855 there were no means of gaining access to the zenanas of the upper or middle classes in India, but since then by various efforts, similar to those now being made by this society, vast numbers of the daughters of those classes have received a Christian education. A report was read giving a most favorable detailed account of the operations of the society in different parts of India. The re-

ceipts for the past year, including a balance of £1,243 3s. 2d., were £4,621 17s. 6d., and the expenditure was £3,542 1s. 9d., leaving a balance of £1,079 15s. 9d., of which £336 3s. 2d. would be appropriated to the reserved fund.

The Government Director's report upon Indian railways for the year ending the 1st of May, 1868, states that 349 miles of new railway have been opened for traffic during the year, making the total extent of lines now open 3,943 miles; the length remaining to be finished is 1,665 miles. Almost all the principal cotton-fields of India are now connected by the railways with ports of shipment. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway brings to the port of Bombay the cotton of Candeish and Berar and of Barsee and Sholapore. The Bombay and Baroda Railway brings also to Bombay the produce of Guzerat; the Madras Railway brings to Madras the cotton of Dharwar and Bellary by its northern line, and of Coimbatore and Salem by its southern; the East Indian conveys to Calcutta the cotton grown in the valleys of the Ganges and Jumna; the Punjab Railway, with the help of the Indus flotilla and Scinde Railway, brings to Kurrachee the produce of the Punjab and northwest. The cotton-field of Tinnevely is at present unprovided with a railway, but the extension of the Great Southern Railway into this district is in contemplation, and surveys are being made to ascertain the best route. The cotton districts of Kattiawar also require a short branch to bring them into communication with Bombay. Railways are beginning to tell upon the cotton cultivation of India in other ways than merely providing a more rapid and less costly mode of conveyance than formerly. Steam factories for cleaning cotton are springing up, machines for half pressing are established in many places, and in others steam presses for packing the bales for shipment have been constructed. The Indian railways employ 39,000 persons, of whom 36,000 are natives. Measures have been extensively adopted to improve the position of the European servant, and among other means have an organized plan of assisting (to the extent of half the passage-money) married mechanics to take their wives and families to India. The capital accounts of the companies show that upward of £9,000,000 have been added to the capital of the railways, making the whole amount that has been raised, up to the 31st of March last, £76,579,000, of which £75,071,600 have been expended.

The Post-Office Department had, in 1866, 2,070 post-offices and receiving-houses, the total strength of the establishment consisted of 24,197 persons, the mails were conveyed over 46,997 miles, and 59,931,904 covers (i. e., letters, newspapers, etc.) were conveyed through the post-office. A comparison of the statistics of 1866 with the eight preceding years shows that since 1858 the number of

letters, etc., conveyed through the post-offices of British India has increased by nearly 17,500,000.

The total strength of the army in British India during the year 1866 consisted of 66,814 Europeans, and 117,095 natives. The staff and staff-corps consisted of 1,366 Europeans; the engineers, sappers and miners, 378 Europeans and 2,794 natives; the artillery, horse and foot, of 12,299 Europeans and 1,891 natives; the cavalry, of 6,050 Europeans and 18,776 natives; the infantry of 45,916 Europeans and 93,631 natives; and the invalids, veterans, and warrant officers, of 810 Europeans; the medical establishment being included in each arm of the service. Of these total numbers, 38,992 Europeans and 43,394 natives were stationed in Bengal, 14,184 Europeans and 46,435 natives in Madras, and 13,638 Europeans and 27,268 natives in Bombay; those stationed in the northwest provinces and Punjab being included in the presidency of Bengal.

Sir John Lawrence, the Governor-General of India, was recalled in 1868, and Lord Mayo, heretofore a member of the Tory Cabinet, appointed in his place.

Among the remarkable features of the administration of Sir John Lawrence, is generally counted the execution of a grand scheme of great military barracks and fortifications. Just before Sir John Lawrence's arrival, Lord Elgin's government had determined to provide barracks after the most approved sanitary fashion for the English troops, and strategical buildings and appliances, such as might be required in an emergency, thus saving soldiers' lives and rendering it possible to hold the country with a smaller number than the 90,000 of 1859. The development and maturing of his policy fell to his successor, and Colonel Crommelin, the first of military engineers, was placed at the head of a special department for this purpose. Some time was necessarily spent in agreeing upon model plans for the housing of soldiers. As in the course of 1864 and 1865 the scheme gradually assumed shape, it was found that its cost would be not under ten millions sterling. It is now expected that the whole of India will be supplied with new barracks and forts on the best plan and of the most durable character by the close of 1871, by which time, too, the Great Trunk railway system of Lord Dalhousie will be completed, besides several extensions. Forts and fortified posts are being constructed at almost every military station, and especially near every great railway station a place of refuge, for women and children and non-combatants, is to be provided against an emergency. These posts take the form of a four, five, or six-sided enclosure, flanked by bastions at the angles, and of which the hospitals and two or more barracks constitute the curtains. Such posts are to be formed at Nowgong, Sealkote, Jullundhur, Umballa, and Hyderabad, in the Deccan. Where there are magazines and positions exposed to hostile

tribes, or commanding unruly neighbors, great forts are to be erected.

The first General "Durbar" (assembly of native princes and chiefs) in Western India was held at Bombay in the first week of October, by Sir Seymour Fitzgerald, in his character as representative of the Queen in Western India. His predecessor, Sir Bartle Frere, though familiar with the people and languages of Western India from his youth up, never ventured to assemble together in Durbar at one time and place more than one section of the native chiefs of the presidency; but Sir Seymour Fitzgerald assembled to meet him the rajahs, chiefs, and sirdars, both of Guzerat and the Deccan. There were present the Rajpoot and kindred chiefs from the far northeast of Guzerat; Mussulman chiefs from the extreme south near the borders of Mysore; a representative of "the Hubsbee," the African chief from the coast territory of Jinjeera (seventy miles south of Bombay harbor), and Mahrattas of the Deccan of every degree, from the Rajah of Kolapoor, the representative of Sivajee, to the smallest jagheerdar privileged to appear in public with his ancestors' sword of state. The result was entirely satisfactory to the British authorities; the assembly professing, in an address to the throne, the most loyal sentiments.

New and valuable information on the native states of India is contained in the annual administrative reports made by the political agents, who are attached to the native states as the representatives of the Governor-General. The rule that such annual reports be prepared by the political agents was established by Sir John Lawrence in 1865. Regarding the territories which are directly administered by England, similar reports have been annually published since 1853. But feudatory India—one-fourth of the whole peninsula—was practically a blank, so far as the public are concerned, till this order was issued. As yet it has been only partially obeyed. No reports of Cashmere, Nepal, or the Nizam's country, have yet appeared. The Travancore, and Cochin states in the far south of India, which are of little political importance, have long been in the habit of issuing reports. Since 1865-'66 full and interesting accounts have been published, of the seventy-one states of Central India, by Colonel Meade, who influences them from Indore, and of the nineteen states of Rajpootana by the late Colonel Eden, and his recent successor, Colonel Keatinge, V. C. These reports furnish the materials for a much more trustworthy judgment regarding the comparative merits of English and Asiatic rule than were afforded by the information accessible before the publication of these reports. From the report of Colonel Meade we learn that, of the seventy-one states of Central India, four are ruled by Mahrattas and seven by Mohammedans, the two recently invading and conquering races. Of these eleven only four are entered as minor and petty states, the other seven being principal or sec-

ondary. In truth, the two Mahrattas, Sindiah and Holkar, and the Mussulman Begum of Bhopal, divide the greater part of Central India among them. The other sixty states are, with a few exceptions, petty, and are held by Rajpoots, Brahmins, and Boondelas. The annual revenue of these seventy-one states is about two and half millions sterling, raised chiefly from the land. That of the Central provinces (which are directly administered by English authorities), with roads, railways, and navigable rivers, such as native chiefs abhor, is slightly above a million sterling. That is, adding all possible local cesses and funds, England takes from the people only one-half of the sum exacted by the chiefs from a population somewhat less, but of the same race and habits, and with inferior physical advantages.

India, during the year 1868, enjoyed an almost uninterrupted peace. Slight disturbances in the northwestern provinces were promptly and easily suppressed. The greatest danger to the continuance of peace is apprehended from the fanatical Mohammedan sect of the Wahabees. The influence of the Wahabees is rapidly growing in the Mohammedan world, and alarming not only the English authorities in India, but the Governments of Turkey and Egypt. As so little is known in Christian countries about this sect, and as they are likely to occupy a more prominent place in the history of the coming years, we condense the following information concerning them from an article in the *Friend of India*:

For forty years the Hindostan Wahabees have been at war with the British Government. In the mutiny campaigns and sieges in the expedition of Sir Sydney Cotton, in the disastrous war of Umbeyla, many a brave English officer and many a faithful Sepoy mercenary fell a victim to their intrigues and even their matchlocks. Again and again the Punjab Government, and still more emphatically the Government of India, has declared that the Wahabees are so dangerous to the peace of the empire, that they must be rooted out. It was small satisfaction to kill half of their nine hundred fighting-men in the pass of Umbeyla when our own casualties amounted to eight hundred and fifty of the bravest, and the rest escaped once more to recruit their ranks, and stir up against us a second 'Fifty-seven. What Major Abbott wrote when, as Deputy Commissioner of Hazara, he discovered the traitorous correspondence of the fanatics with their recruiting-agents in Patna in 1853, is more than ever true—"For thirty years they have, by their admirable arrangements, set the Government at defiance." The mutiny soon showed that the holy war against the Sikhs, the Chinese, and the Nazarenes, which Syud Ahmed proclaimed at Peshawur in 1824, was a reality. Government possesses the sealed patent by which he bequeathed his spiritual office to Sheik Mohammed Hoossein of Patna, and so made the very heart of the most peaceful province of the empire the focus of revolt. The power descended to his son-in-law Yahya Ali, who, with the members of his family, Ahmedoolla and Fyaz Ali, are now felons at Port Blair. Abdool'a, their connection, still leads the crescentaders on the frontier, and others still recruit for him in Bengal, as if Sir Sydney Cotton, General Chamberlain, and General Wilde had never led armies into their haunts, as if the state trials at Umballa in 1864 and at Patna in 1865 had never taken place. Lord Elgin's Government, in September, 1853,

directed the Punjab authorities "effectually to rid our frontiers of the chronic cause of disturbance, the Hindostanee fanatics," and even went so far as to order that they should be rooted out from "the compact area limited by the Barendo to the north, the Indus to the east, and our Yusufzai frontier to the south and southeast." But the Umbeyla force was broken up and was, of course, succeeded by an army twice the size five years afterward. The Wahabees owe the only check they have received to the rival spiritual pretensions of the Akhoond of Swat, who hates them only in less degree than he detests the infidels.

We have reason to believe that there has been laid before the Governments of Bengal and India very startling evidence of a Mussulman conspiracy having its ramifications spread all over Bengal north and east of the Ganges, if not farther. The Mussulmans of India are filled with a longing and a faith, more or less vague according to the sect which they favor, that their Imam is to appear in the West to give them the government of Asia. At least from Patna to Dacca there is hardly a mosque in which the Jihad, the crescentade, is not preached; and every good Mussulman is urged either himself to become a Moojahideen or crescentader, or to contribute of his substance for the holy cause. All classes are appealed to, and with general success. The landholder, the shopkeeper, the artisan, the peasant, the poor laborer are fed, not so much by the regular preachers in the mosques as by the itinerant Wahabees, with visions of the immediate coming of the deliverer who is to appear in glory on the mountain-tops of the northwest, on that Mahabun where the Aryans first rested on their march, and lead all those who are so blessed as to be there waiting his coming, to victory over the infidel here and sensuous delights hereafter. With such dreams many classes of Mussulmans in Behar and Northern and Eastern Bengal are filled. For years they have been contributing their means for this purpose. A regular rate of taxation is laid down by the leaders, and cheerfully accepted by the people. The poorest set aside one handful of rice for the holy war when they proceed to cook their daily meal, and every week the grain is taken to the mosque where it is sold from time to time to recruit the Jehadees' treasury on their frontier. The more respectable classes contribute their two seers of wheat, at fixed times, or pay the equivalent in money at the market rate of the day. The rich landholder and trader pays his 2½ per cent. on the strict principle of an income tax. The most dangerous feature in the whole organization is one which, appearing for the first time, appeals to the simplest peasants, however little of fanatics they may be. It is the promise earnestly preached, and the belief now general, that the great deliverer will, after breaking the infidel yoke, free every Mussulman from the land tax, and exact it only from the Hindoos. The Commissioners of Bhangulpore, Rajshaye, and Dacca, have reported to the Bengal Government the existence and spread of the Wahabee organization all over the Mussulmans of their Divisions, and in the Dacca districts there are three Mussulmans for every Hindoo. A number of deluded men have returned to their homes from the frontier, for which they were recruited, and their evidence is very serious. Many Mussulman ryots have made the frankest confessions as to the extent and nature of the organization and the taxation. They do not much realize the fact that they are part of a plot against the English Government—that is never plainly preached to them. In their somewhat unsophisticated ignorance, they are led to believe that the Imam will come soon, and that they must fight the infidel for the sake of securing rent-free lands, but they do not clearly realize who the infidel is in every case—that it is their Hindoo neighbor or their English ruler. This was evident even among the half-educated preachers of the crescentade in 1864, as seen in the confessions of Sheik Osman, whom the Nazir, or

sheriff's officer of the Jessore Judge's Court sent forth to preach. "I did not preach fighting against Government as a Government," he said, "but I preached fighting for religion, and when people asked me if Government were to be mixed up, then, I said, you must fight with Government." But there is something more definite than even this. The Patna nest was broken up in 1864, but the Bengal Government of the day discouraged all attempts to destroy the organization of which Patna was only the centre. The new ringleaders have established their depots at Pakour, a railway station in the extra-regulation district of Chota Nagpore, where they might hope to escape observation, and at Soorujghur, between Patna and Monghyr. Both these places are connected by a network of hospices and recruiters with the whole of Bengal north of the Ganges. Men and money are passed on secretly, as they have been for years. The state trials of 1864 and 1865, and the expeditions of 1863 and 1868, seem only to have given a stimulus to the conspiracy. There lies, at this moment, in the Rajmahal jail, one of the two ringleaders, Docoree Mundle, who has assumed the name of Ibrahim—well known in the conspiracy of 1864—and has established the village of Islampore, near the railway station of Pakour. The head of the Soorujghur depot is that Abdool Ghunnee, hide-seller, who was secretary to the Patna conspirators, and was by them deputed to assist the recruiting depot at Thanesur. Ibrahim and Abdool Ghunnee have for years been receiving crescentaders and money, and passing them on to the frontier, exactly as Ahmedoodulla did, but on a larger scale. The papers already discovered refer in a somewhat compromising manner to Mussulman gentlemen at one time in the confidence of the authorities in Calcutta, and point to Moorshedabad as an important centre of treason. The conspiracy, though still, as it has been all along, identified with the Wahabees, or Islamites as they now call themselves, is by no means confined to them. Let us give two instances. A band of Mussulman beggars, suspected to be crescentaders, on their way to the northwest lately, attracted the attention of the police. Detectives in disguise managed to worm his secret out of the leader, who was discovered to be a perfect Persian and Arabic scholar, and to possess not only a copy of the Koran which he expounded, but a series of credentials from the Moollas of Samarcand and Bokhara, and many others. This Haji Mahomed, as he called himself, is to be deported from India under the Foreigners' Act of 1864, if he is again met with, but it is now impossible to trace his band, which did not consist of ordinary Wahabees. Again, there is evidence that the Akhoond of Swat, however much he may oppose the Wahabees as rivals, is pledged to a crescentade against us. The returning Wahabees confess that his great argument is, that no one can become permanent master of India unless he invades it from the north, and as the infidel English sneaked into the country from the south, they will soon be driven out. It is on record that when Azim Khan, the dispossessed usurper of Cabul, was on his way to Toorkistan in 1865, he visited the Akhoond, and, in return for his blessing, promised to proclaim a Jihad. He was to begin by expelling our representative from Cabul. When, in consequence as he believed of that blessing, he gained the battle of Shekabad, which made him master of Afghanistan, the Akhoond sent a moolla as an envoy to Cabul to remind Azim Khan of his promise. That moolla, in open Durbar, urged a crescentade against the English; Azim Khan backed his entreaties, and only the influence of Mahomed Rufeek Khan, with the nominal Ameer, Afzul Khan, silenced the fanatics.

On November 30th, the Calcutta correspondent of the London *Times* reports continued arrests of Wahabees by the detective police of Bengal. He writes:

Some fifteen active propagandists are now in jail and proceedings will not be taken against them until the whole organization has been carefully traced to its remotest limits. Even in Chittagong a proclamation summoning the faithful to rise and escape the infidel was posted up on the court doors; but the author of it was really an imbecile. Still this shows how deep the feeling on the subject is in certain circles of Islam. On the other hand, a Moulvie named Abbas Ali has been denouncing the Wahabees, and warning the people against contributing toward the crescentade. It is to be hoped that he will continue his exhortations. As yet the search of the police has been confined to the districts of Malda and Rajmahal, in which are the foci of the conspiracy.

INDIANA. The conventions of the two political parties were held early in the year, and took the lead among the States in setting forth the principles on which they proposed to act in the important campaign of 1868. The Democratic delegates assembled on the 8th of January, and nominated Thomas A. Hendricks for Governor, Alfred P. Edgerton for Lieutenant-Governor, and Reuben C. Kise for Secretary of State. The following are the resolutions which the convention adopted as the platform of the party:

Resolved, That language is not adequate to express our abhorrence and condemnation of the Radical reconstruction policy of Congress—a policy condemned by every consideration of justice and constitutional obligation; a policy fraught with the most alarming apprehensions of evil to ten States of the Union, and of destruction to the Union itself; a policy that largely increases taxation; a policy that requires a large standing army, which adds nearly one hundred million dollars annually to the expenses of the Government, while it beggars the people; a policy the avowed object of which is to continue in power the most venal and corrupt political party that ever dishonored any civilization; a policy vindictively enacted and mercilessly prosecuted with the unconstitutional purpose of centralizing and perpetuating all political powers of the Government in the dominant Radical party in Congress, and a policy which, if not early arrested by the American people, will sooner or later overwhelm our national Government in one common and appalling ruin. We demand the unconditional repeal of the act of Congress conferring exclusive rights or privileges upon any class or classes of citizens at the expense of other classes.

8. That the national-bank system organized in the interest of the bondholders ought to be abolished, and United States notes substituted in lieu of the national-bank currency, thus saving to the people in interest alone more than eighteen million dollars a year; and, until such system of banks be abolished, we demand that the shares of such banks in Indiana shall be subjected to the same taxation, State and municipal, as other property of the State.

4. That the bonds and other securities of the United States and every description of property should bear equal proportion of taxation for State, county, and municipal purposes, and to that end the bonds and other securities of the United States ought to be taxed by Congress for national purposes in amount substantially equal to the tax imposed on property in the several States for local purposes.

5. That we are in favor of the payment of the Government bonds in Treasury notes, commonly called greenbacks, except expressly made payable in gold by law, at the earliest practicable point.

6. That the unjust and iniquitous tariff laws now in force ought to be repealed, and the tariff adopted looking to revenue only.

7. That the monstrous extravagance of the Repub-

lican leaders in the administration of government at all times, and all places, has been profligate to an extent unexampled in history; and for the hundreds of millions of dollars expended by them since the termination of the war, they have nothing to show save several States under a military despotism, oppressive laws, usurped power, and a mutilated Constitution; that the burden of taxation, too grievous to be borne, demands their removal from all places of trust, and a thorough course of retrenchment and reform.

8. That we are opposed to conferring the right of suffrage on negroes. We deny the right of the General Government to interfere with the question of suffrage in any of the States of the Union.

9. That it is the duty of the United States to protect all citizens, whether native-born or naturalized, in every right at home and abroad, without regard to the pretended claim of foreign nations to perpetual allegiance.

10. That the attempt to regulate the moral ideas and aspects of the people by legislation is unwise and despotic, and we are opposed to that class of legislation which seeks to prohibit the people from the enjoyment of all proper appetites and amusements.

11. That we shall ever hold in sacred recollection the dead who freely sacrificed their lives for the defence of our glorious Union, that the present and future generations might enjoy the rich inheritance of a form of government that secures an equality of rights and privileges to all the citizens thereof; that the nation owes to the surviving soldiers and sailors of the Union the highest marks of praise and gratitude for the great sacrifices they made in the late war, and to those disabled in the service of the Union, and the widows and orphan children of those who fell in battle, or died of wounds, or in the military service of the Union, such personal aid as will enable them to enjoy the substantial necessities of life.

12. That we recognize in the restoration measures of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, a policy which would have given peace, security, and prosperity to the State, and dispelled the dark clouds caused by the vindictive measures of a Radical Congress. The adoption of the President's policy would, in our opinion, have saved the nation the expenditure of untold millions of treasure, lessened the burden of taxation, secured peace to the South, and prosperity to the Union.

13. That Major-General Hancock, by his order at New Orleans, reinstating the civil law and dethroning the military despotism, has manifested the highest respect for constitutional liberty, for which he deserves the commendation of all friends of constitutional government, and who revere the noble profession of arms. Like the great and good Washington, this gallant soldier had learned to respect the civil rights of all good citizens, and to declare that in time of peace military tribunals should have no place in our jurisprudence. Eternal honor to the soldier who refused to rise above the laws!

14. That we congratulate the Democracy of our sister State of Ohio on the gallant political campaign closed on the 8th day of October, 1867—a campaign marked by the highest order of devotion, ability, and effect, and that prominent and close in the association in the minds of our fellow-citizens of Indiana stands the name of the Hon. George H. Pendleton, identified with the vital measures upon which our party enters the canvass for 1868, together with his ability as a statesman and his high personal qualities. All these entitle him to the commendation of the convention as a true and consistent Democrat, and one who has our entire confidence and preference.

The Republican Convention met at Indianapolis on the 20th of February. Its nominations for the first three places on the State ticket were: Conrad Baker, for Governor; William

Cumback, for Lieutenant-Governor; and Max F. A. Hoffman for Secretary of State. Their platform of principles was embodied in the following series of resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

The Union Republican party of Indiana, assembled in convention at Indianapolis on the 20th day of February, 1868, to consult in reference to the present condition of the country, make the following declaration of principles:

1. The congressional plan of reconstruction was made necessary by the continued rebellious spirit of the Southern people, and if they will not, upon the conditions prescribed by Congress, become the friends of the Union, it is the duty of Congress to do whatever the emergency requires to prevent them from doing harm as enemies.

2. The extension of suffrage to the negroes of the South is the result of the rebellion and the continued rebellious spirit maintained therein, and was necessary to secure the reconstruction of the Union and the preservation of loyal men therein from a state worse than slavery; and the question of suffrage in all the loyal States belongs to the people of those States under the Constitution of the United States.

3. The Government of the United States should be administered with the strictest economy consistent with public safety and interest; the revenue should be so laid as to give the greatest possible exemption to the articles of primary necessity, and fall most heavily upon the luxuries and wealth of the country; and all property should bear a just proportion of the burden of taxation.

4. The public debt, made necessary by the rebellion, should be honestly paid, and all bonds issued therefor should be paid in legal tenders, commonly called greenbacks, except where by their express terms they provide otherwise, and paid in such quantities as will make the circulation commensurate with the commercial wants of the country, and so as to avoid too great an inflation of the currency, and an increase in the price of gold.

5. The large and rapid contraction of the currency, sanctioned by the votes of the Democratic party in both Houses of Congress, has had a most injurious effect on the industry and business of the country, and it is the duty of Congress to provide by law for supplying the deficiency in legal-tender notes, commonly called greenbacks, to the full extent required by the business wants of the country.

6. We are opposed to the payment of any part of the rebel debt, or to any payment whatever for emancipated slaves.

7. Of all who were faithful amid the trials of the late war, there are none entitled to more especial honor than the brave soldiers and seamen, who endured the hardships of campaign and cruise, and imperilled their lives in the service of the country; the bounties and pensions provided by law for these brave defenders of the nation are obligations never to be forgotten; the widows and orphans of the gallant dead are the wards of the nation—a sacred legacy bequeathed to the nation's protecting care.

8. The public lands are the property of the people; monopolies, either by individuals or corporations, should be prohibited; they should be reserved for actual settlers, and, as a substantial recognition of the services of Union officers and soldiers in the late civil war, they should each be allowed one hundred and sixty acres thereof.

9. The doctrine of Great Britain and other European powers, that because a man is once a citizen he is always so, must be resisted at every hazard by the United States as a relic of feudal times not authorized by the law of nations and at war with our national honor and independence. Naturalized citizens are entitled to be protected in all their rights of citizenship as though they were native born, and no citizen of the United States, native or naturalized, must be

liable to arrest and imprisonment by any foreign power for acts done or words spoken in this country, and if so arrested and imprisoned it is the duty of the Government to interfere in his behalf.

10. We cordially approve of the course of the Republican members of Congress in their active support of the bill prohibiting further contraction of the currency, in which they faithfully represented the will of the people of Indiana, and this convention express their unwavering confidence in the wisdom and patriotism of Oliver P. Morton; his devotion to the vital interests of the nation during the past six years has endeared him to every lover of Union and liberty, and we send greeting to him in the American Senate an assurance of our unqualified indorsement of his course.

11. General U. S. Grant and the Hon. Schuyler Colfax are the choice of Indiana for President and Vice-President of the United States, and this convention hereby instruct the delegates to the National Convention to cast the vote of Indiana for these gentlemen.

The political canvass in Indiana, as elsewhere in the country, was quite animated. The election for State officers occurred on the second Tuesday of October, and resulted in the choice of Conrad Baker, the Republican candidate, for Governor, by a majority of nine hundred and sixty-one. The whole vote was 342,189; Baker received 171,575; Hendricks, 170,614. Representatives to Congress were chosen, of whom those from the first, second, third, and sixth districts were Democrats, and those from the fourth, fifth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth, and eleventh districts were Republicans. At the presidential election in November, 343,532 votes were cast, of which 176,552 were for Grant, and 166,980 for Seymour, giving the Republican Board of Electors a majority of 9,572.

The State debt of Indiana on the 31st of October was \$7,195,085.94. Of this over three and a quarter millions consisted of the remnants of a debt incurred for internal improvements many years ago, and adjusted by what is known as the "Butler Bill" in 1846 and 1847, when five per cent. certificates of stock were issued to the creditors of the State. Over three and a half millions more of the State debt are represented by non-negotiable bonds, held by the State School-fund, for money borrowed therefrom to redeem a portion of the certificates issued in 1846 and 1847. The remainder of the public debt consists of \$210,000, in six per cent. bonds, issued in 1861, to meet expenses connected with the war, and \$63,585, in bonds held by the Vincennes University.

The State of Indiana has claims pending against the Federal Government, on account of expenses incurred in the late war, to the amount of \$3,568,092.30, and an agent has been appointed to prosecute these claims at Washington—\$1,958,917.94 have been already allowed.

In 1867, under authority of the Legislature, commissioners were appointed to hear and consider claims on the State for loss of private property, destroyed by the forces under command of the Confederate officer John Morgan, known as "Morgan's raids." These

commissioners submitted a report to the Governor this year, from which it appears that claims were allowed and approved to the amount of \$413,599.48. Whether the State will assume the duty of indemnifying the citizens for these losses, remains for the Legislature to determine.

A law was passed by the last Legislature (1867) to provide for a House of Refuge for the correction and reformation of juvenile offenders against the law. The duty of obtaining a site for this institution, and of contracting for the erection of suitable buildings, was assigned to the Governor, and, during the year 1867, one hundred and twenty-one acres of land were purchased near Plainfield for the purpose, and about \$40,000 expended in improvements thereon. The institution has been in operation one year, at a cost of \$20,000. The subject of prisons and prison discipline is one that occupies much attention, and separate Houses of Correction for females are contemplated.

Among the benevolent institutions under the care of the State is the Soldiers' and Seamen's Home, near Knightstown, which was originally established by private enterprise and benevolence, and adopted by the Legislature in 1867. Since it was founded, this institution has afforded relief and temporary subsistence to four hundred men who were disabled in the late war; and one hundred and forty-eight still enjoy its advantages. A substantial brick edifice has been built for the Home, while the old buildings are used for an orphans' department, in which are gathered eighty-six children of deceased soldiers.

By reason of some defect in the laws regulating criminal proceedings, a feeling is quite prevalent in the State that the processes of law are neither prompt nor sure for the punishment of crime. It is easy, by means of affidavits, true or false, to obtain numerous continuances and changes of venue, thus occasioning great delay, and begetting distrust in the administration of the penal laws. The consequence has been, that resort to "Lynch law" has attained an alarming frequency in the State. A remarkable instance of the kind occurred this year in the case of several robbers of Express cars on the railroads in the State. A gang of these desperadoes had operated for many months in the southern counties, and on the 22d of May an extensive robbery was committed on the Jeffersonville road, upon a car belonging to Adams's Express Company. Though the perpetrators of the robbery were soon after arrested, and kept for several weeks in custody in the city of Cincinnati, Ohio, on the 20th of July they were put on board a train of cars to be taken to the county of Jackson, in Indiana, for trial. An armed body of the so-called Vigilance Committee of Seymour, Indiana, lay in wait for the train, and stopped the cars by hoisting a red signal on the road. They then proceeded to

seize the prisoners, and, after extorting a confession from them, hanged them without the form of a trial. Immediately after this outrage, they published the following proclamation:

ATTENTION, THIEVES.

The attention of all thieves, robbers, assassins, and vagrants, together with their aiders, abettors, and sympathizers, is called to the doings of the Seymour Vigilance Committee last night. We are determined to follow this up until all of the classes above named, whether imported or to the "manor born," are driven forever from our midst. Threats have been made of retaliation in case we should resort to capital punishment. In answer, we say: "Should one of our committee be harmed, or a dollar's worth of property of any honest man be destroyed, by persons unknown, we will *swing by the neck*, until they be dead, every thieving character we can lay our hands on, without inquiring whether we have the persons who committed that particular crime or not. This applies not only to Seymour, but along the line of the two roads, and wherever our organization exists. *Law and order must prevail.*

By order of THE COMMITTEE.

SEYMOUR, INDIANA, July 21, 1868.

In October four more of the railroad robbers were arrested in Canada, and brought to New Albany, and there lodged in jail. On the night of the 12th of December, the Seymour Vigilance Committee, to the number of seventy-five armed men, disguised in red masks, entered the city of New Albany, and took the keys of the jail from the possession of the sheriff, and proceeded to execute summary punishment upon their victims, by hanging them in the corridors of the jail.

The Legislature of 1869 met on the 5th of January. Its composition was as follows: Senate—Republicans, 33; Democrats, 17. House of Representatives—Republicans, 57; Democrats, 43.

INDIAN WAR. The efforts which were made by the Peace Commissioners in 1867 to conclude treaties with the Indian tribes of the Western plains were resumed and continued through the spring and summer of 1868. The three treaties made in 1867 with the Arrapahoes, Cheyennes, Kiowas, Camanches, and Apaches, at Medicine Lodge, were formally ratified and proclaimed on the part of the Government of the United States; but those made with the Pottowatomies, Sacs, Foxes, and other tribes in Kansas, with the view of removing them to the reservations south of that State, have not been finally acted on by the Senate. A treaty was concluded on the 2d of March, at Washington, by Commissioner Taylor and the Governor of Colorado, with the several bands of the Ute Indians, the object of which was the removal of those savages from the settled portions of New Mexico and Colorado to a large reservation in the latter Territory, and the establishment of two agencies among them on that reservation. In May, treaties were concluded by the Peace Commissioner with the Brulé, Sioux, Crows, northern Arrapahoes, and Cheyennes, and the Ogallala Sioux. These were followed by similar compacts in the

month of June with the Osages, Chippewas, and Navajoes; so that nearly all the tribes had, before midsummer, signed written agreements which bound them to keep peace with the subjects and authorities of the United States.

The principal object of these treaties with the Indians has been to induce them to forbear from all attacks upon the persons and property of the whites, and to suffer themselves to be removed to reservations of land secured to their exclusive use and occupation by the Government of the United States. The Government stipulates to bear the expense of their removal and to furnish them with the means of education and civilization, providing for their subsistence until they shall be able by their own industry to provide for themselves. Agricultural implements, seed, cattle, mechanical tools, etc., are among the articles to be supplied them through the agents of the Government, the hope of the Government being to reduce them in time to the condition of farmers, and herdsmen, and mechanics, in which they may be able to maintain themselves in the pursuits of peace. The two principal reservations upon which it is proposed to gather them are, the region north of the State of Nebraska, and west of the Missouri River, and a wide tract west of the State of Arkansas, and south of Kansas. The Osages, by their treaty of May 27th, agreed to sell 8,000,000 acres of land in the State of Kansas for \$1,600,000 to the Leavenworth, Lawrence, and Galveston Railroad Company, and promised to remove to the Indian country south of Kansas.

One cause of complaint with the Northern Indians, in 1867, had been the establishment of the river route to Montana through the best hunting-grounds of the Sioux, in violation of an old treaty, which they claimed had guaranteed that region to them forever. As the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad to the west of the Black Hills opened a better line of travel to Montana on that side of the mountains, the wishes of the Indians were complied with, and, on the 2d of March, General Grant gave orders for breaking up the military posts of Forts Reno, Philip Kearney, and C. F. Smith, and the withdrawal of all troops and stores from that region.

The military Division of the Missouri remained unchanged, under the command of General Sherman. It embraced substantially the country west of the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, and was divided into the three Departments of Missouri, Platte, and Dacotah, commanded respectively by Generals P. H. Sheridan, C. C. Auger, and A. H. Terry. The duty of conducting the Indians to their reservations and disbursing the funds appropriated for the purpose of establishing them in their new life devolved on General Sherman and his subordinates. The order of General Sherman directing the mode of accomplishing this object contains so much information re-

garding the disposal to be made of the various tribes, that it is given here in full:

General Orders, No. 34.

HEADQ'RS MILITARY DIVISION OF THE MISSOURI, }
ST. LOUIS, MO., August 18, 1868.

Certain duties connected with Indian disbursements having been devolved upon the Lieutenant-General commanding, by law, in connection with his military command, and in order that the same may be conducted in full harmony with the military interests of the frontier, the following orders are made:

1. Commanders of departments, districts, and posts, charged with the peace and police of the frontier, will construe themselves so far the agents of the "Plains Indians" as to afford them temporary support to conduct them to their reservations, hereinafter named, and to report to their immediate superiors all matters requiring their notice. No supplies or presents of any sort will be made by military commanders to Indians outside of their reservations, except for special services rendered, unless the Indians be actually in distress, and *en route* to their proper homes.

When Indians are on reservation with civilian agents actually present with them, no interferences will be made, but military commanders may note any neglects or irregularities on the part of said Indians or their agents, and will report the same for the information of the Government.

2. The following district of country is set aside for the exclusive use of the Sioux nation of Indians, viz.: Bounded east by the Missouri River, south by the State of Nebraska, west by the one hundred and fourth meridian of longitude west from Greenwich, and north by the forty-sixth parallel of latitude, and will constitute a military district under the command of Brevet Major-General W. S. Harney, United States Army, who will have the supervision and control of the Sioux, and of all issues and disbursements to them, subject only to the authority of the Lieutenant-General commanding; but, in matters affecting the United States troops stationed in said district, he will be subject to the department commander, Brevet Major-General A. H. Terry.

3. In like manner the country bounded east by the State of Arkansas, south by Texas, north by Kansas, and west by the one hundredth meridian of longitude, west from Greenwich, is set apart for the exclusive use of the Cheyennes, Arrapahoes, Kiowas, and Comanches, and such other bands as are now or may hereafter be therein located by proper authority, and will constitute a military district, under command of Brevet Major-General W. B. Hazen, United States Army, who will have the supervision and control of all issues and disbursements to said Indians, subject only to the authority of the Lieutenant-General commanding, but, in matters affecting the troops stationed in said district, subject to Department Commander Major-General P. H. Sheridan.

4. Brevet Major-General George W. Getty, commanding District of New Mexico, in addition to his proper military duties, is charged with all disbursements affecting the Navajoes.

5. Brevet Major E. S. Lamotte, 13th United States Infantry, commanding Fort Ellis, in addition to his proper military duties, is charged with making all disbursements affecting the Crows.

6. Brevet Major-General C. C. Auger, commanding Department of the Platte, is charged with making all disbursements affecting the Shoshones, Snakes, and kindred tribes.

7. Each of said officers may select, and, with the consent of the department commander, may detail an officer to act under him as a disbursing officer, who shall receive the extra compensation due an acting commissary of subsistence, and hire such clerical force as is absolutely necessary, to be paid out of the Indian appropriation fund; which officer shall have charge of all moneys, property, stores, etc., for

the use of the Indians, and shall make the same reports and returns to these headquarters as are prescribed by army regulations for the Subsistence Department. When these officers are named, the Lieutenant-General will cause to be placed to their credit, at some convenient public depository, the proportion of the appropriation allotted to their agency; and in no event or under no circumstances will any purchases, contracts, or engagements be made in excess of the actual money thus subject to their credit. All checks and vouchers must have the signature of the disbursing officer, countersigned by his principal.

8. Purchases will consist chiefly of beef cattle, meat, grain, and bread, sugar and coffee only in exceptional cases; clothing for the old and young, of materials suited to their condition; and of seed, and agricultural tools for cultivation. The chief quartermasters and commissaries at Chicago, St. Louis, Omaha, and Leavenworth will purchase, on the requisition of the officer charged with these issues, on being supplied with the necessary funds or credits. As far as possible, consistent with due economy, purchases by the disbursing officer will be made at the place of consumption, and commanding officers of departments may allow the officers charged with these duties to purchase of their depot and post commissaries and quartermasters any article of food and corn, clothing, harness, condemned wagons, horses, mules, and oxen, that may be on hand in excess, or which may have been condemned by a board of survey, or an inspector, at the cost to Government at the place of delivery, or at a valuation fixed by the board of survey or by the inspector.

9. Issues to Indians will be made, when practicable, only to those actually present or certified as present at the camp, but always must be witnessed by some army officer of rank not below captain, according to section two, act of Congress approved July 27, 1868; and all issues will conform as near as possible with the terms of the treaties made by the Indian Peace Commission, whether confirmed or not, copies of which will be furnished.

10. When points arise not covered by these orders, all officers will be governed by the army regulations, and these orders will expire with the existing appropriation bill, viz., June 30, 1869, when, if not otherwise ordered, all accounts will be closed, and the officers herein named will resume their proper army duties and stations.

By order of Lieutenant-Gen'l W. T. SHERMAN.
W. A. NICHOLS, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Notwithstanding these movements for the establishment of peaceful relations with the Indian tribes, numerous outrages were committed from time to time all through the spring and summer. Those in the early part of the year consisted chiefly of an occasional attack on a stray party of travellers or a lonely outpost, and resulted in the scalping of one or two persons and the driving off of all the cattle and horses which could be found. The Indians were sullen and discontented, hardly ever satisfied with the stipulations which they had made with the agents of the Government, and continually exasperated by delays in receiving stores and supplies which were promised them; and, while the savages were in this mood, white settlers continued to push the limits of their settlements into their hunting-grounds, to search for gold in regions beyond the protection of civilized authorities, and to lay out lines of travel and communication through the wilderness, giving constant opportunity for attacks which the Indians were

but too ready to make. Attacks upon travellers and settlements became more frequent in the month of August, and outrages of the most horrible description were perpetrated. It is not easy to trace the immediate cause of any single hostile outbreak. To use the language of General Sherman: "It has always been difficult to discover the exact truth concerning the cause of a rupture with any Indians. They never give notice beforehand of a warlike intention, and the first notice comes after their rifles and lances have done much bloody work. All intercourse then necessarily ceases, and the original cause soon becomes buried in after-events."

During the months of August and September, Indian outrages in Kansas and Colorado were of almost daily occurrence. Houses were attacked and burned, men slaughtered, women ruthlessly outraged and murdered, children slain or taken captive, and flocks and herds driven away. On the 27th of August, acting-Governor Hall of Colorado telegraphed to the military headquarters in these words: "The Arrapahoes are killing settlers and destroying ranches in all directions. For God's sake give me authority to take soldiers from Fort Reynolds! The people are arming, and will not be restrained." On the 7th of September, the Hon. Schuyler Colfax telegraphed from Denver: "Hostile Indians have been striking simultaneously at isolated settlements of Colorado for a circuit of over 200 miles. Men, women, and children have been killed and scalped daily, and hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of property stolen. These atrocities have been mainly near the three great lines of travel from this focal point."

These occurrences were chiefly in the Military Department of the Missouri, within the command of General Sheridan, and the outrages had been, for the most part, committed by the Cheyennes, Arrapahoes, Camanches, and Kiowas. Along the line of the Union Pacific Railroad, and the Denver stage route, the posts of Fort Harker, Hays, and Wallace, and the outpost of Cedar Point, were established in 1867, as well as Forts Larned, Dodge, Lyon, and Reynolds, on the line of the Arkansas to New Mexico. At these various posts General Sheridan had a force of 1,200 cavalry and 1,400 infantry. After distributing the troops absolutely necessary for the protection of important interests at various points, he had only 800 men available for any active operations against the Indians, who were able at any time to put into the field about 6,000 warriors well mounted and equipped. With this inadequate force General Sheridan determined to commence a vigorous campaign for the castigation of the tribes which had been guilty of the terrible outrages of the summer.

Troops were kept on the alert along the line of travel across the State of Kansas into Colorado territory, and a company of scouts under Colonel G. A. Forsyth were sent out to watch

the direction of the trails. The first important engagement of the campaign took place at Ar-rickarey Fork on the 17th of September, when Colonel Forsyth and his company of scouts were attacked by about 700 Indians. A very lively fight occurred, resulting in the defeat of the Indians, with a loss of thirty-five killed and many wounded. Colonel Forsyth was twice wounded, and Lieutenant Frederick H. Beecher was killed, while four scouts were killed and fifteen wounded. This little band maintained their position for several days, subsisting on horse-flesh, until relieved from their perilous situation by succors from Fort Wallace.

After this affair troops were sent to the field of action from other departments, the services of volunteer companies from the State of Kansas were accepted, and operations against the Indians were prosecuted with all the vigor which the nature of frontier warfare and the small force at the disposal of the commanding general would allow. Skirmishes took place wherever the scouts fell in with bands of savages, but it was difficult to bring them to a fair engagement. On the 18th of October General E. A. Carr, while following a trail which had been reported near Beaver Creek, was attacked by 400 Indians, but, after a brisk encounter of six hours, succeeded in repulsing them after killing nine and wounding many more.

Hostile Indians were constantly pursued in all directions, and insignificant skirmishes were matters of frequent occurrence, but on the 27th of November a fight took place on the Washita, which almost arose to the dignity of a battle. General Custar had been sent to the south with eleven companies in search of hostile Indians, and fell in with a trail of a band of Cheyennes, under their chief, Black Kettle. Following this, the little army soon came upon the camp of the Cheyennes, consisting of fifty-one lodges, and immediately made an attack upon it. After a desperate struggle, the village was taken and destroyed. Black Kettle and about one hundred and forty of his warriors were killed, and the whole stock of arms, ammunition, and robes, together with fifty-three women and children, were captured.

Another vigorous blow was struck on Christmas-day by the destruction of a Camanche village by Colonel Evans's command. This, said General Sheridan, "gives the final blow to the backbone of the Indian rebellion." At the close of the year, the stern dealing of General Sheridan, with all bands of Indians which he believed to be guilty of outrages against the whites, seemed likely to put an end to such atrocities, and to induce the Indian tribes to settle peaceably on their reservations. In a letter written January 1, 1869, General Sheridan says: "At twelve o'clock on the night of the 31st of December, a delegation of the chief fighting-men of the Arapahoes and Cheyennes, twenty-one in all, arrived at this place on foot, their animals not being able to carry them.

They had ruled the village. They begged for peace and permission for their people to come in, asking no terms, but for a paper to protect them from the operations of our troops while *en route*. They report the tribes in mourning for their losses, their people starving, their dogs all eaten up, and no buffalo."

The number of Indians in the United States in 1868, exclusive of the inhabitants of Alaska, was 300,000, and they are said to be decreasing rapidly from year to year. The policy of the Government of the United States in dealing with the Indians is denounced on all sides as mistaken in principle and inefficient in its operation. The suggestions most worthy of notice are those of Generals Sheridan and Sherman. The former of these distinguished officers says: "The Indian history of this country for the last three hundred years shows that of all the great nations of Indians only the remnants have been saved. The same fate awaits those now hostile, and the best way for the Government is to now make them poor by the destruction of their stock, and then settle them on the lands allotted to them. The motive of the Peace Commission was humane; but there was an error of judgment in making peace with these Indians last fall. They should have been punished and made to give up the plunder captured and which they now hold, and, after properly submitting to the military, and disgorging their plunder, they could have been turned over to the civil agents. This error has given many more victims to savage ferocity.

"The present system of dealing with the Indians, I think, is an error. There are too many fingers in the pie, too many ends to be subserved, and too much money to be made, and it is the interest of the nation and of humanity to put an end to this inhuman farce. The Peace Commission and the Indian Department, and the military and the Indians make a 'balky team.' The public Treasury is depleted and innocent people murdered in the quadrangular management, in which the public Treasury and the unarmed settlers are the greatest sufferers. There should be only one head in the government of Indians; now they look to the Peace Commission, then to the Indian Department, both of which are expensive institutions, without any system or adequate machinery, to make good their promises. Then the Indian falls back on the military, which is the only reliable resort in case he becomes pinched from hunger.

"I respectfully recommend, in view of what I have seen since I came in command of this department, and from a long experience with Indians heretofore, that the Indian Department be transferred to the War Department, and that the Lieutenant-General, as the common superior, have sole and entire charge of the Indians; that each department commander and the officers under him have the sole and entire charge of the Indians in his department. There will then be no 'balky team,' no additional expense in salaries, and a just accountability in the

disbursement of the Indian appropriations. The machinery necessary to support the army can, without additional expense, supply the Indians."

General Sherman is also quite earnest in the recommendation that the charge of Indian affairs be transferred to the War Department.

The Peace Commissioners held a meeting at Chicago in October, and the results of their experience and deliberations were summed up in the following resolutions then adopted:

Resolved, That this Commission recommend to the President of the United States and Congress that full provision be at once made to feed, clothe, and protect the Indians of the Crow, Blackfeet, Pagan, Gros Ventres, Sioux, Poncas, Cheyenne, Arapahoe, Apache, Kiowa, and Comanche nations of Indians, who now have located, or may hereafter locate permanently on the respective agricultural reservations.

Resolved, That the treaties of said tribes with the United States, whether ratified or not, should be considered to be and remain in full force as to all Indians of such tribes as now have or may hereafter have their homes upon agricultural reservations described in their respective treaties, but no others.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Commission, the time has come when the Government should cease to recognize the Indian tribes as a domestic dependent nation, except so far as it may be required to recognize them as such by existing treaties, and by treaties made, but not yet ratified; that hereafter all Indians should be considered and held to be individually subject to the laws of the United States, except where and while it is otherwise provided in such treaties; and that they should be entitled to the same protection from said laws as other persons owing allegiance to the Government enjoy.

Resolved, That the recent outrages and depredations committed by the Indians of the Plains justify the Government in abrogating those clauses of the treaties made in October, 1867, at Medicine Lodge Creek, which secure to them the right of roaming and hunting outside their reservations; that all said Indians be required to remove at once to said reservations and remain within them, except that, after peace shall have been restored, hunting-parties may be permitted to cross their boundaries with written authority from their agent or superintendent; and

Resolved, further, That military force should be used to compel the removal into said reservations of all such Indians as may refuse to go, after due notice has been given them, and provision has been made to feed and protect them within the same.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this Commission, the Bureau of Indian Affairs should be transferred from the Interior Department to the War Department.

INGERSOLL, JOSEPH REED, LL.D., D. C. L., an American statesman and diplomatist, born in Philadelphia, June 14, 1786; died in the same city, February 20, 1868. He was a son of the eminent lawyer, Jared Ingersoll, and a brother of Charles J. Ingersoll, a somewhat famous member of Congress many years ago. He was educated at Princeton, graduating in the class of 1804, studied law with his father, and attained, while yet a young man, to a large and lucrative practice. In 1835 he was elected to Congress from Philadelphia by the Whigs, and served for one term. In 1842 he was again elected, and continued in Congress till 1849. While in Congress he was a firm supporter of Henry Clay, and one of his

finest efforts in the House was a defence of Mr. Clay's "Tariff of 1842." In 1852, President Fillmore appointed him minister to the court of St. James, as successor to Hon. Abbott Lawrence; he held the position about a year, when he was succeeded by Mr. Buchanan, the appointee of President Pierce. After his return, Mr. Ingersoll retired to private life and to literary pursuits, of which he was very fond. He was a devoted friend of the Union, and, when the war was inaugurated, he prepared an able essay, worthy of the vigor and eloquence of his early manhood, with the title, "Secession: a Folly and a Crime." His courteous and polished manners, his elegant scholarship, and his kindness and gentleness of disposition, made him an object of general esteem in his native city. The dignity of D. C. L. was conferred on him by Oxford University.

IOWA. The State of Iowa has an area of 55,045 square miles, nine-tenths of which comprise a fertile expanse of rolling prairie, rising in the northern part of the State to a general level 1,400 feet above that of the sea. The growth of the State since it was admitted into the Union, in 1846, has been very rapid. The amount of wheat raised in the State, in 1868, was 90,000,000 bushels, or more than twice as much as was grown in the year 1863. The number of pounds of wool produced has increased fourfold in the same period, and three times as much fruit was raised in the State last year as was produced five years ago. The population of the State was estimated, in 1868, at 1,100,000, while two thirds of its territory is still wholly unoccupied. There are 20,000,000 acres of excellent land within the limits of Iowa, which have never been touched by the plough, and which may be bought at prices ranging from \$2.50 to \$10 per acre.

The General Assembly of Iowa meets biennially at Des Moines, on the 2d Monday in January. Its sessions, at the last term, continued until the 8th day of April. This body is largely Republican, and the general tendency of public opinion in the State is toward radical measures. Some attempts which were made to modify the existing law prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors met with little countenance. The subject of granting the right of suffrage to women was introduced, and the following resolution was referred to the Committee on Amendments to the Constitution:

Whereas, We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that to secure these rights governments are instituted, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; and

Whereas, We believe that "men" in the memorable document from which we quote refers to the whole human race, regardless of nationality or sex; and

Whereas, We recognize the fact, that, as a general principle, taxation and representation should be co-extensive; and

Whereas, It is a fact that women are compelled to give allegiance and pay taxes to a government in the enactment of whose laws they have been, and still are, denied a voice: therefore

Be it resolved as the sense of this House, That steps should be taken, looking toward a change in the constitution of this State, so as to allow woman the right of franchise, for the proper use of which, her quick perception, strong intellect, and, above all, her high sense of right and justice, have proven her so well qualified.

Resolutions in favor of impeaching the President of the United States were adopted in the Senate, by a vote of 35 to 10, and the following was adopted in the lower House, by a strict party vote, all the Republicans voting for, and all the Democrats against it.

Resolved, That the President of the United States, owing his election to the loyal people thereof, and committed, by repeated pledges prior to his election, to the maintenance of Republican principles, having deserted his loyal associations, to which he was pledged in honor and good faith, and placed himself as a leader of the opposition, and champion of the interests of the party which so recently plunged the country into civil war, has forfeited alike his good faith, and the confidence of all loyal people, and ought to resign the office which he has perverted to thwart the restoration of the Union, and the interests of loyalty and good government; and that, in his assault upon a soldier of the Republic, he has given fresh offence to all the gallant soldiers of the country, and to the people who gratefully acknowledge the eminent services of the great captain of the war; and, therefore, that this General Assembly declares its unhesitating confidence in the honor and integrity of the soldier whom the President has assailed, and, when the loyal citizens of the United States shall select General Ulysses S. Grant to bear the Republican standard once more in triumph into the national capital, the people of Iowa will rejoice in the opportunity to restore harmony to the Union by sending the loyal chieftain into the White House, and Andrew Johnson into private life.

The following resolutions show the sentiments of the Legislature on a prominent international question:

Whereas, American citizens travelling abroad have been illegally arrested by despots in the old world, and without cause immured in bastiles; and

Whereas, The Governments of Europe deny the right of expatriation, and of renouncing allegiance; and

Whereas, The spirit of the age, the genius of our institutions, the traditions of our nation, and the language of its laws, are in direct conflict with the slavish doctrine of "once a subject, always a subject;" therefore, be it

Resolved, By the General Assembly of the State of Iowa, that it is the duty of our national authorities to formally insist that the person of a subject of the United States is as sacred as our flag, that the unwarranted interference by foreign Governments with the liberty of the former will be deemed an insult to the latter.

Resolved, that the honor and dignity of the nation require that reparation be made for past offences, and that any future violation or infringement of the rights of American citizens by any power should be promptly resented and punished by our Government.

Resolved, That the doctrine promulgated by English law-officers on the subject of allegiance is not recognized as the law of the United States, and that our citizens, whether native or adopted, must not be molested or interfered with so long as they commit no offence punishable by the laws of England, and, that words spoken or acts done in the United States are not punishable in any foreign court, or before any foreign tribunal.

Resolved, That it is the doctrine of the United States Government, and regarded as the law of the

United States, that every man, on reaching the shores of this country, is entitled to change his allegiance at his pleasure, and that, when naturalized, he becomes a citizen of the United States, and, as such, is entitled to and will be defended by the whole power of the Government.

Resolved, That the course pursued by our Foreign ministers in Prussia and at the court of St. James, in treating with inhumanity and failing to respond to the reasonable requests of the American citizens when pressed into the Prussian army, and while confined in British dungeons, merits our just condemnation.

Among the laws enacted with a view to promoting the material interests of the Commonwealth, was one prohibiting the importation of infected cattle, an act "to encourage the growing of timber, fruit-trees, shade-trees, and hedges," and numerous laws passed in the interest of railroads and other internal improvements. The growing of timber is to be encouraged by exempting from taxation \$100 worth of real or personal property for ten years, for each acre of forest-trees planted and cultivated, the trees not to be more than 80 feet apart. Property to the amount of \$50 is to be exempted from taxation five years for each acre on which fruit-trees are cultivated, placed at intervals not exceeding 30 feet.

The aid to railroads, aside from the granting of franchises for the construction of new roads, consists in liberal grants of land for the benefit of these important enterprises. The railroads of the State are now twelve in number, and have more than 1,400 miles of road in actual operation. A great work connected with this system of railways is a bridge over the Missouri River at Council Bluffs, the plan of which has been already prepared by General G. M. Dodge, Chief Engineer of the Union Pacific Railroad, while a contract for its execution has been made with L. B. Bloomer, Esq., of Chicago. The bridge is to be built of iron, and will rest on iron columns 8½ feet in diameter, sunk 70 feet into the sand at the bottom of the river. The bridge will cross the stream with 10 spans each of 250 feet extent. Besides the 2,500 feet of iron-work, forming these arches, the trestles will have about the same length, and the approaches to the structure will be about three miles long. The weight of the superstructure of this bridge will be about 2,000 pounds for each lineal foot.

An act received the Governor's approval on the 31st of March, which provided for the establishment of a State Reform School for offenders against the laws, both male and female, below the age of eighteen years. This is an institution of which a growing need is felt in many of the States. The act of March last, in Iowa, provides for the appointment of trustees and the organization of the school under their direction, and lays down regulations for its general management, but the selection of a permanent site and the erection of appropriate buildings are left to the care of future Legislatures. A temporary institution is, however, to be opened at once in accordance with the law, by leasing, for a term not exceeding ten years,

the land, buildings, and appurtenances of White's Manual Labor Institute. The general policy of the Iowa State Reform School is indicated in the following provisions regarding the treatment of delinquents committed to its charge:

Section 18. No boy or girl shall be committed to said reform school for a longer term than until he or she attains the age of majority, but the said trustees, by their order, may at any time, after one year's service, discharge a boy or girl from said school, as a reward of good conduct in the school, and upon satisfactory evidence of reformation.

Sec. 19. Any boy or girl committed to the State Reform School shall be there kept, disciplined, instructed, employed, and governed, under the direction of the trustees, until he or she arrives at the age of maturity, or is bound out, reformed, or legally discharged. The binding out or discharge of a boy or girl as reformed, or as having arrived at the age of maturity, shall be a complete release from all penalties incurred by conviction of the offence for which he or she was committed.

Another law of the last legislative session, having some general interest, is entitled "an act abolishing distinctions between foreigners and citizens as to the acquisition, enjoyment, and transfer of property," whereby *all* distinctions of the kind indicated, both as to real and personal property, are done away.

An act for the registration of qualified electors was passed at the end of the session, providing that the assessors shall make a list of resident voters in each township, and that the trustees and clerk of townships, and the mayor, assessor, clerk, and marshal of cities shall constitute a Board of Registry, to make, with the aid of these assessors' lists, a thorough registration of the legal voters of their respective townships and cities. A revisal of the registry lists is to be made on the Tuesday next preceding the general election, and no person is to be allowed to vote whose name does not appear on the register on the day of election, "unless the person offering to vote shall furnish the judges of election his affidavit, showing that he is a qualified elector, and a proper reason for not appearing before said board on the day for correcting said register, and prove by the affidavit of a person whose name is on said register that he knows such person to be a resident of such township, and, if in a city or incorporated village, giving the place of residence in the manner required to be entered on the register, which said affidavits shall be filed in the office of the township clerk." The penalty for fraudulent registration or voting, or causing, aiding, or abetting any such act on the part of another person, is imprisonment in the State prison for not less than one year for each and every offence.

A provision was made by the last Legislature for an amendment of the constitution of the State, by striking the word "white" from that instrument, and removing all political distinctions founded on difference of color. No election for State officers occurred in 1868, but this amendment was submitted to a vote of the peo-

ple for their ratification at the election in November for members of Congress and presidential electors. The political conventions were held in the early part of the year, and were three in number. About the first of February, the colored people held a convention and published an address "to every true, honest, and liberty-loving citizen of Iowa," calling upon such worthy citizens for "sympathy and aid in learning those rights and privileges which belong to us as free men." The address is simply an appeal for the right of suffrage, which has hitherto been denied the colored people of the State by the constitution. The Democratic State Convention met at Des Moines on the 26th of February, and adopted the following resolutions:

1. *Resolved*, By the Democracy of Iowa in convention assembled, that the reconstruction policy of Congress is unconstitutional and destructive of the spirit of American liberty, and, if carried out, will inevitably result in a permanent military despotism.

2. *Resolved*, That the present depressed condition of the country, with its prostrated business, paralyzed industry, oppressive taxation, and political anarchy, are the direct results of the unwise and unconstitutional legislation of the dominant party in Congress.

3. *Resolved*, That it is the avowed object of the congressional policy to continue in power the most venal and corrupt political party that ever dishonored any civilization; a policy vindictively enacted and mercilessly prosecuted, with the unconstitutional purpose of centralizing and perpetuating all the political power of the Government in the dominant radical party in Congress.

4. *Resolved*, That for the maintenance of the national credit we pledge the honor of the Democracy of Iowa, but that we will unalterably oppose that policy which proposes to pay the rich man in gold and the poor man in depreciated currency; and that we believe that the currency which is good enough to pay the soldier, the widow, and the orphan, is good enough for the bondholder; and, as the "greenback" note is a legal tender for all debts, public and private, except duties upon imports and interest upon the public debt, and is receivable for all loans made to the United States, we are in favor of paying off the bonded debt of this nation in greenbacks as rapidly as they become due, or the financial safety of the country will permit.

Resolved, That the national-bank system, organized in the interest of the bondholders, ought to be abolished, and the United States notes substituted in lieu of a national-bank currency, thus saving to the people, in interest alone, more than \$18,000,000 annually; and, until such system of banks shall be abolished, we demand that the shares of such banks in Iowa shall be subject to the same taxes, State and municipal, as other property of the State.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the United States to protect all citizens, whether native or naturalized, in every right, at home and abroad, without regard to the pretended claim of foreign nations to perpetual allegiance.

Resolved, That we are in favor of the repeal of the prohibitory liquor law, and of the enactment of a judicious license law in its stead.

Resolved, That we are opposed to conferring the right of suffrage upon the negroes in Iowa, and we deny the right of the General Government to interfere with the question of suffrage in any of the States of the Union.

The following is the Republican platform:

We, the delegates and representatives of the Republican party of Iowa, in convention assembled, do, for ourselves and party, resolve:

1. That it is as important that the principles of the Republican party should control in the administration of the State and nation now, and for the future, as at any time since that party's organization; and that the restoration to power, under any pretext, or any form of party organization, of the men who would again apply the principles and policy of the pro-slavery party before and during the war, to the present and future administration of State and national affairs, would be an evil of the greatest magnitude and full of danger to the country.

2. That, while we recognize the fact that the electors of Iowa are to act individually and directly upon the proposed amendments to the constitution of the State; and, while we recognize that the principles embodied in said amendments are more sacred than party ties, and, above all, considerations of mere party policy, nevertheless, we deem it proper to again proclaim it as a cardinal principle of our political faith, that all men are equal before the law, and we are in favor of the proposed amendments to the constitution of the State of Iowa which will secure the rights of the ballot, the protection of the law, and equal justice to all men, irrespective of color, race, or religion.

3. That we demand the strictest economy in the administration of our State and national Government.

4. That we are in favor of the nomination of U. S. Grant as our candidate for President, and, as a guarantee of his life and safety, as well as that of the nation, our delegates are especially enjoined to secure, as our candidate for Vice-President, a Republican of unswerving fidelity and unimpeachable integrity.

5. That the views, purposes, and principles of the Republican organization of Iowa, have ever been well defined, understood, and sustained; and we are resolved that the Republican standard shall never be lowered or compromised. That on the battle-field, at the polls, and in the councils of the nation, Iowa has ever been radically in earnest, in fighting for and maintaining our liberty, our Union, the rights of man, and the honor and integrity of the nation, and that we expect and demand of the National Convention, to assemble at Chicago on the 20th inst., an unequivocal avowal of our principles, and upon such a platform we propose to meet and overwhelm our political opponents.

The election resulted in the choice of electors, pledged to vote for General Grant for President, by a majority of 46,359, the whole vote being 194,439, and Grant having 120,399 to 74,040 for Seymour. The whole vote on amending the constitution, by striking the word "white" from the clause designating the qualifications of electors, was 186,503, of which 105,384 were for the amendment, and 81,119 against it. The constitution was accordingly amended by a majority of 24,265 votes. Six Representatives to Congress were chosen, all of whom were Republicans.

There will be no session of the Legislature in 1869.

ITALY, a kingdom in Southern Europe. King, Victor Emmanuel, born March 14, 1820; succeeded his father, as King of Sardinia, on March 23, 1849; assumed the title of King of Italy on March 17, 1861. Heir-apparent to the throne, Prince Humbert, born March 14, 1844; married April 22, 1868, to Princess Marguerita, of Savoy, daughter of the late Duke of Genoa, brother of King Victor Emmanuel. The area of the kingdom (since the annexation of Venetia, in 1866) is 118,356 square miles; the popu-

lation, according to the census of 1862, 24,273,776. The following cities had, in 1861, more than 100,000 inhabitants: Naples, 418,968; Milan, 196,109; Turin, 180,520; Palermo, 167,625; Genoa, 127,986; Florence, 114,363; Venice, 113,525. With regard to religion, there are 24,167,855 Roman Catholics, 32,932 Protestants, 29,233 Jews—the remainder belonging to other sects. Italy is divided into 8,562 communes or parishes, of which 2,763 have less than 1,000 inhabitants, and only nine more than 100,000. In the budget for the year 1868 the expenditures were estimated at 982,882,416 lire (one lira, 19 cents), the receipts at 790,912,728 lire, and the deficit at 191,969,688 lire. The public debt amounted, on December 31, 1867, to 6,775,408,158 lire (nominal value of capital). The army, in 1869, was, according to the budget of the Ministry of War, to consist of 183,431 men on the peace footing, and 573,721 men on the war footing. The number of war-vessels was, on January 1, 1869, 99, armed with 1,022 guns. The number of iron-clads was 22, armed with 272 guns. The official value of the special commerce in 1866 was as follows: imports, 770,200,000; exports, 451,900,000; transit, 47,500,000. The movement of shipping, including coasting vessels, was, in 1866, as follows:

	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Entered	107,129	8,292,080
Cleared	104,787	8,100,250

The merchant navy, in 1866, consisted of 16,210 vessels, having an aggregate tonnage of 717,365.

According to the Statistical Register of Public Instruction for the year 1867, published at Florence, the number of students entered on the books of the fifteen universities of the country was, for law, 2,751; medicine, 1,985; mathematics, 1,299; literature and philosophy, 115; theology, 13; and pharmacy, 633. The largest numbers were, at Padua, 1,487; Naples, 1,427, and Turin, 1,124; while at Sassari there were only 53; Parma, 61; Cagliari, 85, and Sienna, 91. In 1857, 453 students passed as licentiates in law, 205 in medicine, 199 in mathematics, and 20 in literature and philosophy; also, 41 diplomas were given for the position of notary, and 161 for pharmacy. There were 8,795 pupils in the 104 royal colleges, 4,768 in 136 professional schools, 1,608 in 26 minor colleges, and 972 in the different municipal seminaries. The grants from the Government to Sunday and evening schools for the working-classes amounted to 513,986 lire, distributed among 8,808 teachers; to 51 societies for promoting popular instruction, 42,984 lire; and to 57 infant schools, 81,470 lire.

Interesting information on the commerce and manufactures of Italy is given in an English Blue Book, containing reports made on the subject to Lord Stanley, as Secretary for Foreign Affairs, by Sir A. Paget. From particulars recorded with reference to the silk-trade it appears that the number of looms now at work in Italy is about 20,000, Genoa and

Como being the great centres of manufacture, and that the annual produce of the throwing mills is about 2,721,759 kilogrammes, the value of which is computed at 196,500,000 lire. The production of wool is small, as it is estimated that there are in the country less than 9,000,000 sheep. The total quantity of woollen and worsted yarn made annually is reckoned at 8,950,000 kilogrammes, and about 240,000 persons are employed in the woollen manufacture. Italy contains 200 cotton-spinning mills, producing annually 143,767 metrical quintals of yarn, valued at 34,900,000 lire. The annual produce of flax amounts to 135,000 metrical quintals, and of hemp to 500,000 quintals. A great quantity of lace is made at Genoa, in parts of Lombardy, at Venice, and in the southern provinces. There are 34 iron-mines now worked in Italy, producing an annual average of about 1,500,000 metrical quintals of ore; 22 copper-mines, from which are extracted yearly about 32,010 tons of ore; 15 lead and silver mines, producing about 160,447 metrical quintals of ore; four mercury-mines, and one zinc-mine. About fifteen varieties of marble are quarried in Italy, and the annual value of that exported from Carrara amounts to upward of 1,000,000 lire. There are now 536 paper-mills in the kingdom, the annual consumption of rags being 367,034 quintals, and the value of the paper manufactured 28,040,000 lire, while the value of the paper exported may be set down at 4,385,000 lire, and that of the importations at 2,117,000 lire. The coral fishery employs between 300 and 400 boats, and upward of 2,500 men and boys, and most of that obtained is wrought at Naples, Leghorn, and Genoa, from 8,000 to 9,000 lire being realized yearly by the trade. The total produce of wine in Italy is estimated at 28,879,000 hectolitres, the countries to which these wines are exported being England, Austria, Switzerland, and America. The agricultural statistics show that the superficial extent of the productive soil of Italy is 23,017,096 hectolitres, more than 11,000,000 of which consist of arable land. The institution of savings banks in this country dates from 1822, and at the present time the proportion of depositors to population is 1 in 61, the average amount to the credit of each person being 521 lire. The ship-building business in Italy is active. In 1862 there were but 56 ship-yards, which launched 215 vessels, with a tonnage of 25,271 tons. In 1866 the number of ship-yards had increased to 91; that of vessels launched to 675, with a total tonnage of 59,522 tons.

At the close of 1867 there were over 2,500 miles of railroad open in Italy. At the close of 1870 there will be nearly 4,500. The railroad which unites France to Italy, over Mont Cenis, was opened in 1868, and the tunnel which is to pierce the mountain is two-thirds completed.

The King in March signed a decree instituting a new order, to be called the "Crown of Italy."

On January 5th a new Cabinet was formed, as follows: General Menabrea, President and Minister of Foreign Affairs; Senator Cadorna, Minister of the Interior; Count Cambray Digny, Minister of Finance; Major-General Bertole Viale, Minister of War; Deputy De Filippo, Minister of Justice; Signor Broglio, Minister of Public Instruction and Commerce; Count Cantelli, Minister of Public Works; Admiral Ribotti, Minister of Marine. In September Count Cantelli was appointed to the Ministry of the Interior, and Signor Pasini, in his place, to the Ministry of Public Works. On October 9th Signor De Vicenzi was appointed Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

In no country of Europe have the finances been, of late, in so unfavorable a condition as in Italy. The Minister of Finance, Count Cambray Digny, in January submitted to the Chamber of Deputies his report on the national finances. He anticipated a deficit for 1869 of 240,000,000 lire. He proposed to cover this by the imposition of a new tax, the development of existing taxes, and by the reorganization of the principal branches of the public administration. The only new tax proposed was a tax upon grinding, which would apply to all substances subject to that process, whether comestible or not. On cereals this tax would only amount to $2\frac{1}{2}$ centimes per kilogramme; the total net profit of which to the state was estimated at 76,000,000 lire. The millers would be empowered to collect the tax. The development of existing taxes would include the extension to all the provinces of the tax upon Government concessions, which would produce an increase of 4,000,000 lire. The registry and stamp taxes were to be more regularly collected. The tax upon bills of exchange was to be reduced. From these two measures the increase to the revenue was estimated at 19,000,000 lire. The reorganization of the Government tobacco manufactories would effect an economy of 7,000,000 lire, and yield in future an annual revenue of 2,000,000 lire. The income tax being much greater than in England, the minister proposed to abolish it, and in its stead to substitute a general tax on all incomes, whether from earnings or property, thereby producing a benefit to the state revenue of 42,000,000 lire. Radical changes were to be effected in the method of collecting the taxes, the present system being both vexatious and expensive, and offering facilities to fraud. A reorganization of the public administration on this subject would be introduced. A bill would be brought in, transferring the service of the treasury to the National Bank, which would not, however, have any concern in collecting the taxes. One uniform law for the whole kingdom would be introduced relative to the collection of taxes, according to which all direct taxes would be collected by the municipalities under the control of Government inspectors. These reforms, it was estimated,

would produce an immediate benefit to the treasury of 14,000,000 lire, thereby reducing the deficit for 1869 to 78,000,000 lire, which the minister hoped would be covered by the development of commercial prosperity. In conclusion, Signor Cambray Digny expressed a hope that the measures indicated would be adopted. He regarded them as of urgent necessity, and if delayed beyond the present year the difficulties of Italian finances would become involved past remedy. The minister stated that the deficit up to the end of 1867 was 820,000,000 lire. Signor Cambray Digny concluded his statement as follows: "The total accumulated deficit at the end of 1868 should be 630,000,000 lire, instead of 820,000,000 in 1867. To cover these 630,000,000 there are three resources—the current account at the bank, which, however, is not 308,000,000, as had been stated; and issue of Treasury bonds to the amount of 250,000,000; and an advance of 100,000,000 from the bank upon the security of ecclesiastical property. The state is also entitled to a loan of 30,000,000 from the bank. These resources are, however, partly exhausted, so that there will remain a deficit of 162,000,000, and this can only be removed by a fresh issue of bonds upon the ecclesiastical property, which the Government cannot undertake, according to law, at a lower rate than 80, until after June next. To remove the forced currency would require 540,000,000 in gold. At present it is necessary to find the means of paying 378,000,000 due to the bank; the removal of the false currency would follow." The minister proposed a gradual removal of the deficit, 78,000,000 of which would be covered in 1869, and the remainder in a total period of twelve years. The entire expense to the state occasioned by the Garibaldian movement in October was estimated at 18,000,000 lire. The ecclesiastical property at present sold had realized 40,349,000 lire. The treasury had at present available the sum of 294,000,000, of which about 118,000,000 were to be drawn from the bank, and 66,000,000 in Treasury bonds to be placed in circulation.

The different financial measures proposed by the minister engaged the almost exclusive attention of the Parliament for more than six months. The Parliament adopted the plan of the Government with but slight modifications. On June 23d the Government concluded a convention for farming the manufacture of tobacco in Italy with Messrs. Stern, of Paris, London, and Frankfort-on-the-Main; De Haber, of Paris; Schnapper, of Paris, and Joubert, of Paris.

In presenting the result to the Chamber of Deputies, on the 24th of June, the Minister of Finance stated that the operation was intended to cover the deficit of 1868-'69, and that the amount arising from the sale of ecclesiastical property would be reserved for removing the forced currency, which would require a sum of 480,000,000 lire. The minister expected not

only to obtain this sum by the financial operation on the ecclesiastical property, but hoped he would have a surplus on hand toward the liquidation of previous deficits. The report of the committee upon the tobacco convention appointed by this Chamber of Deputies was distributed among the members of the Chamber on August 1st. It proposes that the advance of 180,000,000 lire in gold should be paid by the contractors to the Government within eight months from the approval of the convention, in instalments to be arranged by the Finance Minister. The issuing price of the company's bonds would be settled by arrangement between the Minister of Finance and the contractors. The report further proposes that the revenue assured to the Government during the first biennial period should equal the net profit for the year 1868, the same to be determined by arbitration. The arbitrators will be two persons named by the contractors and two by the Minister of Finance, the latter presiding. Both Houses of Parliament adopted the convention by a large majority, the Chamber of Deputies on August 8th, by 205 against 161, the Senate on August 22d, by 106 against 11. On October 5th was issued the prospectus of a six per cent. tobacco loan of £9,404,762.—the issue being in bonds of 500 and 2,500 francs each. In November, after the reassembling of Parliament, the Minister of Finance issued an appendix to the budget of 1868, showing that the deficit of that year had been reduced from 217,000,000 lire to 81,000,000, and that the deficit of 1869 would also be 81,000,000, whereof 70,000,000 would be covered by the proceeds of the sale of the ecclesiastical property.

The Parliament reassembled after the autumn vacation, on the 24th of November. On the next day, Signor Mari was elected president of the Chamber of Deputies by 185 votes, against 93 given to Signor Crispi, the candidate of the Left. Signor Mordino, the candidate of the Right, was elected vice-president. In reply to a question by Signor Curti, as to what course the Government intended to take after the fresh defiance by the Papacy to Italy given by the execution of Monti and Tognetti, on November 24th, General Menabrea said that he did not disguise the political significance of the unjustifiable act of the Pontifical Government, and added: "The Italian Government made every possible effort to avert it, but for the present I cannot reply or accept the discussion upon the question raised by Signor Curti." General Bixio said that one of the condemned men was an Italian citizen, and that the execution should have been prevented at any cost. A vigorous and decided policy, he added, was necessary to restrain the Papacy, and to compel France to cease imposing her dominion at Rome. General Menabrea, while sharing the general indignation felt by the country and the Parliament, protested against the assertion that Italy suffered humiliation from any foreign power,

and deprecated further discussion as inexpedient. A warm debate followed, and the speeches condemning the Papacy and protesting against the French intervention at Rome were loudly cheered by the members of the Chamber and the public in the galleries. Signor Correnti proposed the following motion: "The Chamber, fully concurring in the censure passed by the Government upon the acts of the Papacy, passes to the order of the day." The first part of this motion was unanimously approved, and the Chamber then passed to the order of the day by 147 votes against 119.

On February 13th the representatives of the Italian and Swiss Governments signed the final protocol of the treaty establishing the frontier line between the province of the Valtelline and the Canton Grisons. On February 21st a treaty was concluded with Switzerland concerning the church property of the diocese of Como. On March 29th the Chamber of Deputies ratified the commercial treaties which had been concluded with China, Japan, and Uruguay. On June 25th an agreement was concluded in accordance with the 23d article of the Austro-Italian treaty of the 3d of October, 1866, for the restitution of the private property of the Archduke Francis, ex-Duke of Modena, on the condition of the restitution to Italy of the precious objects belonging to the duchy of Modena which were conveyed into Austria. On July 15th a convention was signed for restitution to Italy of the manuscripts removed by the Austrians from Venice. On August 7th a new treaty was signed between Italy and Spain for the extradition of criminals. The final protocol of the Franco-Italian convention of the 7th December, 1866, relative to Italy's share of the Pontifical debt, was signed on the 31st July, 1868, and, according to its provisions, Italy's share of the perpetual debt of the Roman States is fixed at 7,333,000 francs, and her share of the redeemable debt at 10,689,000 francs. All questions which may arise on the subject dealt with by the convention are to be settled by the intermediary of the French Government.

Joseph Mazzini, in 1868, published another letter on the state of Italy, in which he comments in severe terms as follows:

After having reared, at an immense cost of blood and treasure, the great edifice of national independence, after having proclaimed to the four corners of the earth that Rome was to crown the building, what, I ask, does Italy do at the very time when of all others it behooved her to give a proof of the faith that is in her, and of the firmness of the national resolve? In opposition to the unanimous will of the nation, and to the declarations which all Europe had greeted with applause, an intruding voice is raised, the voice of the French Emperor, a voice of prohibition, unjustifiable, unprovoked, arbitrary, insolent, and without the excuse even of personal interest. What then takes place? King, ministers, and Parliament tremble at the sound of that voice, accept the prohibition, and acknowledge its utterer as their undisputed lord and master.

Choose for yourselves another capital! cries this foreigner; and they choose another. Put down Garibaldi by force of arms! and they put him down. Defend, against Italy and on behalf of the Pope, what you have declared to be Italian ground! and they undertake to defend it. Back from that frontier! and they go back. Then, as if in act of solemn defiance, and to close the door of the future, a French minister rises in his place, and says before all Europe, "Italy shall never have Rome, for France wills it so," and King, ministers, and Parliament in Italy listen in silence. The country does not shake off its sluggish apathy, and quietly brooks the insult. Is there a more shameful page than this in the history of nations? * * * * In an army which counts among its highest grades the names of Bixio, Medici, Consenz, and Cialdini, not a single officer broke his sword in two; that in a Chamber in which are sitting men like Bertani, Cairoli, Nicotera, Miceli, Asproni, Fabrizi, Morelli, Pianciani, and Tamaio, not twenty, not ten, could be found with the courage to demand the instant evacuation of the French troops, and, in case of need, to renounce their mandate. And here I quote the taunt flung by Ugo Foscolo in the teeth of my countrymen half a century ago: "A nation that uses its name as a theme for arrogance and not as an incentive to courage, a nation that whimpers over its servile state, but dares not rise to put an end to it, gives an excuse to its neighbors to deride its frivolity, to humble its pride, and to seize upon its wealth, adding its name to that of the herd of conquered peoples. Such a nation, O Italians, is yours! Be slaves, therefore, and hold your peace." The last movement against Rome was premature, and therefore doomed to fail, and all similar attempts in future are to be deprecated. Such futile efforts can lead to nothing but a useless sacrifice of precious lives, and all who yield to the temptation of promoting or taking part in rash adventures, will prove that they love their own ambition better than their country or Rome. The work of silent preparation must be begun anew, under the guidance of a single name and with a clearly-defined line of action, excluding the coöperation of all who refuse their unreserved adhesion to the entire programme of the party, although, after the object in view shall have been attained, their alliance need no longer be repulsed.

Garibaldi's public addresses on the state of Italy are not more cheerful. In a letter to the Bolognese, dated July 29, 1868, he says:

The degrading existence to which a handful of wretches who misgoverned it have consigned our brave country affects me as it does you. If last year the Italians understood me, I should have been able, with you, to rescue her from her misery and degradation. But, unfortunately, by the side of the mighty heroes of our time, whose blood has been shed in a hundred battle-fields without seeking for any other reward than that of fighting for Italy, there is always a mass of rabble and *doctrinaires* who, traitors, under the pretext of principle and purism, abandoned their companions in the hour of danger. Our people, without abandoning the labor which preserves the body, think of freeing their mind; for what kind of liberty is to be expected from a nation which every day falls down at the feet of priests, the pedestals of every tyranny, and the soldiers of the most atrocious of Italy's tyrants? I shall believe that our people mean freedom when I see St. Peter's turned into an asylum for the indigent—when I see the phial of St. Januarius broken on the tinselled head of the ludicrous sorcerer. Come what will, I shall die unhappy if, on the day when you fight for Italy's liberty—which I hope will be soon—I cannot follow you, at least in an ambulance.

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JAPAN, an empire in Eastern Asia. The area is estimated at 150,000 square miles; the population at about 35,000,000. The conflict between the Mikado and Tycoon, in 1867 and 1868, resulted in the resumption of the administration of the empire by the Mikado, and in the total abolition of the Tycoonate. The following foreign powers were, in 1868, represented in Japan, by diplomatic agents: United States of America (Robert B. Van Valkenburgh minister), Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, North-German Confederation, Austria, Portugal, Russia, Switzerland.

Official reports from the three ports of Japan open in 1867 (Kanagawa, Nagasaki, and Hakodadi) show that the exports in that year amounted to \$12,123,674, and the imports to \$18,476,330, to which must be added no less than \$1,500,000 for the value of rice imported, duty-free, into Kanagawa, owing to the bad harvest of 1866, and \$1,199,739, the value of steamers and sailing-vessels sold at Nagasaki, bringing the total value of the exports and imports of 1867 up to \$33,099,743. This statement shows a large balance against Japan, and, although the difference is probably not so great as is thus represented, in consequence of the exports being under-estimated, it is known that large returns were received in the year by the foreign merchants in native coin, which was extensively imported as bullion. There has also been an unnatural expansion in that unfavorable feature of the commerce of Japan, the import trade in arms. No less than 102,333 stand of arms were imported into Kanagawa in 1867, and 64,367 stand into Nagasaki; and it is known that these figures do not represent the total quantity of arms brought into Japan. It has not been found possible to show the proportions in which the foreign trade with Japan above stated has been distributed between English and other foreign interests, but some indication is supplied by the tonnage returns. The total foreign tonnage entered at the three ports in 1867 was 297,851 tons, of which there were 138,126 tons British, and 159,725 tons of other foreign tonnage. Nearly 400 British merchant-vessels visited one or other of the ports of Japan in 1867. American shipping shows a marked increase, owing to the opening of the Pacific mail line to San Francisco. The export of raw silk from Japan showed a marked decline in 1867, owing partly, it is probable, to an increased export of silk-worm eggs, to make good the failures of the European silkworm, the native growers preferring to realize a profit from the eggs, without waiting the result of the tardy and more risky process of their conversion into silk.

Japanese tea has hardly fulfilled the antici-

pations formed of it. The demand, such as it is, is almost entirely for American consumption. The import trade into Japan in 1867 was affected by the country being to some extent impoverished through the large payments made for sugar, rice, and arms, and the shipments from home having been excessive, prices declined greatly. Business in metals was unsatisfactory, but there appears to be a steadily-increasing demand for cotton manufactures. The vessels sold at Nagasaki last year were 25 in number, the tonnage ranging from 83 to 540 tons. All but four were British vessels. In most instances they were sold at high prices, upon long credit. The Japanese work these vessels for their own business, plying between Nagasaki and the various ports of the adjacent provinces, but rarely carrying full cargoes. Coal is found in abundance for the supply of the large fleet of steamers now possessed by the Japanese, and is exported to Shanghai, where it finds a ready sale when English coal cannot be obtained. The British consul at Nagasaki reports that the natives are so anxious to learn, that not a single steamer enters the harbor but they are sure to visit it, and take minute copies of what they think of interest. They are able themselves to work all the steamers they have recently purchased.

The imports and exports in 1864 and 1865 were as follows (value in millions of dollars):

FLAGS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1864.	1865.	1864.	1865.
Under the British.....	5.69	11.56	9.54	16.19
Under other foreign.....	1.16	2.63	0.63	2.30
Total.....	6.85	14.19	10.57	18.49

The chief articles of export are: tea (1866-'67, 7,000,000 pounds), silk (1866-'67, 13,537 balls), and cotton.

The following was the movement of shipping:

	Year.	ENTRANCES.		CLEARANCES.	
		Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Kanagawa.....	1867	175	99,784	172	97,092
Hakodadi.....	1866	53	15,760	53	15,459
Nagasaki.....	1865	203	69,059	187	63,975

It has already been stated, in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, that, at the close of the year 1867, the Tycoon resigned his office. A full account of this event is given in the following extract from a letter of Nomoura-Sooshti (a Japanese general, who seems to have played a conspicuous part in the revolution) to Count Charles de Montblanc, dated from Kioto, November 10, 1867:

The Japanese Confederation, under the presidency of his Majesty the Mikado, is now free from every illusion. The Tycoon has resigned his equivocal power into the hands of the Mikado. Japanese civ-

ilization is triumphant. According to the French mode of dividing the year, it was at the beginning of November that all the preparations had been completed. On the 7th of that month the deputies of the Princes of Satsuma, Tosa, Geishion, and all the other members of the National party, whom you know, and which party reckons among its members some of the vassals and even a brother of the ex-Tycoon (Stotsbashi), proceeded to Nidjo-no-Siro, the residence of the Princes of Yedo to Kioto. From the outset the Tycoon manifested his comprehension of the national movement, and showed an intelligent and unselfish attachment for the general interests of the country. Having explained that the Princes of Yedo (his predecessors) had thought it their duty to deal with the foreigners in their quality of Tycoon, he added that he did not intend to maintain, against the opinion of the Daimios, the exclusive position which he had inherited. Then he said: "The movement being made around me implies a blame which I accept; and, if the deputies think that I should resign the title in virtue of which the Princes of Yedo acted, I am ready to give in that resignation." The deputies briefly answered: "Act according to the dictates of your conscience, and do so promptly." The resignation of the Tycoon was at once drawn up, almost in identical terms with his declaration to the deputies. Next day, November 8th, the Shoshidai (official intermediary between the Mikado and the Tycoon), Matsudaira Estion-no-Kani, was summoned by the deputies. The act of resignation was then placed in his hand, with the usual ceremonial, to be transmitted by him to the Mikado. On the 9th his Excellency the Shoshidai brought the official answer of the Mikado, who had accepted the resignation of the Tycoon, and announced that his programme contained the following resolutions: "His Majesty the Mikado will convoke at Kioto all the Japanese Daimios, who will form a sovereign chamber. That chamber will decide all questions of a general interest. The foreign question is accepted in the Mikado's name upon the basis already existing in the states of Kuanto. The foreign alliance is to be extended to the other states, and to be framed on a more liberal basis. The Mikado will make public the resolutions of the Federal Chamber by decrees and proclamations. The Mikado's relations with public affairs will be conducted through two speaking ministers, the Denizo and the Guizo."

On January 1, 1868, the ministers of all the foreign treaty powers were at Osaka, supported by a large naval force, consisting of nineteen men-of-war. It had been announced that the opening of the port of Hiogo and the city of Osaka, which, according to agreement, was to take place on January 1st, was to be deferred to April 1st, and that the foreign ministers remained at Osaka, to urge the speedy opening. There was, however, no need for bringing a pressure to bear upon the Japanese Government, for Hiogo and Osaka were formally opened at the appointed time (January 1st), all the saluting-ships hoisting the Japanese flag, and giving it twenty-one guns; and then the guns in the Osaka forts saluted severally, at intervals of about twenty minutes, the flags of the treaty nations. The Japanese Government officials then paid visits of ceremony to the various foreign officials, which were returned, and the opening ceremonies were at an end. At noon the American and English consuls almost simultaneously ran up their national ensigns (no other consulates were ready), and then commenced the dealings with the natives. United

States Minister Van Valkenburgh issued a notification of the opening of the new ports, dated January 1st, and published sailing directions and regulations concerning lighters, tow-boats, etc.

After the resignation of Stotsbashi, the Tycoon, in November, 1867, a confederation of the Daimios (princes), from the south of the empire, determined to utterly crush him, and exclude him from all participation in the Government. The Tycoon was, on January 1st, at Osaka, assisting at the opening of that port and the neighboring port of Hiogo to foreigners, while the Mikado was at Kioto, not far distant. The person of the young Mikado about this time was seized by Satsuma, Chosin, Tosa, and others of the Tycoon's enemies, whereupon the Tycoon fled from Kioto to Osaka, where he took refuge in his strong castle there, and endeavored to collect his forces and those of other Daimios who sided with him. Meanwhile at Yeddo (the Tycoon's capital) the yashikis, or palaces of the Daimios, all of whom had been compelled in former years to maintain establishments there, were being dismantled and the effects being removed to the respective territories of the princes. The retainers of Prince Satsuma harbored in his half-dismantled yashiki a horde of Ranins (men of bad character, owing allegiance to no one). The depredations of these men, issuing forth from this stronghold, aroused the Tycoon's lieutenants to remonstrance. The answer denying authority was the decapitation of the messenger, and returning his head with abusive messages. The result was a battle, attended with frightful loss of life, and the escape of a portion of the force from the yashiki, who cut their way to a vessel of Satsuma's and ran out into the bay, being pursued and fought in front of Yokohama by one of the Tycoon's vessels, but making good their escape to Satsuma. January 28th, Satsuma sent to Osaka for supplies. The Tycoon refused to allow them to pass out. Satsuma placed himself at the head of his troops and marched out from Kioto to compel their delivery. The Tycoon, learning this, marched out to give battle. The forces of the Tycoon got between two columns of Satsuma's army (really composed of the troops of several of the southern Daimios besides Satsuma's own retainers), and the army of the Tycoon was beaten. Stotsbashi himself sought refuge on the United States steamer Iroquois, and thence transferred himself and officials to one of his own steamers and steamed away for Jeddo. Satsuma, on taking Osaka, burned the magnificent palace of the Tycoon to equalize matters, the Tycoon having burned one of Satsuma's at the same place. January 31st, the town of Kanagawa, lying between Yokohama and Jeddo, was burned by some of Satsuma's sympathizers. Upward of three miles along the Tocaida (the great government road running all through the empire) was burned, and thousands rendered homeless. Yokohama merchants raised a sub-

scription, and the next day Dr. Hepburn and another missionary distributed rice and blankets to the sufferers on the scene of the conflagration.

The day following the abandonment of Osaka by the Tycoon, the Government officials called on all the consuls, and advised them to direct their subjects to take refuge on board their national vessels, as they could offer them no further assistance or protection, and intended to abandon the place to the insurgents and leave at once to join the Tycoon. Acting upon this suggestion, the consuls met, but did not instruct their people to leave; they simply informed them of the information they possessed, and left them to act as they thought best; at the same time arrangements were made with the men-of-war of all nations to be prepared, in case of an attack from the troops of the southern Daimios, for giving them a warm reception. The next day the ministers were compelled to fly from Osaka, as the place had been fired by Satsuma, and arrived at Hiogo (Kobe) the same day and took up their quarters in the abandoned Government house and custom-house.

On the 4th of February, some of the troops of Prince Bizen (one of the confederate Daimios opposed to Stotsbashi) entered Hiogo and attacked several foreigners. A French marine and an American sailor were wounded by shots. Sir H. Parkes, who was riding in their neighborhood, narrowly escaped, several shots being aimed at him. The detachments of the 9th British regiment were called out, and the Japanese troops were pursued and dispersed. A naval brigade was landed from the Ocean, and in a few hours Hiogo was again quiet. The confederate Daimios, however, claimed to be favorably disposed to foreigners, and did not indorse the outrages committed by the mob. The Mikado addressed a communication to Chosin and Satsuma, warning them to be particularly careful that no rudeness nor lawless conduct be observed toward foreigners by those passing through Hiogo. In consequence of the outrage committed at Hiogo by Prince Bizen's men, the foreign men-of-war seized, on the 5th of February, all the steamers owned by Japanese, anchored in the port of Hiogo. This was because, as stated in the declaration of the foreign ministers, the affair concerned not only the clan of Bizen, but all the clans throughout Japan. The Government of the Mikado deemed it necessary to punish the author of the outrages. Accordingly, Kenzaburo, the officer in command of Prince Bizen's troops, who ordered the firing on the foreigners, was executed by order of the Mikado in the presence of one foreigner from each European legation, together with an equal number of Japanese officials. The condemned, being of high rank, was permitted to commit *harikari*. Before his death he acknowledged the offence, admitted that his trial was fair and his sentence just, and he advised the Japanese to

hereafter treat foreigners with consideration. The foreign representatives requested the Government not to confiscate his estate according to the Japanese law, but permit it to descend to his family. The request was granted. Next day the the ministers received letters of apology from the Mikado Government.

On March 5th, the ministers, with each of their vessels, went to Osaka, intending to re-occupy their former legations. They found the British legations destroyed by fire, and the French legations torn to pieces. The American and other legations were untouched. On March 8th, the French sailors surveying off Osaka were attacked by Prince Tosa's men; eleven Frenchmen were killed and five wounded. On learning the massacre, the English, Prussian, Dutch, Italian, and United States ministers met at the residence of the French minister at Osaka, and decided by common accord to leave Osaka, haul down their flags, and withdraw their consuls, until satisfaction should have been granted. On the following day the Japanese authorities came and declared the massacre to be inexcusable, and the murderers were placed at the disposal of the French minister. All the ministers of the other powers supported the French demand for reparation by energetic notes. The French minister demanded the execution of the men concerned in the murder, with an apology from Tosa and the Mikado's Government; also a money indemnity of \$150,000. The demands were complied with, and twenty Japanese were beheaded.

On March 13th, the American minister left for Yokohama, taking with him the Italian and Prussian ministers and their suites, in the United States steamer *Monocacy*, with the intention of defending foreign interests, the Mikado having informed them that large bodies of troops were marching on Jeddo with the probable intention of fighting. On March 18th, the American minister went to Jeddo, remaining one week, and conferring with the Tycoon's officers, and then returned to Yokohama. He was the last and only minister at Jeddo. The Mikado's troops were marching toward Jeddo, and straggled largely into Yokohama, apparently uncontrolled. Disturbances occurred, and the people became alarmed. The ministers conferred with the Government authorities of Yokohama, and decided to post the American, Prussian, French, and British soldiers and marines at the entrances of the settlement, and prohibit the entrance of armed Japanese from without. This insured tranquillity. The French, British, and Dutch ministers remained at Hiogo. After the settlement of the French indemnity, they were invited to an audience with the Mikado at Kioto.

The interview took place on the 21st of March, this being the first time that representatives of the foreign powers have been admitted to the presence of the Mikado. The day fol-

lowing these interviews, Sir Harry Parkes, the British minister, attended by an escort, was approaching the castle of the Mikado to pay his respects, when he was attacked by a band of desperadoes, who threw the escort into confusion and wounded with swords eight men. One account says that eight was the number of the attacking party, of whom two were killed, two wounded and captured, and four allowed to escape. The same account adds that the last six were "disposed of." One who was captured and executed was an officer of high rank of the Mikado's household. The Mikado issued another stringent order in reference to future attacks on foreigners. Samurai (officials and nobles) guilty of assaults hereafter will be degraded from their rank, and decapitated by the common executioner.

The Mikado's Government about this time addressed an ultimatum to the Tycoon (who is called in this document Yoshi-Hisa), of which the *Japanese Times* published the following synopsis:

It premises that the Tycoon, having proceeded to such an extreme as may properly be termed an insult to the whole empire, and having caused the deepest pain to the mind of the Emperor, both sea and land forces were sent to punish him. Having learned, however, that he is sincerely penitent and lives in retirement, the excess of the imperial compassion shall be exhausted, and the following commands be enjoined upon him, let him be respectfully obedient to them: A period of eleven days is granted him in which to comply with all these orders. As the period of eleven days is already a matter of clemency, upon no account will any request or complaint be listened to. The Emperor, having established both his authority and clemency, will not allow any claim of alliance to have influence with him. To be promptly obedient, and resort to no subterfuge.

The first article of the proclamation rehearses how that the Tycoon, having insulted the Emperor by attacking the imperial city and firing upon the imperial flag, was guilty of a great crime. But since then he has manifested sincere contrition, and has shut himself up in retirement, suing for pardon. In consideration of the important services rendered the state by the Tokugawa family, in administering to the Government during the last 200 years, and more especially the accumulated meritorious services of the late father of Yoshi-Hisa, it is the imperial will that the following commands be given; if they are obeyed, the house of Tokugawa will remain established in their Daimate—capital punishment will be remitted, but Yoshi-Hisa is commanded to go to the castle of Mito, and there to live shut up in retirement.

Article second commands that the castle of the Shogoon, at Yeddo, be turned over to the Prince of Owari. Those living in the castle to move out and go into retirement also.

Then the third article requires all ships, arms, munitions of war, etc., etc., to be delivered up to the General Government, when a proportion will be returned to the Tokugawa Daimate. The last article of the manifesto says that all who have aided Yoshi-Hisa deserve death, but that penalty is remitted, and the imperial commission will decide upon other punishment for persons save those whose incomes are over 10,000 kokus (say \$31,000 or \$32,000) per annum.

In April, the Mikado issued a decree that, in consequence of the confusion into which public affairs had come, and that the sense of the people might be obtained, the princes should

meet with him at Miako as soon as it might be convenient. They should bring with them such counsellors as might be best qualified to propose improvements in the Government. The Daimios were enjoined to obtain the will of the people as to who these counsellors should be. The selection, in order to secure the greatest possible impartiality, should be conducted or superintended, not by the prince of a given province, but by the prince of the adjoining province. The counsellors thus chosen and all the Daimios of the empire should meet at Miako, and deliberate upon the affairs of the nation. Besides, the Mikado decreed that every man who had valuable suggestions to make in regard to political matters should have liberty to avow them openly, and should send them to the Congress or Parliament at Miako, where they would be considered.

The friendly attitude of the Mikado toward the foreign powers alienated for a time some of the most powerful southern Daimios, who had always been sworn enemies of the foreigners, such as Chosin and Tosa. The following is a translation of a portion of Chosin's remonstrance, dated May, 1868, and published in the *Naigaispinko*, a Japanese newspaper:

If the foreigners are invited to the imperial court, who will be the man, when the time for expulsion has come, to employ his energy for this purpose? Therefore it is not right that the foreigners are admitted to the Dairo (palace of the Mikado).

The High-Priest of Kioto issued a manifesto, warning the Mikado against interfering too much in the temporal affairs, and calling upon him to desist, on pain of being called upon by the priesthood to abdicate: 170,000 copies of the proclamation were reported to have been sold and distributed among the Japanese.

In May, the Tycoon, Stotsbashi, declared his readiness to accept the conditions of the Mikado, viz., to cede nearly half of his private territory, disband his army, surrender his navy, and himself to retire to Mito, for which place he left on the 12th of May. The Tycoon gave orders to his admiral to surrender the fleet, but that officer left Yeddo with all the vessels, and subsequently coöperated with Prince Aidsin.

This, however, did not end the war. A strong coalition was formed in the interest of the Tycoon, and the most powerful of the northern Daimios joined it. Aidsin attacked a body of the Mikado's troops on the 10th of May, 12 miles from Yeddo, routed them, and took possession of a castle recently surrendered by the Tycoon. On the 17th he attacked another army, killed 800 and captured 300, all of whom he beheaded. On the 22d of May another engagement took place only six miles from Yeddo, also ending disastrously to the Mikado's troops. Fourteen hundred were killed, and 800 captured.

On July 4th an attack was made by 20,000 southerners on the Takugawas (the family to which the Tycoon belonged) at Yeddo, who

were only about 1,500 strong. The southerners were repulsed. The attack was renewed the next day, and the Takugawas were entirely routed. Half of Yeddo, including two large temples, was burned.

At Tichino, about 18 miles south of Osaka, a terrible battle was fought between the forces of Aidsin and Satsuma, in which the latter was defeated with heavy loss. Satsuma and Chosin were deserted by several other Daimios, and subsequently Chosin himself declared his intention of withdrawing from the contest, and ordered his generals to return home and remain neutral.

In August, it was reported that the northern party had appointed a new Mikado, Oeno Mia Sama, uncle of the other Mikado, and chief of the seven Mias or High-Priests of Japan, whose residence on the 5th of July had been attacked and burned, and who after that affair had fled in disguise to Prince Aidsin. A proclamation was issued by several northern princes, stating that they did not desire to supersede the other Mikado, but that the appointment was simply made to have a head for the northern party.

In September, an outrage was committed against M. von Brandt, the Prussian chargé d'affaires. As M. von Brandt was returning home in his carriage, from the Saibansho (Government-House), while passing the escort of Higashi Kusen no Chiojio, Minister of Foreign Affairs, the leading Yakunins of the escort attacked the carriage suddenly. M. von Brandt, in the most energetic manner, protested against this gross insult, and demanded the most complete reparation. The Government of the Mikado apologized, and made the demanded reparation.

On September 14th, the representatives of the foreign powers were officially notified, by a communication from the first minister of the Mikado, that the latter would at once establish his residence at Yeddo, which henceforth would be the second capital of the empire, and be called Tokei (the Eastern capital). At the same time an imperial decree placed in the hands of a new functionary the government of the thirteen provinces, most of which were still at war against the Mikado, and requested the Daimios of these provinces to send delegates to Yeddo, who were to receive there permanent employments.

The official gazette of Kioto published the draft of a constitution, providing for the concentration of the executive, legislative, and judiciary power in the hands of a political body to be called Daijokan.

On November 6th, the Mikado became of age. In honor of the event, the British troops in Yokohama attended a general parade, and a march past took place before two of the Mikado's representatives, Higashi Kuze and the Sanyo Oudaisho, governor of the northern provinces. Sir Harry Parkes was on the ground, and after the review the Japanese no-

bles accompanied him to the British legation, where a sword, sent out by the British Government, was presented to an officer of the name of Nakai, as a mark of honor and reward for his gallantry on the occasion of Sir Harry Parkes's being attacked, on the 22d of March, at Kioto. On the same day, November 6th, Prince Aidsin concluded a capitulation, which, it was expected, would end the war. The Tycoon had retired to his private possessions with all the people who wished to follow him. Those who were willing to take employment under the new government were retained. In December, Prince Aidsin arrived at Yeddo, and was received by the Mikado and the Daimios with great honors. On the 6th of December Hakodadi was captured by a land force of the northern Daimios, which had not yet laid down their arms, and was coöperating with the fleet under the command of Ennomatto, the admiral of the late Tycoon, Stotsbashi. There seemed, however, to be a general desire to make peace. Stotsbashi himself was invited, by a council of the Daimios, to return to Yeddo, and aid in the reorganization of the Government. On December 15th, the removal of the people of the Tycoon from Yeddo was commenced. Some thirteen thousand were to be sent to the Tycoon's new province of Shiraidizu. The ship King Philip was chartered, and made one trip to the province, carrying thirteen hundred and fifty passengers. The Japanese Government sent official notification to the representatives of the foreign powers, that Yeddo and Nagato would be opened to foreign commerce on January 1, 1869. This time the Government kept its word, and the opening took place on the appointed day. The Mikado, in December, issued an edict, ordering the decapitation of all the inmates of a dwelling in which a conflagration originates, whether accidentally or otherwise.

A proclamation from the Mikado announced that peace reigns throughout the empire. Aidsin justified his opposition to Satsuma and the southern princes. All seemed progressing favorably for the southern cause. The northern princes openly disavowed the conduct of Admiral Ennomatto in storming Hakodadi and seizing the vessels of the Mikado. No northern army was in the field at the close of the year, and the southerners were disbanding their troops. The attack and capture of Hakodadi was conducted by European officers, the southerners offering little resistance. Admiral Ennomatto had issued stringent orders to seize and confiscate foreign vessels carrying troops or stores. Many breaches of neutrality by foreign vessels had occurred.

The Tycoon's brother arrived from Paris on the 16th of December, and soon after had an interview with the Mikado. It was reported he had been intrusted with a mission of peace to his brother. The financial troubles of the Government of Japan were great, and paper currency was freely issued. The foreign mer-

chants of Yokohama had requested their ministers to protest against the issue of paper money, unless the Government would keep bullion sufficient to redeem its issues at sight.

While the Government of the Mikado observed, on the whole, a friendly attitude toward the foreign Governments, a most cruel persecution was instituted against the native Christians, especially in Nagasaki and its vicinity. The following is one of the imperial decrees published on the subject:

As the abominable religion of the Christians is strictly prohibited, every one shall be bound to denounce to the proper authorities such persons as appear suspicious to him; and a reward shall be given to him for so doing. Although the sect of the Christians has been already centuries ago persecuted most rigorously by the Bankfu Government, its entire extermination had not been arrived at. As, however, the number of the followers of the Christian doctrine had lately considerably augmented in the village of Urakami, near Nagasaki, whose peasants secretly adhere to it, after mature consideration it has been ordered by the highest authority, that Christians shall be taken into custody, according to the rules laid down in the annexed document: "As the Christian doctrine has been prohibited in this country since the oldest times, this matter ought not to be lightly treated. Those to whose custody Christians shall be confided, shall therefore instruct them of what is right, with leniency and humanity; and shall do their best to again make good men of them. But if some should not repent and acknowledge their errors, they shall be most severely punished without any mercy. Those whom it concerns shall keep this well in mind, and denounce to the proper authorities every one who shall prove incorrigible. Those men (Christians), until they have repented, shall not be allowed to have any intercourse with the inhabitants of the places where they are consigned. They shall be used to clear land, or to work in the lime-pits, or the gold and coal mines, or for any work their officers may think fit to employ them on. They shall live in the mountains and forests. One portion of rice shall be allowed per head to the respective Daimios for the space of three years, to commence from a day to be determined hereafter. They shall be brought in small detachments to the places mentioned below. The Daimios shall, as soon as they receive the information of the arrival of the persons allotted to them, send soldiers to take them over. The above imperial orders are hereby published for observance. The following Daimios shall take over the Christians allotted to them at their respective palaces at Osaka."

This decree was followed by a list of 34 Daimios, who had Christian prisoners allotted to them, in numbers varying from 30 to 250 each, the total number being 4,100 persons. The following imperial decree on the subject was posted up at the gates of Yokohama and at Houmra:

The Christian religion heretofore being strictly forbidden, still, in the same manner as formerly, is strictly interdicted. The devilish sect is strictly prohibited.

On the 7th of July, one hundred and fourteen native Christians, chiefly men and heads of families, were put on board the Japanese steamer Sir H. Parkes, at Nagasaki, and carried out to sea. A rumor spread that they were drowned; but it was subsequently found out that they were destined to penal servitude

in the mines of the north. The several consuls, resident at Nagasaki, united in remonstrating with the authorities against this barbarous proceeding, but the only satisfaction they obtained was an insolent recommendation to limit their attention to their own affairs. The ministers at Yeddo also entered a protest, but with no better success. It was hoped that the French would resort to more stringent measures.

W. H. Grinnell, formerly a volunteer lieutenant in the United States Navy, and attached to the Oneida, of the Asiatic squadron, received an appointment from the Japanese Government, as inspector and instructor of the Japanese Navy. Grinnell has the rank of admiral, and \$12,000 a year pay, besides house-rent and servants. He presides over the naval school at Hiogo, which is attended by a large number of Japanese officials, some of whom are of high rank, and instructs them in navigation, trigonometry, seamanship, etc. He is also making preparations for the erection of a navy-yard. He is treated with great respect by all classes of Japanese, being allowed to go anywhere curiosity or interest may lead him.

Russia, in 1868, concluded a new convention with the Government of Japan (published in the official Law Bulletin of June 18th), supplementary to the treaty of 1858. According to Art. 5 of this convention, all the products of Japan may be transported from any part of the country to the open ports, without being subjected to a transit or any other duty. Art. 6 pledges the Japanese Government to introduce without delay, into the coining of money, the indispensable changes and improvements, for the purpose of removing all obstacles to the free circulation of foreign coin in Japan. Art. 9 gives to Japanese merchants of any class the right to trade directly with Russian merchants, without the interference of any Japanese functionary, not only in the open ports of Japan, but also in Russia. Japanese princes also, and their retainers, are authorized to go to Russia, and trade with Russia.

On the 11th of November, Von Polsbrock, as plenipotentiary for the King of Sweden and Norway, signed a treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation, with Higashi Kuze, Chijyo, Terashima Tozo, and Iseki Saiyemon, as plenipotentiaries for the Mikado.

In 1867 the Government of the Hawaiian Islands had sent D. C. Waterman special commissioner to Japan, for the purpose of gaining a market for sugars, as well as the labor for raising the same. He succeeded in accomplishing both his purposes. In 1868 the ship Scioto, fitted up with all the comforts and conveniences of a first-class emigrant packet, sailed, having on board several hundred passengers, an officer of the Japanese Government accompanying to see that the terms of the contract be fulfilled, for which, even to the payment of wages, the Hawaiian Government holds itself responsible.

The great political revolution through which

Japan passed in 1868, by the abolition of the office of Tycoon and the reestablishment of the supreme power of the Mikado, is accompanied by an effort to effect a complete change in the state religion of the country. An American missionary writes on this subject, under date of December 26, 1868, as follows:

Here the Buddhist religion is, or was, the established religion, and the priests have a monopoly of burying people and praying for them afterward. The aboriginal Shinto religion has fallen into disuse, poverty, and consequent disfavor and disgrace. This state of things commenced about three hundred years ago under Jeyasu, the founder of the Taicun dynasty. In the wars which he waged he was often beaten, and in his flight and in other times of calamity, he and his adherents found shelter and sympathy in many a Buddhist monastery. At last, when he reached the throne, he liberally rewarded all those priests who had befriended him in his adversity, paying them a fixed sum out of the public treasury, and bestowing grants of land to be held as temple grounds, the revenue from which was devoted to the support of the temple. From that time Buddhism flourished in Japan, and Shintoism decayed. The nation followed the example of the victorious Taicun, and thus Buddhism became established and popular. Still, as the Taicun did not ignore the Mikado, but allowed him to be the nominal head of Japan, and even paid some outward respect to him, in the same way Buddhism did not ignore or displace Shintoism, of which the Mikado is Pontifex Maximus. Where the aboriginal Shinto gods were worshipped before, the Buddhist divinities did not replace or supersede them, but were added to them, and thus, in many places, a singular union was effected. Buddhism and Shinto divinities are worshipped together, and the priests of both divisions often reside in the same temple. When this is the case, such temples are called Ryobu, which might be rendered union temples, i. e., pure Buddhist, pure Shinto, and the mixed or union temples. During the recent revolution a great effort has been made by the adherents of the Mikado to revive the ancient faith and cast off whatever is of foreign origin, whether derived from China or India. Efforts are made to eliminate the whole mass of Chinese characters from the language and literature of the land, and to return to the ancient simple and alphabetical manner of writing. The same principle is at work in the reaction against the established religion, which is of foreign origin, introduced from China and India 1,500 years ago. Since the Mikado's Government has been established, it has decreed that, where Buddhist and Shinto divinities are worshipped in the same temple, the former are to be set aside and the latter alone revered. The priests of the former religion are urged to embrace the ancestral and national faith, in which case they may continue to hold their places. At various points over the empire there are deserted Shinto temples. The ancient god holds his place, but, not being a popular god, his shrine is forsaken by officiating priests and worshippers. The new Government has made inspection and found that in many cases these shrines so sadly neglected are the shrines of the true and ancient gods. These must be reerected and endowed with Government support. What has been taken from the disendowed Buddhists will, no doubt, most of it be given to the Shintos. Now when one of these old temples is reerected and endowed, the office of priest in it becomes desirable. Not only has it a revenue from Government, but the people suddenly wake up to a knowledge of the fact that this same forgotten god in the olden time worked wonders. The early history of the divinity is involved in obscurity, and on the principle "*Omne ignotum pro magnifico*," it is magnified; worshippers bring their offerings, new votive tablets are set up, and the

revenue hence accruing, added to what is bestowed by Government, makes a priest's office a desirable one, especially as he is exempt from all military service. Many, therefore, now seek to obtain this position, but, on presenting their petitions at the seat of Government, it is generally decided that it is desirable to have these places filled by adherents of the Mikado from the south.

JESSUP, WILLIAM, LL. D., an eminent jurist and Christian philanthropist and reformer, born in Southampton, Long Island, June 21, 1797; died in Montrose, Pa., September 11, 1868. He was a graduate of Yale College in the class of 1815, removed to Montrose, Pa., in 1818, and was admitted to the bar in that county, in 1820, and soon acquired a large and lucrative practice. He became a professor of religion in 1827, and was from that time very active in the promotion of all Christian enterprises. He was especially interested in the cause of missions, and two of his sons became missionaries to the East. He was for many years one of the vice-presidents of the A. B. C. F. M. In all other good enterprises he was foremost; a pioneer in the causes of education and temperance in Northern Pennsylvania, and the chief founder of the County Agricultural Society. His eminent legal attainments and his incorruptible integrity led to his appointment in 1837 as presiding Judge of the Judicial District in which he resided, and to his reappointment in 1848. He was greatly esteemed by the members of the bar, and by all who desired to see justice strictly administered, yet tempered with mercy. In April, 1861, he was one of the committee of three, sent by the Governors of Pennsylvania, New York, and Ohio, to confer with President Lincoln in regard to raising 75,000 men, and was subsequently active, though advanced in years, in raising troops, but in that year his right side was partially paralyzed, and subsequent attacks prostrated his strength and injured his memory and mental faculties, and finally caused his death. The degree of LL. D. was conferred on him by Hamilton College in 1848.

JEUNE, FRANCIS, D. D., Lord Bishop of Peterborough, an English prelate and educational reformer, born in Jersey, of a respectable French family, about 1800; died at Peterborough in September, 1868. He came to Oxford University, and entered Pembroke College, a stranger and unbefriended, but won his way to a first class and a fellowship in his college. Soon after receiving A. M., he was appointed Public Examiner, and tutor of Pembroke; and, after some years' service in this capacity, went to Canada for two or three years as tutor of Lord Seaton's sons. On his return he was appointed head master of King Edward's School at Birmingham, and, a vacancy occurring while Lord John Russell was Premier, he was made Dean of Jersey. In 1843 he was chosen head master of Pembroke College, and, returning to Oxford, he at once commenced a course of reform in that college which raised it from a low position to nearly the first rank among the col-

leges of Oxford, and labored patiently and in the end successfully for the introduction of schools of natural science, law, and modern history into the university curriculum. It was through his influence that the University Commission was appointed by Parliament. From 1854 to 1864 he was vice-chancellor of the university, as well as head master of Pembroke; and to his strenuous exertions is due whatever of valuable reform has been effected in the university. In 1864 Lord Palmerston elevated him to the see of Peterborough, into which he carried the same zeal and earnestness for growth and advance which had marked his career at Oxford.

JEWETT, CHARLES COFFIN, an American scholar and bibliographer, for some years Professor of Modern Languages in Brown University, born in Lebanon, Me., in 1816; died in Braintree, Mass., January 9, 1868. He was a graduate of Brown University, of the class of 1835. He then pursued a course of study for three years at Andover, where he was so much distinguished as a linguist that he conceived the purpose of devoting himself to Oriental studies; this purpose, however, he found himself compelled to abandon. While at Andover, he was for a time Librarian of the Theological Seminary, and while in that position exhibited such aptitude for its duties, and for bibliographical pursuits, especially by the share which he had in the preparation of the catalogue of the library, that in 1843 he was called to Brown University, to undertake the task of newly arranging the college library, and of making a catalogue of its books. This task he performed with admirable success; and the publication of the catalogue under his auspices, attracted especial attention to this department of the university, and opened a new era in its fortunes. Soon after, he was appointed Librarian of the University and Professor of Modern Languages; and, for the purpose of fitting himself the better for his duties, he went abroad, and spent some time in perfecting himself in the languages and in inspecting the principal libraries of Europe. During his residence abroad, Professor Jewett made some valuable purchases, under the direction of the library committee, of works subsidiary to the study of the ancient classics; and was also intrusted with large commissions by a distinguished benefactor of the college, for the purchase of standard works in French, German, and Italian. These trusts were executed with singular skill and fidelity, and the accessions thus made to the library belong to its choicest treasures. Professor Jewett remained in the university until 1848, discharging his duties to universal acceptance, developing more fully his aptitude for the conduct of a great library, and winning the esteem and love of his pupils by his enthusiasm and skill as an instructor. On the establishment of the Smithsonian Institution, he was appointed its Assistant Secretary and Librarian; and at once entered upon these new and wider

duties with all the ardor of his enthusiastic nature, and with all the fondness and capacity for labor for which he was so much distinguished. In the discharge of these duties, he published an extended and most valuable report of the public libraries of the United States, which was printed in 1850, by order of Congress, as an appendix to the annual report of the Board of Regents of the Institution. He also perfected a system of cataloguing by stereotyping separately the title of each work in a library; a system which combined economy with accuracy. When it was decided to establish a great public library in Boston, Professor Jewett was at once selected as the best man in the country for the position of superintendent of the institution, and that position he held for the past ten years, discharging its laborious and responsible duties with an unremitting zeal and toil, with a close and assiduous application, which proved fatal to his health, and brought his honorable career to a sudden and melancholy end. To his invaluable services as Superintendent of the Boston Public Library, by his thorough and systematic knowledge of his duties, and by their faithful and conscientious performance, the citizens of Boston were chiefly indebted for the great success which that institution has attained. Professor Jewett's death was sudden, and was caused by a paralytic attack of so profound a character, that he died within ten hours after his seizure.

JOHNSON, REV. HERMAN M., S. T. D., LL. D., a Methodist clergyman and author, President of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., from 1860 to 1868, born in Otsego County, N. Y., November 25, 1815; died in Carlisle, April 5, 1868. He was fitted for college at Cazenovia Seminary, N. Y., and entered the junior class in Wesleyan University in 1837, graduating with distinction in 1839. Immediately on leaving the university he was elected Professor of Ancient Languages in St. Charles College, Missouri, where he remained for three years. Thence he was called to occupy the chair of Ancient Languages in Augusta College, Kentucky. In this position he served two years. In 1844 he was elected Professor of Ancient Languages and Literature in the Ohio Wesleyan University at Delaware, Ohio. Here for a while he performed the duties of acting president of the institution, organizing its curriculum, and was especially interested in introducing therein a biblical course of study as a means of ministerial education. Of this department, in its incipency, he took charge. Here he labored six years. In 1850 Dr. Johnson was elected Professor of Philosophy and English Literature in Dickinson College, which position he retained for ten years, laboring with unusual success. He was proffered, and accepted, the presidency of the course, together with the chair of Moral Science, in 1860, and devoted his energies earnestly to the administration of its affairs until his death. In 1850 he issued an edition of the *Clio of Herodotus*,

which attained a wide popularity. He had also been engaged with several others for some years on a translation of, and commentary on, several books of the Old Testament. He had nearly prepared for the press, at the time of his death, a German work on synonyms. He had been a frequent and always able contributor to the *Methodist Quarterly Review*. Through his whole public life, from his graduation to his death, he had been occupied as a teacher, so that he had never entered into the pastoral relation; he was very popular and interesting as a preacher. In social life, he was courteous, gentle, and remarkable for the suavity of his manners. His thorough and accurate scholarship, his genial manners, and his aptness in teaching, permanently fitted him for the positions as professor and president which he had filled with such success through a period of twenty-nine years.

JUNCKER, Rt. Rev. HENRY DAMIAN, D. D., Roman Catholic Bishop of Alton, Ill., born in Fenetrage, diocese of Nancy, Lorraine, France, about 1810; died at Alton, October 2, 1868. Dr. Juncker was of German family, and emigrated to the United States in early youth. His ecclesiastical studies were conducted in Cincinnati, and for a considerable portion of his seminary life he was engaged in the instruction of youth in connection with the prosecution of his own studies. He was ordained priest by Archbishop Purcell, March 16, 1834, and his first charge was the First German Catholic congregation of Cincinnati. Some years later he was transferred to St. John's Church, Canton, Ohio, and, subsequent to 1850, to Dayton, Ohio. When a new diocese was erected in Illinois, having Alton for its central point, Dr. Juncker was appointed its first bishop, and consecrated as such by Archbishop Purcell, April 26, 1857. He entered upon the duties of the episcopate with great zeal and energy, establishing schools, convents, and institutions of charity, and erecting a beautiful cathedral and episcopal residence. In all these enterprises he carefully avoided involving the diocese in debt, and ere his long and painful final illness commenced he had the satisfaction of seeing his charge prosperous, and enjoying a rapid growth in numbers and intelligence, and free from all incumbrances.

JUNKIN, GEORGE, D. D., LL. D., an eminent Presbyterian minister, author, and college president, born near Kingston, Cumberland County, Pa., November 1, 1790; died in Philadelphia, May 20, 1868. He was of Scotch-Irish extraction on both the father's and mother's side. His early education was conducted by his parents, and in schools in the vicinity of his home. In 1806 the family removed to Mercer County, then a frontier settlement, and there, with such opportunities as could be had, he completed his preparation for college, and in 1809 entered Jefferson College, graduating with distinction in 1813. The war with Great Britain commenced while he was in college,

and he was as patriotic then as when, fifty years later, he abandoned home, property, and friends, for the sake of the Union. Some yet living remember his eloquent appeals to the people of Mercer to volunteer in that war, and his rejoicing that four of his own family were enrolled among the defenders of their country. In October, 1813, Mr. Junkin set out on horseback for the then distant city of New York, where he spent the next three years in studying theology under the learned and eloquent Dr. John M. Mason. In September, 1816, he was licensed to preach by the Associate Reformed Presbytery of Monongahela, but was not ordained till 1818, and soon after settled as pastor of the united congregations of Milton and McEwensville, Pa. In 1825 a union was formed between a part of the Associate Reformed Church and the Presbyterian Church, and Mr. Junkin became a member of the latter. About this time he edited for some years the *Religious Farmer*, a bi-monthly magazine, and took an active part in the establishment of the Milton Academy, for many years a famous institution in that part of Pennsylvania. In 1830 he was called to be principal of the Pennsylvania Manual Labor Academy at Germantown, Philadelphia County. In 1832 he accepted the presidency of Lafayette College at Easton, Pa., then just organized, and mainly through his efforts. Here he labored most zealously and effectively for nine years, expending upon it incalculable toil of body and mind, and much of his private means. In 1841, when almost exhausted with his labors at Easton, he was offered the presidency of Miami University, Ohio, and accepted it. There in the following three years he accomplished a great work in inaugurating discipline, and elevating the standard of scholarship. In 1844 he was recalled to Lafayette College by the unanimous vote of the trustees, and resumed his labors there with all his former zeal and success. In 1848 he was called to preside over Washington College, Lexington, Va., the same institution of which General Robert E. Lee is now president, and continued there until 1861, when, on account of his attachment to the Union and Government, he left his position, his home, his property, his friends, and a part of his own family, and came to the North for protection. For the next seven years he made his home mostly in Philadelphia, though some time was spent at Easton, where the trustees of Lafayette College, to show their sense of his great services to that institution, had made him *Emeritus* Professor, and in New York, where he was welcomed by a wide circle of friends, and where he put forth some of his best efforts in behalf of the Union, temperance, and the observance of the Sabbath. He had, during his previous active and laborious life, found time for the preparation of several works of a theological and religious character: but during these last seven years his pen had been busier than ever, and he produced sev-

eral works of great merit; among them were "Political Fallacies," a very clear exposition of the reasoning by which secession was justified; "Sanctification;" "The Tabernacle, or the Gospel according to Moses;" "Sabbatismos;" an Essay on Baptism; and a work on which he had long been engaged, a "Commentary on the Epistle to the Hebrews." He was also, during this period, a frequent contributor to the periodical press. Jefferson College conferred upon him the degree of D. D. in 1833, and Rutgers that of LL. D. in 1856. Thus much is to be said of his literary and educational career. But, during all those years, he had also been an active theologian, and had exerted a powerful influence in the higher judicatories of the Presbyterian Church. A most decided Calvinist, both by early education and conscientious conviction, he tolerated neither in the churches of which he was pastor, nor in the councils of the Church, any departure from the standards of orthodoxy. In the division of the Presbyterian Church, which took

place in 1837, he took an active part in behalf of the Old School. He demanded a rigid adherence to the views of Calvin and Turretin, and the explanations of them given by what was then known as the Princeton School; and himself instituted the original charges of unsoundness in doctrine against Rev. Albert Barnes, of Philadelphia. In the whole controversy he was the ablest champion of the Old School orthodoxy, and his great logical power, his eloquence, and his profound theological learning, made him an opponent to be feared. In 1844 he was moderator of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church (O. S.), and his address, announcing the exodus of the Free Church of Scotland from the Kirk, is still remembered for its glowing eloquence. The years which followed had their softening effect on the sternness of Dr. Jenkins's denunciations of what he deemed heresy; but he was throughout life a vigorous and strong thinker, and an able polemical writer and speaker.

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KANSAS. The Legislature of Kansas, which met on the 14th of January, continued in session until the 3d of March. Few measures of any but local interest or importance were considered. Resolutions were introduced indorsing the action of Congress in impeaching the President, but no further attention was given to national affairs. A bill passed both Houses allowing all persons to practise law in the State without distinction of color or sex. The commissioners appointed under the act of February 18, 1867, to revise and codify the statutes, submitted a report containing 1,200 printed pages, which occupied much of the attention of the Assembly. This report, after some amendment, was adopted, as the body of Revised Statutes of the State. A proposition so to amend the criminal law as to abolish the death-penalty in all cases was rejected by a decisive vote. Codes regulating the procedure both in civil and criminal suits were adopted. The stringent law respecting the sale of intoxicating liquors heretofore in force was somewhat modified, and now leaves the regulation of this traffic in the larger cities to the municipal authorities. A subject which demanded and received a large share of attention was the condition of the State finances, which were represented to be a good deal embarrassed. The expenses of the courts were reduced one-third; many salaries were cut down, and a disposition was shown to postpone, for the present, any liberal appropriations for public institutions. Moreover, the State tax was increased from four to five and a half mills on the dollar. The actual financial situation is exhibited in the following tables:

Liabilities and Resources of the State, Nov. 30, 1868.

LIABILITIES.		
6 percent. bonds, funding Territorial debt.	\$60,500 00	
6 " " refunding taxes.....	39,675 00	
7 " " current expenses, 1861...	204,000 00	
7 " " internal improvement....	70,000 00	
7 " " Capitol building.....	250,000 00	
7 " " Penitentiary building.....	260,000 00	
7 " " Deaf and Dumb Asylum } building.....	15,500 00	
7 " " Insane Asylum building.	20,000 00	
7 " " military ".....	170,000 00	
10 " " Agricultural College.....	5,500 00	
Outstanding State warrants.....	290,254 03	
" " military ".....	4,600 11	
" " Territorial ".....	8,154 23	
Total.....	\$1,393,192 37	
RESOURCES.		
Taxes, levy of 1868.....	\$234,450 33	
" " due on levy, 1867.....	60,945 36	
" " " 1866.....	17,317 60	
" " " 1865.....	19,927 60	
" " " 1864.....	13,840 80	
" " " 1863.....	13,705 57	
" " " 1862.....	18,345 45	
" " " 1861.....	12,245 19	
Amount in Treasury.....	26,620 31	
" " military.....	5,851 74	
Total.....	\$423,309 95	

Receipts and Disbursements of the Treasury, for the Fiscal Year ending November 30, 1868.

FUND.	Dr.	Cr.	Balance.
General Revenue (Interest).....	\$201,144 16	\$188,392 34	\$12,751 82
Annual School.....	74,658 21	59,001 17	15,657 04
Permanent ".....	81,447 65	86,613 50	5,165 85
Penitentiary bld'g.....	45,588 35	42,316 35	3,272 00
Capitol ".....	140,630 00	140,525 73	105 10
Insane Asy'm ".....	18,352 32	18,352 12	20
Military ".....	28,298 71	22,376 97	5,851 74
Railroad.....	177,247 68	387 90	176,859 78
Agricultural College.....	4,229 35	—	4,229 35
Total.....	\$771,527 27	\$557,966 09	\$213,561 18

The State has claims against the General Government, amounting to upward of \$850,000, but no steps have yet been taken to press them to a settlement. The amount of taxable property in the State, according to the figures given by the Board of Equalization, is about \$66,000,000, while the percentage of taxation levied by the Legislature was based on estimates which placed it at \$75,000,000. The estimated population of Kansas, in 1868, was 300,000; the number of acres of land more or less improved, was set down at 2,000,000. The following figures, given in a report of the Surveyor-General, in July last, refer to the productions of the year 1867:

LIVE-STOCK.	Number of Heads.	Price per Head.	Total Amount.
Cattle.....	1,000,000	\$25 00	\$25,000,000
Horses.....	150,000	60 00	9,000,000
Mules.....	10,600	100 00	1,000,000
Hogs.....	1,000,000	6 00	5,000,000
Sheep.....	100,000	3 00	300,000
Total value of live-stock.....			\$40,300,000
GRAIN, Etc.	Number of Bushels.	Price per Bushel.	Total Amount.
Corn.....	40,000,000	\$0 50	\$20,000,000
Wheat.....	2,500,000	1 75	4,375,000
Potatoes.....	1,000,000	1 00	10,000,000
Total value of crops for 1867.....			\$35,375,000
Total value of improved farms and agricultural implements.....			40,000,000

The work on the new capitol buildings at Topeka has been prosecuted with considerable vigor, and the eastern wing, which is the only portion likely to be finished at present, is rapidly approaching completion. The entire plan is formed with a view to the future wants of the State, and will be carried into execution as the wants of the government demand. The whole structure, which is to be built of magnesian limestone, will be one of the finest of the kind in the country. The eastern wing alone will cost the State \$450,000.

New buildings are contemplated for nearly all the State institutions, and a movement was made in the last Legislature to concentrate them at one or two points, instead of having them scattered, as they now are, over the whole State. This matter was referred to a committee, who reported a bill in favor of concentrating the State University, State Normal School, and State Agricultural College at one point, and the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, the Institution for the Blind, and the Insane Hospital at another. It did not become a law at the last session, but it is probable that this, or some similar plan, will be adopted whenever provision shall be made for the erection of new buildings for these institutions.

The number of inmates in the Penitentiary on the 30th of November was 170, which shows an increase of 44 during the year. The annual cost of their support, exclusive of earnings, is over \$50,000. At the Insane Asylum 29 patients were cared for during some part of the year, 12 of whom were discharged

entirely restored to reason. The cost of maintaining this institution was about \$18,000. The Deaf and Dumb Asylum afforded support and instruction to 28 persons, at a cost of \$15,000. Thirteen pupils enjoyed the advantages of the Institution for the Blind, and \$10,600 were expended by the superintendent. New buildings for all the eleemosynary establishments are required as soon as the finances of the State will allow of their construction.

The following statement shows the condition of the public schools, and the funds from which they derive their support, as compared with last year:

	1867.	1868.
Number of school districts organized.....	1,172	1,373
Number of school districts reporting.....	1,056	1,232
Number of children between the ages of 5 and 21 years.....	62,838	76,150
Number enrolled in public schools.....	39,429	45,140
Amount paid teachers (wages).....	\$170,446 39	\$203,873 54
Do. repairs and incidentals.....	42,824 42	45,319 87
Amount disbursed to counties from Annual School Fund.....	47,961 36	55,969 90
Amount received from direct tax for school purposes.....	273,057 18	342,421 70
Amount received from fines and estrays.....	21,253 38	30,804 98
Amount received from all sources for school purposes.....	342,271 92	429,215 58
Total value of school-houses.....	573,690 08	613,062 75
Cash invested for permanent school fund.....	59,766 59	86,613 50
Amount of State and United States bonds purchased.....	66,725 00	90,675 00
Amount of productive school fund in State Treasury.....	96,736 56	187,421 56
Amount of instalments due on sale of school lands, and bearing 10 per cent. interest.....		331,392 23
Total productive school fund.....		518,813 79

Kansas promises to become the State of railroads, lying as it does nearly in the centre of the country east of the Rocky Mountains, and containing the focus to which numerous lines converge only to strike out again in all directions into the vast country west of the Mississippi. There are already six hundred miles of railway completed and in operation within the limits of the State. The Union Pacific Railroad, Eastern Division, has been completed from Wyandotte and Leavenworth westward to Sheridan, near the western boundary of the State, a distance of 405 miles. A bridge across the Missouri River at Leavenworth is in contemplation, and will very materially enhance the value of this great work. The road, so far as finished, has been used by the Government in carrying the mails, and in transporting troops and supplies, at a saving of expense which more than compensates for the aid rendered to the enterprise by public subsidies. The Central Branch Union Pacific Railway has been put in operation from Atchison to Waterville, in Marshall County, a distance of one hundred miles. The Missouri River road, running twenty-five miles, from Wyandotte to Leavenworth, has been finished and is operated as an extension of the Missouri Pacific. The Leavenworth, Lawrence,

and Galveston road is completed and in operation to Ottawa in Franklin County, and is in process of construction from Ottawa to Garnett in Anderson County. The Missouri River, Fort Scott, and Gulf Railroad has been put in operation for a distance of 30 miles, and the work of construction is now going on between Olathe and Paola. The St. Joseph and Denver City Railway Company have completed that portion of their road running from Ellwood to Troy, in Doniphan County, a distance of fifteen miles, and are making arrangements for a further prosecution of the work. The Union Pacific Railroad, Southern Branch, is in process of construction from Junction City to Council Grove, and contracts have been entered into to carry it on to the southern boundary of the State. The Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé road is also under contract, and the work is going on between Topeka and Burlingame. Arrangements have been made for building a railroad from Leavenworth to Atchison, as also from Atchison to White Cloud. This latter will form a part of the Atchison and Nebraska City Railroad. Besides these, there are several other projected lines, the construction of which will undoubtedly be undertaken within a brief period. Among these may be mentioned the Sedalia, Fort Scott, and Santa Fé Railroad; the Lawrence and Pleasant Hill road; the Lawrence, Oscaloosa, and Atchison; a road from Waterville to Salina; one from Ellsworth to the Arkansas valley, and thence to Mexico; and a line from Waterville to Hays City. Some of these lines of railway receive aid from the U. S. Government, and all are liberally encouraged by the Legislature of the State.

Kansas bore the brunt of the Indian war during the summer and fall, and most of the atrocities and outrages committed upon settlers occurred in this State. Between 80 and 100 persons were murdered by the savages, and the people were thoroughly aroused to a spirit of deadly hostility to the red man. A battalion of militia was called into service by Governor Crawford on the 14th of September, and a regiment of volunteers raised and their services tendered to the commander of the Military Division of the Missouri. Most of the engagements with the Indians took place in this State. (*See INDIAN WAR.*)

A treaty was made in the latter part of May, which extinguished the title of the nation of Great and Little Osage Indians to all lands heretofore held by them in Kansas, and provided for their removal to reservations in the Indian Territory to the south of the State. These lands had become of little value to the Indians, on account of the exhaustion of the supply of game, while the settlements of the whites were pressing over their boundaries on all sides. The peace commissioners met the chiefs and medicine men of the tribes, and, after a long "talk," induced them to give up their lands and turn their faces to the south. Much

dissatisfaction with this treaty was expressed both by the Indians and by whites who spoke in their behalf, and a protest against its ratification was presented at Washington. It still awaits the action of the Senate, but the removal of the Osages to the southern reservation has been begun.

The Republicans and Democrats held conventions, at which the principles of the respective parties were reiterated and the candidates of the National Conventions indorsed. Candidates were put into the field for various State offices and for presidential electors. The Democratic Convention met at Topeka on the 29th of July, and nominated George W. Glick for Governor, and Colonel Maxwell McCaslin for Lieutenant-Governor. The Republican Convention assembled on the 8th of September, and nominated J. M. Harvey for Governor, and C. V. Eskridge for Lieutenant-Governor. There is but one congressional district in Kansas, and to represent that the Democrats nominated C. W. Blair, while the Republicans put up Sidney Clarke for reelection. The State election occurred on the same day with that for the choice of presidential electors, and resulted in the election of Harvey by a majority of 15,590. The whole vote was 40,600; Harvey received 29,895, and Glick 13,809. The entire vote for President was 43,649, of which Grant received 30,228, and Seymour 13,620. Sidney Clarke was reelected to Congress by a majority of 15,355 out of a vote of 43,293.

The Legislature of 1869 is constituted as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	24	84	108
Democrats.....	1	6	7
	—	—	—
Republican majority..	23	78	101

KEAN, CHARLES JOHN, F. S. A., F. R. G. S., an English actor and theatrical manager, who was also an accomplished archæologist and art connoisseur, born at Waterford, Ireland, January 18, 1811; died in Chelsea, London, January 22, 1868. He was the second but only surviving son of the late brilliant but dissolute actor, Edmund Kean, and was not at first destined for the stage. After a very thorough early training in preparatory schools, he was sent to Eton in his fourteenth year, where he was an associate of the younger Canning, Dean Alford, and Hon. W. E. Gladstone, the present Prime Minister of England. He remained at Eton nearly three years; but, the misconduct of his father having led to his mother's separation from him, young Kean felt it his duty to undertake his mother's support, and, abandoning for her sake an offer of an East India appointment, he left Eton in July, 1827, and, in October following, accepted an engagement for three years at Drury Lane Theatre. He manifested considerable talent, but did not, at first, give any indications of the possession of his father's genius. He met his father at Glasgow, in 1828, and they were so far reconciled as to act in the same play. In 1830 he visited

the United States, and his reception here was very cordial, and he returned early in 1833 with considerable added reputation, and appeared at Covent Garden, where he met his father again, and played Iago to his Othello, the last time the elder Kean appeared upon the stage. Charles Kean now struggled on with but moderate success, making a long tour through the provinces. In January, 1838, he appeared again at Drury Lane, as Hamlet, in which he made a most favorable impression; he followed this by Sir Giles Overreach, and Richard III., and in each fairly took his position as a tragedian of the highest rank. Thenceforward his course was one of successive triumphs. Honored at home, by the encomiums of the young Queen, and the public recognition of the most eminent men of the kingdom, he was not less honored when, in 1839, he visited America and made a triumphal tour through the principal cities of the Union. He returned to England in 1840, and engaged himself at the Haymarket for three seasons, and was received with great enthusiasm. In February, 1842, he married the amiable and accomplished actress Miss Ellen Tree, with whom thenceforth his name and his affections were united by an indissoluble bond. After the expiration of his London engagements, in 1845, he visited the United States a third time, with Mrs. Kean, and for two years delighted the theatre-going population of the Atlantic cities by his vivid production of Shakespeare's best plays. On his return to England, at the close of 1847, both he and Mrs. Kean appeared at the Haymarket in Mr. Lovell's "Wife's Secret," which was their own property. He soon after took the sole direction of a series of dramatic representations given at Windsor Castle, for the amusement of the royal family. In 1850 he undertook the management of the Princess's Theatre, and soon after commenced a series of representations of Shakespeare's "Henry VIII.," "King John," "Winter's Tale," "Tempest," etc., in which all the resources and pageantry of the scenic art were called into action for the effective acting of these plays. The scenes, the costumes, and all the accessories, were most carefully studied, and the period covered by the plays represented with an accuracy and truthfulness previously unknown. The archaeological knowledge displayed in this work astonished even the ablest English antiquaries, and led to his election as a Fellow of their Society. After nine years of extraordinary success in the management of this theatre, Mr. Kean retired from its arduous duties. At this time a public banquet was tendered to Mr. Kean, over which the Duke of Newcastle presided, and at which over six hundred of the most eminent men in England were present to do honor to the scholarly and accomplished actor and manager. After fulfilling a round of provincial engagements, Mr. and Mrs. Kean returned to London early in 1861, where, at another banquet, he received from his Etonian

friends a service of plate valued at £2,000, equal to \$10,000. For more than a year Mr. and Mrs. Kean were engaged at Drury Lane, but, in 1863, they left England on a professional tour round the world. Their tour included Australia, California, Cuba, the Atlantic coast of the United States, and Canada. They arrived in New York in the spring of 1865, and Mr. Kean's personation of Cardinal Wolsey and King John, in Shakespeare's plays, Louis XI., in Boucicault's drama, and Mr. Oakley, in the Jealous Wife, were universally regarded as the finest efforts of art in their kind known to the modern stage. Returning to England in the summer of 1866, Mr. Kean continued upon the stage, giving great satisfaction, until the 29th of May, 1867, when he was seized with a lingering illness, which, in the following January, terminated fatally. Mr. Kean's private life was, in all respects, exemplary, and his reputation without a stain.

KEARNY, LAWRENCE. The brilliancy, frequency, and magnitude of the operations on sea and land which characterized the late civil war, among other effects, tended in a great measure to withdraw public attention and recollection from the distinguished services rendered in former years by those who, though still in life, were nevertheless relieved from active duty. The death of such a one as Lawrence Kearny recalled the large share he had in making the American Navy renowned for acts of gallantry and bravery. He was born in Perth Amboy, New Jersey, on the 30th day of November, 1789, and entered the Navy as a midshipman, July 24, 1807, under President Jefferson; was promoted to a lieutenantancy in 1813 by President Madison; to the rank of master commandant in 1825 by President Monroe; and to that of captain in 1832 by President Jackson. His first service after receiving his midshipman's warrant, in 1807, was under Commodore Rodgers in the flotilla of gunboats during the continuance of the Embargo and Non-intercourse Acts; he afterward served in the Constitution and President frigates on the coast until the year 1810, when he was transferred from the latter to the U. S. schooner Enterprise. He was first lieutenant of this vessel when war was declared with Great Britain in 1812, and was in her when wrecked after leaving New Orleans on a cruise. His services on the coast of South Carolina and adjacent States during the war were brilliant and valuable, and received favorable notice in Cooper's naval history and in *Niles's Register*. After the war, as commander of the Enterprise he rendered services which were of the highest importance not only to the commerce of the United States, but that of other nations trading to the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico. These seas were infested with powerful gangs of pirates, engaged in depredating upon the commerce of all nations, and causing not only great pecuniary loss, but that of life, to innocent and unoffending parties.

Through the active exertions of Kearny near Cape Antonio, on the Island of Cuba, the gang of the notorious pirate Gibbs, afterward hanged in chains in New York, was dispersed, and some of the number taken. The chief pirate with his principal followers succeeded in escaping at that time, after a long and arduous chase. The American brig *Aristides* and ship *Lucius*, with full cargoes from Liverpool, and the English brig *Larch*, which had been attacked by the pirates and partly plundered, were recaptured, and, with the exception of the first named, which had been stranded on a reef of rocks, were returned to their owners. Four schooners and one sloop of the pirates were captured, and subsequently another schooner and three or four barges employed by the pirates in their enterprise. The services rendered by Kearny in breaking up these gangs of pirates and destroying their strongholds received the highest commendation from insurance companies, merchants, and ship-owners, engaged in the commerce of that quarter of the globe, and gave reassurance to those who had been forced almost to give up all effort of trading with the West Indies. After rendering these invaluable services in the West Indies, he was ordered to the command of the U. S. ship *Warren* on the 2d of December, 1826, and sailed for the Mediterranean February 22, 1827. While in the Levant in that year, Kearny, learning that the Greek pirates were committing frequent and serious depredations upon the commerce of all nations, resolved to put a stop to it. Through the indefatigable exertions of himself and those under his command, the rendezvous of the pirates was broken up, the gangs dispersed, and commerce relieved of their depredations. One, writing of his exertions and activity at this time, says: "The commander of our vessel seemed to be in a peculiar manner suited for this enterprise. He was both sagacious and energetic, and possessed an intrepidity never exceeded. I was filled with admiration at his untiring vigilance, and it would fill a volume to narrate one-tenth of the incidents of our cruise. Our ship appeared to possess the power of ubiquity. One day we were looking into Milo, to see if there were vessels there wanting convoy, and then we would be abreast of Cerigotto. At one time off Syra, and then in the gulf of Suda. We were cruising principally between Cape Matapan and Cerigotto, thus guarding the entrance to the Archipelago; but our captain seemed to take peculiar delight in hovering about Garabusa. This was the stronghold of the pirates; the place where they obtained provisions and deposited their plunder. No suspicious sail ever escaped his eagle eye, and vessels of all descriptions, felucca, trutto, and mistico, were overhauled and seized; and at one time we had more than one hundred prisoners on board our ship. Some idea of the activity of our operations may be formed, when I state that, after capturing a large boat off Garabusa,

to leeward of the harbor, we immediately went in chase of a brig making to windward. She was soon overhauled, and proved to be a fine vessel of one hundred and eighty tons. The brig was hardly disposed of, when a suspicious looking craft was seen coming round the west end of Candia; we immediately pursued it, but, getting becalmed while the other vessel was favored with a breeze, we lost her. That night, off Cape Spada, another suspicious sail hove in sight, which we chased all night and a part of the next day up the Gulf of Napoli, when she made her escape either into Spezzia or by bearing away for Hydra. We soon after captured one vessel and burned another in a small bay off the Isle of Andros, and sunk a schooner off Syra. Besides all this, our commander frequently landed at different islands, compelling the authorities to disgorge the plunder deposited with them, and sometimes exacting the most signal satisfaction for outrages committed on our 'commerce.' After returning to the United States, he was promoted to the rank of captain, and was engaged in miscellaneous duties till he was ordered, in 1839, to the frigate *United States*, and in 1840 to the command of the frigate *Potomac*, and in 1841 while in Brazil was appointed to the command of the East India squadron, and in February, 1841, hoisted his broad pennant on board the frigate *Constellation*, in the harbor of Rio de Janeiro, it being the first instance in the history of our Navy that a broad pennant was raised in a foreign station. On arriving at Macao, in the spring of 1842, his first services were directed to the suppression of opium-smuggling. He took measures to secure redress for grievances of American merchants in China, who had lost property in the Dutch factory which had been plundered by a Chinese mob, and for which reparation had been vainly sought through the Hongs, and succeeded in bringing about a speedy settlement of these claims, amounting to over two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. He learned that a commercial treaty was about being concluded between the English and the Chinese, and, justly fearing that, unless carefully guarded, the interests of the United States might be made to suffer, he at once opened a direct correspondence with the Governor of Canton and the imperial commissioners on the subject; these communications resulted in a promise, on the part of the Chinese authorities, to recognize our right to trade and to extend to our merchants the same protection and facilities which were about being granted to Great Britain. These services were afterward communicated to the Senate, and printed in the Senate documents, No. 139, first session, Twenty-ninth Congress. It will be perceived that, while in China, Kearny was afforded an opportunity of negotiating a treaty of commerce with the Chinese, and was only prevented from so doing from the fact that he was not vested by this Government with the necessary diplomatic power.

The first steps were, however, taken—the benefit, in fact, secured—and, on being communicated to the Government, led to the appointment of the Hon. Caleb Cushing, as special envoy, by President Tyler, in May, 1843, who proceeded to China and there negotiated the treaty which was ratified January 17, 1845, and proclaimed April 18, 1846, by which treaty the right of trade and other facilities proffered by the Chinese authorities to Kearny were secured to the citizens of the United States. On leaving China, on his return home, he stopped at the Sandwich Islands in June, 1843, in time to learn that a provisional treaty had been made between King Kamehameha and the representative of the British Government, for the transfer of his dominions to the British crown without reference to the rights or interests of the United States or her inhabitants. Against such a cession he immediately protested, notifying both the King and Captain Lord George Paulet, the British representative, that they would be held respectively liable for all injuries to American commerce and American merchants. Without being able to remain until a definite settlement of this difficulty could be effected, he left the Sandwich Islands on his return, and reached Norfolk April 30, 1844. He was afterward engaged in various shore duties, embracing the command of the New York station; the presidency of one of the naval courts of inquiry under the act of January 16, 1857, and member of the Light-house Board. He was also a member of the New Jersey Board of Pilot Commissioners, and spent the last years of his life in Perth Amboy, where he died, Nov. 29, 1868, in the paternal homestead, where he was born, and which he had retained through life as his residence and home.

KENTUCKY. The Legislature of Kentucky, which assembled on the first Monday of December, 1867, continued its sessions until the 10th of March, 1868, and during that time enacted no less than 1,236 laws, and adopted 40 series of joint resolutions. A large number of the statutes were for the relief or the benefit of individuals, and many others simply authorized the formation of corporations for business purposes or enterprises of internal improvement. Several acts were passed providing for an increase of the facilities of communication from one part of the State to another, some in the interest of railroads and turnpikes, and a number for the improvement of the river navigation. Some laws were made for the benefit of the schools and benevolent institutions of the Commonwealth, but none of these made any material change in the organization or existence of such institutions, and no statutes of great interest in general matters of government and public administration were enacted during the session. Mr. Guthrie, one of the Senators of Kentucky in the Federal Congress, sent his resignation to the Governor, and Thomas C. McCreery was elected by the General Assembly as his successor.

Some of the Representatives to Congress chosen in the State of Kentucky having been refused admittance to their seats on the first presentation of their certificates of election, the Legislature sent to Congress a memorial of protest “against the great constitutional wrong and manifest injustice” which had been done the people of the State “in failing and refusing to admit their just representation on the floor of the House of Representatives of the Congress of the United States, on the presentation of their legal certificates of election, duly authenticated, and each of said Representatives possessing all the qualifications prescribed by the Constitution of the United States.” The memorial argues at some length respecting the authority of Congress over the qualifications of its own members, and ends with the following declarations:

1. That, in a Republican Government, the right of representation is a franchise which the people may not safely relinquish, and of which they cannot be deprived and remain free. The right of a people to representation implies the right for them to choose their Representatives, and a denial of the latter involves a destruction of the former; hence, a government is no longer republican when this right of the people is destroyed.

2. The Constitution of the United States, which is the creature of the States, and which constitutes the only bond of the Federal Union, prescribes the qualifications which must be possessed by members of Congress, also the mode of choosing them, and the right conferred by the Constitution on each House of Congress to “judge of the election, qualification, and returns of its members,” and does not authorize the denial of representation to the people of a State or district, nor authorize the application of any new or additional tests or qualifications for membership.

3. To reject a representative duly chosen, because of any political sentiments which he may have held or may hold, is at once a flagrant violation of the Constitution, and a ruthless annihilation of freedom itself; because freedom consists in the right to be represented by whomsoever a majority may select: *Provided*, There be no disqualification, in the member so chosen, embraced within the provisions of the Federal Constitution.

4. Each and every of the Representatives elected by the people of the State of Kentucky to the Fortieth Congress was not only duly elected, but possessed all the qualifications required by the Constitution, and the exclusion for a single day of any one of them, upon the grounds alleged by the controlling power in the House of Representatives, was an infraction of the constitutional rights of the people, which demands our most unqualified denunciation; and, in the name of an injured and outraged people, we do most solemnly and earnestly protest against such action, which, if persisted in, and established as the policy of the Government, will render the elective franchise a farce, and what we have been taught to regard as constitutional liberty but a solemn mockery.

Just before the close of the session, both branches of the General Assembly joined in the following resolutions on the subject of general amnesty:

Kentucky, as a sovereign State in the Federal Union, and as deeply interested in the common weal of the whole country, has not only the right, but it is her solemn duty, to declare her convictions upon all questions of public policy. The citizens of Kentucky are deeply concerned in the peace, harmony, and

prosperity of the whole country; the destiny of the State is involved in that of the country; and their prosperity depends, in a very great degree, upon that of every other portion of the Union, of which she forms a part.

2. That the unconditional restoration of the Southern States to the free and equal enjoyment of their rights in the Federal Union is indispensable to the peace, happiness, and prosperity of the country. Kentucky therefore declares that, in her judgment, a universal amnesty, without distinctions, discriminations, or test-oaths, is at once demanded by the highest statesmanship as well as the purest magnanimity.

She also expresses her sincere individual interest in this matter, because certain of her citizens are subject to disabilities, liable to penalties, or forced to remain in exile. She therefore urges upon the President of the United States a proclamation of universal amnesty, unrestricted by test-oaths. She is entitled to the services of all her citizens; she desires the return of all her exiles to their homes, and the restoration of all lying under any disability to a perfect political and civil equality with all her other citizens.

The public charitable and reformatory institutions of Kentucky are said to be under very efficient management, but some deficiencies are severely felt. The penitentiaries in 1863 contained 240 convicts. In the five years which have elapsed since that time the number has increased nearly threefold; several additions to the buildings have been made in the mean time, and others are needed. The extensions made during the past year have 312 new cells, and considerably enlarged the hospital accommodation. Great need exists of separate penal and reformatory institutions for females and for boys; 240 of the inmates of the penitentiary at the present time are between the ages of 15 and 20 years. The number of convicts received within its walls during the year 1868 was 343, and the whole number of inmates on the 31st of December was 616. There are two lunatic asylums in the State: the Eastern, at Lexington, and the Western, at Hopkinsville. The State was divided into the Eastern and Western divisions by act of the last Legislature, simply with reference to these two asylums; all persons found by the proper inquest to be fit subjects for the care of an institution of the kind are sent to the asylum situated in that division of the State in which they reside. There is an institute for the education of feeble-minded children, located near the capital, which is in quite successful operation.

Much need is felt of more thorough organization of the school system of Kentucky. The title of Shelby College has been changed by legislative enactment to Saint James College.

The expenses of the government of Kentucky during the last fiscal year amounted to \$3,490,195.29, and a surplus of \$748,128.57 was left in the Treasury on the 10th of October. The debt of the Commonwealth, including \$1,632,297.46 in irredeemable school-fund bonds, on the 10th of October, 1867, was \$4,611,199.46. Of this the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund redeemed \$992,008 in State bonds during the past year. The actual amount of the State

debt subject to payment which remained due on the 1st of January, 1869, was \$1,906,894.

Both political parties held conventions in the early part of the year, in which they repeated and confirmed the declarations of principles adopted at previous conventions. John W. Stevenson was nominated for reelection to the office of Governor by the Democrats, and R. Tarvin Baker was nominated for that position by the Republicans. At the election, 140,146 votes were cast for Governor, of which 114,412 were for Mr. Stevenson, and 25,734 for Mr. Baker. Mr. Stevenson's majority was 88,678. The whole vote cast on the presidential ticket was 155,455, 115,889 of which were for the election of Seymour, and 39,566 for Grant, giving Seymour a majority of 76,313. New Representatives to Congress were also chosen, and Democrats were elected from all of the nine districts of the State.

When the Legislature adjourned on the 10th of March, it was to meet again in extra session on the 5th of January, 1869, the regular sessions of that body occurring biennially. It is made up of 8 Republican and 30 Democratic members in the Senate, and 9 Republicans and 91 Democrats in the House of Representatives.

No serious disturbances of public order have been reported in Kentucky during the past year. Some complaint has been made of the operation of the Civil Rights Law, whereby prisoners in the custody of the State courts have been in several instances taken therefrom by Federal officials, and removed for trial in the District Court of the United States.

KRUMMACHER, FRIEDRICH WILHELM, an eloquent preacher and author of the Reformed Church of Prussia; born in Duisburg, Rhenish Prussia, in 1797; died in Potsdam, Prussia, December 10, 1868. He was the eldest son of Friedrich Adolph Krummacher, the author of "Krummacher's Parables," an eminent professor and pastor of the Reformed Church. Educated at the University of Duisburg, he entered upon the pastorate in his twenty-first year, at Elberfeld, Prussia, and soon acquired a high reputation for the orthodoxy and evangelical character of his preaching, as opposed to the then prevalent rationalism of Germany, and also for his extraordinary eloquence as a preacher. His first appearance before the public as an author, was in his "Elijah the Tishbite," a work deservedly popular, and which was translated into most of the languages of Europe. The English version has been twice published in the United States, and has had a very large sale. This was followed by "The Suffering Saviour;" "Last Days of Elisha;" "King David;" "Solomon and the Shulomite;" "Sermons on the Canticles;" "Glimpses into the Kingdom of Grace;" "Bunsen and Stahl," etc. He also founded and edited for some years two religious periodicals, "Palm-Leaves, a Monthly Magazine," and "The Evangelical Year-Book." In 1843 he received a call

from a German Reformed congregation in New York City, to be their pastor, and soon after the offer of a professorship in the Reformed Theological Seminary at Mercersburg, Pa., but he declined both, and recommended Pro-

fessor Schaff to the latter. He was called in 1848 from Elberfeld to be court preacher to the King of Prussia, at Berlin, and afterward at Potsdam. He was accounted the most eloquent preacher in Germany.

L

LEUTZE, EMANUEL, a distinguished historical painter, born in Gmünd, Wurtemberg, May 24, 1816; died in Washington, D. C., July 18, 1868. His parents emigrated to the United States, soon after his birth, and at first settled in Philadelphia, but subsequently removed to Fredericksburg, Va. His youth was passed in the two cities. His early education was good, though not specially in the direction of art. The first development of his possession of artistic talent occurred while attending the sick-bed of his father, when he attempted drawing to occupy the long hours of waiting. This talent was assiduously cultivated, and he soon became skilful and enthusiastic in his profession, and projected a plan for publishing, in Washington, portraits of eminent American statesmen, in which, however, he met with but slight encouragement. About 1840 he produced his first painting which indicated his ability to be any thing more than a good portrait-painter. His subject was an Indian in the midst of a wild landscape, gazing at the setting sun, and its merits were such as to procure him so many orders, that in 1841 he was enabled to carry into effect a long-cherished purpose of studying his art in Europe. Instead of following the usual course of young American artists, and going to Italy for the study of the works of the old masters, he proceeded at once to Düsseldorf and became one of the pupils of the celebrated Lessing, under whom he made rapid progress. He devoted himself with great assiduity to historic subjects, and chose in preference those having a relation to the discovery or history of America. His first noteworthy painting in Europe, "Columbus before the Council of Salamanca," was purchased by the Düsseldorf Art Union; and a companion picture, "Columbus in Chains," procured him the gold medal of the Brussels Art Exhibition, and was subsequently purchased by the Art Union in New York. In 1843 he studied the works of Cornelius and Kaulbach at Munich, and, while there, finished his "Columbus before the Queen." After the completion of this picture he visited Venice and Rome, making careful studies of Titian and Michael Angelo, and, after a protracted tour in Italy, returned to Düsseldorf in 1845, where he married and made his home. Historical painting continued to be his favorite and almost exclusive department of art, and he adhered, in his execution, to the style of the Düsseldorf school. For fourteen years he continued in Düsseldorf—years of assiduous labor, which

gave him a high measure of reputation. During these years he painted, among other pictures of less note, "Landing of the Norsemen in America;" "Cromwell and his Daughter;" "The Court of Queen Elizabeth;" "Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn;" "The Iconoclast;" and that remarkable series of pictures illustrating striking events in the War of the Revolution, of which the most important were: "Washington Crossing the Delaware;" "Washington at Monmouth;" "Washington at the Battle of Monongahela;" "News from Lexington;" "Sergeant Jasper;" and "Washington at Princeton;" the "Washington Crossing the Delaware" has been engraved, we believe, more than once. In 1859, after eighteen years of absence, Mr. Leutze returned to the United States, the country toward which, during all these years, his heart had turned. He opened a studio at first in New York City, where he was soon fully employed, his reputation having long preceded him throughout the country. Early in 1860 he received a commission from the Government for a large mural picture, to be painted on one of the staircases in the capitol at Washington. The subject he chose was, "Westward the Star of Empire takes its way," and the painting was to be executed in fresco. So earnestly did the artist enter into this work that he not only made the then difficult journey to the base of the Rocky Mountains, for the purpose of local study, but, on his return to the States, again departed for Munich, that he might learn from Kaulbach the mechanism of fresco. The result was admirable. The painting is by much the finest fresco yet executed in the United States, and puts to shame the other tawdry efforts in that line of art in the capitol. Mr. Leutze, while engaged on this painting, made his home in Washington, and remained there after its completion. He had received other commissions from the Government, which were only in the "cartoon" state at his death. One of these ("Civilization"), intended for the Senate-chamber, was said to have been most admirable in its conception. He had also made a sketch in pencil of an historical painting of the largest size, entitled "The Emancipation." Mr. Leutze was altogether the best-educated artist in America, possessed of vast technical learning, of great genius, and fine powers of conception. His weakest point was in his coloring, but even here he was superior to most others. He was very industrious, and devoted

himself to his work most faithfully and assiduously. His death was caused by apoplexy, superinduced by the intense heat.

LIBERIA, a republican state of Western Africa, founded in 1822 by free negroes from the United States of North America, under the auspices of the American Colonization Society. As the frontier of the republic is not fixed, its area cannot be ascertained. It is estimated at about 9,567 square miles. The extent of the territory along the Guinea coast is about 225 miles. The population, in 1867, was estimated at 18,000 civilized and 700,000 uncivilized negroes.* The President of the republic is elected for a term of two years, and may be reelected at the expiration of his term. At the presidential election held in 1867, none of the candidates received an absolute majority, and the election consequently devolved upon the Legislature, which elected J. Spriggs Payne; Vice-President, Joseph J. Gibson. The Cabinet was composed as follows: Secretary of State, J. Nostedler Lewis (January 7, 1868); Finances, Daniel E. Bearn (February 7, 1868); Attorney-General, W. M. Davis (January 7, 1868); Comptroller of the Treasury, John R. Freeman (February 14, 1868); Treasurer, Beverly V. R. James (January, 1868). The United States are represented in Liberia by a minister-resident and consul-general (at present, John Seys, who was appointed in 1866). The budget for 1868 estimates the receipts at \$108,297; the expenditures at \$106,745; surplus, \$1,552. The exports of 1866 were estimated at about \$400,000.

LIECHTENSTEIN, a principality, which, until 1866, formed part of the German Confederation; but has been, since 1866, without connection with any other State of Germany. Prince, Johann II., born October 5, 1840; succeeded his father November 12, 1858. Area, 62 square miles; population, in 1867, 8,320. Revenue and expenditures amount to about 55,000 florins annually.

LINCOLN, LEVI, LL. D., an eminent citizen, statesman, and jurist, of Massachusetts, born in Worcester, Mass., October 25, 1782; died in that city, May 29, 1868. He inherited from his distinguished father a singular capacity for public affairs. He was early instructed in the rudiments of classical knowledge, and entered Harvard College, whence he graduated in the class of 1802, and, having studied law in his father's office, was admitted to the bar in 1805, and began practice in Worcester. He was a member of the State Senate in 1812, and from 1816 to 1822 represented the town in the House of Representatives; was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1820; was Speaker of the House in 1822, when a majority of the members were opposed to him in political sentiments; was Lieutenant-Governor in 1823; associate justice of the Supreme

Court in 1824; Governor from 1825 to 1834; representative in Congress, from 1835 to 1841; collector of the port of Boston under President Harrison, and subsequently in various places of duty and service for the State and city to which he belonged. In the convention of 1820, which contained the flower of the talent of the Commonwealth, others bore a more active, but none a more creditable part. He spoke without ornament or pretension, always with clearness and to the point. The period during which he administered the State government is often referred to as one of the highest political felicity. He was chosen by the concurrence of all parties, when the singular desire prevailed that the best man should be selected for office without reference to names that had lost their meaning. When he retired from office, it was the universal testimony that Massachusetts had never had a better chief magistrate. His retirement from public life was not made an excuse for abandoning labor where his experience, judgment, and unimpaired energy could be of service. When the town of Worcester became a city in 1848, the first citizen was naturally selected as the first mayor, and its requirements were met with unflinching zeal and fidelity. He was for many years president of the Worcester Agricultural Society, and a regular exhibitor at its annual fairs. He was a Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, a member and counsellor of the American Antiquarian Society, and a member of the Massachusetts Historical Society. The honorary degree of Doctor of Laws was conferred upon him by Williams College in 1824, and by Harvard College in 1826. The last office of a public nature conferred upon him was to give one of the electoral votes of Massachusetts for Abraham Lincoln in 1864, when the exigencies of the country seemed to have renewed his youth, and to have stimulated anew the patriotism which neither time nor his long retirement from its affairs had begun to extinguish.

LINSLEY, REV. JOEL HARVEY, D. D., a Congregational clergyman and college president, born in Cornwall, Vt., July 16, 1790; died in Greenwich, Conn., March 22, 1868. He pursued his preparatory studies for college under the tuition of Rev. Jedediah Brown, pastor of the Congregational Church in Cornwall, entered Middlebury College at the age of seventeen, and graduated in the class of 1811. After spending eighteen months in the study of law, he was appointed tutor in Middlebury College, and remained there two and a half years. In 1815 he was admitted to the bar, and practised law in Middlebury for seven years. His choice, however, had been from the first the ministry, and, having become satisfied in regard to some points of religious experience, he commenced a course of theological study, was licensed in June, 1822, attended lectures at Andover during one summer, and then accepted an appointment as a domestic missionary in South Carolina.

* See the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867 for a list of Presidents from 1848 to 1868, and for an account of the Legislature.

In February, 1824, he was ordained and installed pastor of the South Congregational Church in Hartford, Conn., where he remained for eight years, and then resigned and accepted an appointment to labor for the American Tract Society in the valley of the Mississippi. Before entering upon this work, however, he was called to the Park Street Congregational Church, Boston, where he served as pastor for two years, when his voice failed, and, after ineffectual efforts to regain it, he resigned in 1835. He was at once invited to the presidency of Marietta College, Ohio, then newly incorporated. He filled this office for ten years, during a portion of which time he bestowed much labor in raising funds for the institution. In 1845 he resigned the presidency of the college, and devoted two years to the agency of the Society for the Aid of Western Colleges, making his home in the city of New York. In 1847 he was called to the pastorate of the Second Congregational Church in Greenwich, Conn. In this relation he continued till his death. Dr. Linsley was a man of remarkable mental activity and untiring industry. He acquired knowledge with great rapidity and retained it with tenacity. He sympathized warmly with the young, and was distinguished through life for his courtesy, kindness, and gentleness of disposition. With the exception of some published sermons and occasional addresses, he has left behind him little to perpetuate the memory of his rare abilities.

LIPPE, a principality, belonging to the North-German Confederation. Prince, Leopold, born September 1, 1821; succeeded his father Leopold, January 1, 1851. Area, 438 square miles; population, in 1867, 111,352, against 111,336 in 1864. The population connected with the Evangelical Church was 109,374; Catholics, 2,658; Israelites, 1,125; Dissidents, 16. The budget for 1867 estimated the revenue at 224,905 florins, and the expenditure at 209,146 florins. The public debt, at the close of the year 1866, amounted to 347,755 florins. The army was dissolved on October 1, 1868, and now forms a portion of the 6th Westphalian regiment of infantry.

LIPPE-SCHAUMBURG. (See *SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE*.)

LITERATURE AND LITERARY PROGRESS IN 1868. So far as books published by the trade were concerned, there was some improvement on the business of 1867. The number of books published was a little larger, though the average number of editions was certainly no greater, and perhaps not quite equal to that of the preceding year. There was on the part of most publishers an unwonted timidity in entering upon new enterprises, and the number of authors' books, that is, those published at the expense and risk of the authors instead of the publishers, was considerably beyond any former precedent. There was also manifested a very marked disposition to reprint such works of English authors as

had already gained a reputation abroad, or translations of French or German works already popular, in preference to undertaking the risk of the introduction of new American authors to the public. The whole number of works by new American authors has been much smaller than usual, and of these the greater part, as we have said, are authors' books. Editions of more than one hundred works, manufactured in Great Britain, have been imported the past year, with American imprints, many of them works of high price, from their numerous and costly illustrations, while others were remarkable for their combined excellence and cheapness. The complete works of Dickens, Sir Walter Scott, Thackeray, and Charles Reade, have been published in a great variety of forms, and most of them at very low prices. The "publishers by subscription" have not had, on the whole, a prosperous year; they have, indeed, issued a larger number of books than usual, ninety-one having been published for canvassing agents during the year, but the sales have been smaller than in previous years, and hardly one of them can be called a great success. The great cost of organizing an efficient canvass, and the low price at which the books must be furnished to the agents, require a very considerable sale to pay expenses. No book sold in this way is profitable unless its sale materially exceeds 10,000 copies, and very few return a fair compensation to the publisher from a sale of less than 25,000. A few "subscription books" during the year 1868 have exceeded the last figure, but the greater part have fallen below it.

The entire number of books published in the United States in 1868 was 2,208, an increase of 98 on the number published in 1867. Of these, however, 107 were books manufactured in Europe and imported in editions, with American imprints; of the remaining 2,101 works, 359 were reprints of English books, and 109 translations and reprints of works published on the Continent of Europe.

The most successful of the books published by the trade were, of course, the novels, for though it is far from being true that all, or even any very large proportion of the novels published are successful, yet, owing to the great number of them published, there are more successes than in other classes of publications. Of the six novels which achieved the largest sales during the year, three, Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis's "Dallas Galbraith," Mr. Beecher's "Norwood," and Miss Anna Dickinson's "What Answer," were by American authors, and the last two were first novels; the other three were Auerbach's "On the Heights," translated from the German, Charles Reade's "Foul Play," and Wilkie Collins's "Moonstone." Next to these, perhaps, were Louisa Mühlbach's five additional novels, "Ouida's" (Miss Rame) "Tricotrin," and the cheap edition of Dickens's works published by Messrs.

Appleton. As was natural, it being the year of the presidential election, biographies of the candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency were a conspicuous feature among the biographical works of the year. There had previously appeared in one form or another, either as complete works or as a portion of collective biographies, eight lives of General Grant, but to these were added, during the year 1868, thirty more, of all sizes, from a dime pamphlet to a five-dollar work. Most of them were by writers of established reputation, and all, or nearly all, were well written. Most of them had a brief memoir of Mr. Colfax appended, and he was also the sole subject of two biographical volumes. The number was too great for any of them to be remarkably successful, but the aggregate circulation of the thirty somewhat exceeded 200,000 copies. Of the other candidates there was only a single biography and its abridgment for campaign purposes published, but these attained a very good sale.

In poetry there was no extraordinary success like that of "Kathrina," in the previous year, but Longfellow's "New England Tragedies," and Whittier's "Among the Hills," sold largely, and Fitz-Greene Halleck's collected poems, and two or three reprints published just at the close of the year, were in very considerable demand.

The sale of agricultural and horticultural works has greatly increased within the past few years, and a good book on topics connected with either agriculture, horticulture, or landscape gardening, by a practical man, is perhaps more sure of a protracted and remunerative sale than one on any other topic. This is largely the result of the great increase of agricultural newspapers, agricultural schools and colleges, and the very wide and thorough advertising of these and agricultural books.

Of the 2,208 books published during the year, 125 were devoted to biography, of which 18 were volumes of collective biographies, 85 special or individual, and 12 genealogical works. There were 90 historical works, some of them in several volumes, of which 69 pertained to American history, 12 being general in their character, 17 of Revolutionary or ante-Revolutionary periods, and 40 treating of historical events since the Revolution, and being mostly connected directly or indirectly with the recent war. There were 18 works relative to the history of other countries and times, and 5 ecclesiastical histories.

The number of theological and religious books was 258. Of these 81 pertained to polemic, and 21 to didactic theology; 151 either to religious narratives or instruction on religious topics, and 5 were manuals of devotion. There were 30 works on natural science, of which one was of a general character, 2 treated of natural philosophy, 4 of chemistry, 7 of zoölogy, 2 each of geology and mineralogy, 1 of meteorology, 3 of astronomy, and 8 of ethnology.

There were 5 works on intellectual philosophy and psychology, 6 on mental philosophy and ontology, 6 on ethics, 31 on social science, 30 on politics, political science, science of government, and political economy, 2 on logic and rhetoric, 46 on mechanics and technology, 25 on mathematical science, 61 on education and philology, and 6 on classical literature.

The law treatises, law reports, form-books, etc., numbered 109; the works on medicine, surgery, and hygiene, 97. There were of poetical works and single poems, dramas, essays, and treatises on poetical and dramatic criticism, 122 volumes. Of essays and works on belles-lettres topics, 64. The novels and works of fiction, not juvenile, numbered 320, and the juvenile works, mostly fiction, 434. There were 47 illustrated works and works on the fine arts, 24 of them imported in editions with American imprints.

There were also 47 works on music and collections of music; 43 books of travel, discovery, and adventure; 5 treatises on military and naval science; 173 almanacs, directories, guides, and statistical works; 39 volumes on agriculture, and 10 miscellaneous works.

The *collective* BIOGRAPHIES were all important and valuable compendiums of special classes of persons. They were the following:

- Masonic Biography and Dictionary, by Augustus Row.
- Portraits of Celebrated Women, translated from the French of E. St. Beuve.
- The Penns and Penningtons of the Seventeenth Century, by Maria Webb.
- Lives of the English Cardinals (imported edition), by F. Williams.
- Men of our Times, by Harriet Beecher Stowe.
- Biographical Register of Graduates of West Point, 2 vols., by Major-General G. W. Cullum.
- History of the Thirty-ninth Congress, by W. H. Barnes.
- Men of Our Day, by L. P. Brockett, M. D.
- Dictionary of Congress, by Charles Lanman. Fifth edition, enlarged.
- Eminent Women of the Age, by an Association of Writers.
- The People's Book of Biography, by James Parton.
- Sketches of the Alumni of Dartmouth College, by Rev. G. T. Chapman, D. D.
- Memoirs of those who Suffered for the Faith in Ireland in the Sixteenth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Centuries, by Rev. Miles O'Reilly, D. D.
- Daughters of the Cross.
- Female Biography, by Samuel L. Knapp.
- The Women of the Old Testament.
- Fenian Heroes and Martyrs, edited by John Savage.
- Ohio in the War, by Whitelaw Reid. Two volumes, about 800 pp. 8vo. Vol. I. is devoted to biographies, and Vol. II. to biographies of regiments.
- The Living Pulpit of the Christian Church, with Biographies and Portraits. Edited by W. T. Moore.

The *Individual or Special Biographies* of the year, 85 in number, comprised the thirty biographies of Grant, and of Grant and Colfax, which we have mentioned, and which were by the following authors, some of whom prepared more than one of the smaller "Lives:" Messrs. J. S. C. Abbott, Adams ("Oliver

Optic"), Badeau, Barney, Brisbane, Brockett, Coppée, Crafts, Dana, Deming, Dye, Eddy, J. T. Headley, P. C. Headley, Howland, Larke, Lawrence, Lossing, Mansfield, Phelps, Reid, Richardson, Stiles, Stowe, Willett, and Wilson; two special biographies of Vice-President Colfax, one by Rev. A. Y. Moore, the other by E. W. Martin; a memoir of Messrs. Seymour and Blair, by D. G. Croly, and an abridgment of the same for campaign purposes. There was also a pamphlet life of these candidates published in Philadelphia.

The other important biographies of the year were: the interesting original autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, as prepared by himself, which was unearthed by Hon. John Bigelow, late United States minister to France, who supplied an introduction and notes to it.

A life of Horace Greeley, by James Parton, revised and brought down to the present time by the addition of two hundred pages to his first edition of 1854.

Rev. John S. C. Abbott's *Life of Napoleon III.*, which perhaps might with as much propriety be placed in another class.

The Life, Letters, and Posthumous Works of Fredrika Bremer, edited by her Sister, and translated from the Swedish by F. Milow.

The Life and Campaigns of General Robert E. Lee, by J. D. McCabe, Jr.

A Life of Oliver Cromwell, by C. Adams, D. D.

The Life of John P. Crozer, by J. Wheaton Smith, D. D.

Life and Letters of Wilder Dwight, Lieutenant-Colonel Second Massachusetts Infantry Volunteers.

Fitz-Greene Halleck, a Memorial, by F. S. Cozzens.

Christian Womanhood.

Life of Mrs. M. K. Everts.

A Man in Earnest.

Life of A. H. Conant, by Rev. R. Colyer.

James Mott, a Biographical Sketch, by Mary Grew.

Memoir of William H. Prescott, the Historian, by Charles H. Hart.

Fifty Years in the Itinerant Ministry, by S. Landon.

Life of John Carter, by F. J. Mills.

The Military Services and Public Life of Major-General John Sullivan, by Thomas C. Amory.

Life of A. P. Dostie, by Emily H. Reed.

Illustrations of the Life of Martin Luther, by Dr. Merle D'Aubigné.

The Official Life of Governor John A. Andrew, by A. G. Browne, Jr.

A Memorial of the Right Rev. M. Meade, Bishop of Virginia, by the Right Rev. J. Johns, Bishop of Maryland.

Memoirs and Letters of Jenny C. White Del Bal, by Rhoda E. White.

The Richmond Examiner during the war, or the Writings of John M. Daniel, with Memoir, by his Brother, F. S. Daniel.

The Life of William Forster, edited by Benjamin Seebohm.

Memoirs of Stephen Gullet, edited by Benjamin Seebohm.

Ulrich Zwinglius, the Patriot Reformer, by Rev. W. M. Blackburn.

The Confederate Soldier.

A Memorial Sketch of G. N. and B. W. Harris, by Rev. J. E. Edwards, D. D.

Life of Gustavus Adolphus, by Rev. L. W. Heydenreich.

Sermons by Rev. G. Shepard, D. D., late Professor at Bangor, with a Memorial by Professor D. S. Talcott.

Life of Maximilian I., late Emperor of Mexico, by Frederick Hall.

Memoir of S. Basset, D. D., by L. G. Pray.

Discourse on the Death of Rev. W. Allen, D. D., by W. B. Sprague, D. D.

Life and Times of Robert Emmet, by R. R. Madden.

St. Columba, Apostle of Caledonia, from the French of Count de Montalembert.

The Life of George Stephenson, and of his Son Robert Stephenson, by Samuel Smiles.

The Early Years of the Prince Consort, by Lieutenant-General Sir C. Grey, cheap edition.

A Memoir of Baron Bunsen, chiefly from Family Papers, by the Baroness Bunsen (imported edition).

Life of M. M. Pomeroy (Brick Pomeroy), by Mrs. Mary E. Tucker.

Autobiography of Elder Jacob Knapp.

The Life of J. Davis, by F. H. Alfriend.

Recollections of a Busy Life, by Horace Greeley.

There were also three contributions to Christology, which, though perhaps more appropriately classed under the head of Religious Works, yet, being in biographical form, may be noticed here: "Immanuel; or, the Life of Jesus Christ," by Z. Eddy, D. D.; "The Life of Jesus Christ," by John Fleetwood, D. D., a new and improved edition with notes and corrections by J. Newton Brown, D. D.; and "Jesus of Nazareth, His Life and Teachings," by Rev. Lyman Abbott.

The *Genealogical Works* of the year form a distinct department of biography, and, though not numerous, were important to a class of readers. The following were all of which we have been able to learn:

Genealogy of the Van Brunt Family, by T. G. Bergen.

A Golden Wedding, and the Dinsmore Genealogy.

History of the Bill Family, edited by Ledyard Bill.

Genealogical History of the Lee Family of Virginia and Maryland, from A. D. 1300 to 1866, edited by E. C. Mead.

A Genealogical Record of Several Families bearing the name of Cutler, in the United States, by Rev. Abner Morse.

Descendants of John Guild, Dedham, Mass., by Calvin Guild.

The American Genealogist, being a Directory of Family Histories and Publications, by W. H. Whitmore.

Genealogy of the Spotswood Family in Scotland and Virginia, by C. Campbell.

Some Materials for a Memoir of John Daly Burke, and a Sketch of his only Child, Judge John J. Burke, by C. Campbell.

A Memoir of Rev. N. Ward, with Notices of his Family, by John W. Dean.

The Janes Family, with Notice of Bishop Janes, etc., by Rev. F. Janes.

Genealogy of the Macy Family from 1635 to 1868, by S. J. Macy.

Glover Memorials and Genealogies; John Glover, of Dorchester, and his Descendants, by Anna Glover.

The ninety volumes of *HISTORICAL WORKS* published during the year were more equally distributed among the different subdivisions of history than usual, though of course *American History*, either remote or recent, predominated. The most important works appertaining to *General American History* were the following:

The History of the Great Republic considered from the Christian Stand-point, by Jesse T. Peck, D. D. The Railroads of the United States; their History and Statistics, by H. M. Flint.

New General Atlas, in 54 Quarto Maps, containing 92 maps and plans, with Statistical Tables, by S. A. Mitchell, Jr.

Our Branch and its Tributaries; a History of the N. W. Sanitary Commission, by Mrs. Sarah E. Henshaw.

History of the Sanitary Commission, by Charles J. Stillé, new edition.

History of the American Civil War, by J. W. Draper, M. D., LL. D., Vol. II.

The Pre-Columbian Discovery of America by the Northmen, illustrated by the Translations from the Icelandic Sagas, edited, with Notes and Introduction, by B. F. De Costa.

Of those appertaining to the *Revolutionary Period*, or to the still earlier history of the colonies, the following were the most important:

Historical sketch of the Chatham Artillery during the Confederate Struggle for Independence, by C. C. Jones, Jr.

The Army Correspondence of Colonel J. Laurens in 1777-'78; now first printed from Original Letters addressed to his Father, Henry Laurens. With a Memoir, by W. G. Simms.

Report of a French Protestant Refugee in Boston, 1687. Translated from the French, by E. T. Fisher.

History and General Description of New France, by Rev. P. F. X. de Charlevoix, S. J. Translated, with Notes, by J. G. Shea, LL. D. Three volumes published.

Voyage of the St. John and Arms of Amsterdam, 1659, 1663. With papers on the Slave-Trade under the Dutch. Translated, with Notes, by E. B. O'Callaghan.

A Journal of the Late Actions of the French at Canada, etc., impartially related by Colonel Nicholas Reyard and Lieutenant-Colonel C. Lodowick, London, 1693, reprinted.

Memoirs, Letters, and Journals of Major-General Riedesel, during his Residence in America. Translated from the original German of Max von Eelking, by W. L. Stone, 2 vols., 8vo.

History of the First New Hampshire Regiment in the War of the Revolution, by F. Kidder.

The Fairfaxes of England and America in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries, by E. D. Neill.

Historical Account of Bouquet's Expedition against the Ohio Indians in 1764, with Preface, by F. Parkman, and Translation of Dumas' Biographical Sketch of General Bouquet.

The number of volumes appertaining to the *More Recent History* of the United States, and to the local history of States or towns, is of course considerably larger than any other, though there has been a remarkable diminution of works specially devoted to the late war. The following are the most important works of this class:

Annals of the U. S. Christian Commission, by Rev. L. Moss.

Life among the Mormons and a March to their Zion; with a Chapter on the Indians of the Plains and Mountains of the West, by an Officer of the U. S. Army.

The Great Southwest, or Plain Guide for Emigrants and Capitalists, embracing a Description of the States of Missouri and Kansas, by W. Nicely.

Ohio in the War: her Statesmen, her Generals, and Soldiers, by Whitelaw Reid, 2 vols.

The Decisive Conflicts of the Late Civil War or

Slaveholders' Rebellion, the Pennsylvania-Maryland Campaign of June-July, 1863, by General J. Watts de Peyster.

Oregon and its Institutions, by Rev. G. Hines.

National Map of the Territory of the United States from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean, by W. J. Keeler.

The Tennessee Handbook and Immigrant's Guide, by Hermann Bokum, Commissioner of Immigration.

New Mexico: her Resources, her Necessities for Railroad Communication, her Great Future, by C. P. Clever.

An Historical Discourse at West Brookfield, Mass., one hundred and fiftieth Anniversary of the First Church, by Rev. Samuel Dunham.

New Jersey in the Rebellion: A History of the Services of the Troops and People of New Jersey in aid of the Union Cause, by J. Y. Foster.

Information for Immigrants into the State of Louisiana, by J. C. Cathman, Chief of the Bureau of Immigration.

South Carolina, a Home for the Industrious Immigrant; published, with Supplement, by the Commissioner of Immigration.

The Natural Wealth of California: its History, Geography, Mines, etc., by Titus Fey Cronise.

History of New York City, from the Discovery to the Present Day, by W. L. Stone.

Recollections of the Early Days of the National Guard, comprising Prominent Events in the History of the Seventh Regiment, N. Y. S. M., by an Ex-Orderly Sergeant, a Veteran of the National Guard.

A Picture of the Desolated States, brought up to 1863; with sketches of Grant and Colfax, and the Impeachment Trial, by J. T. Trowbridge and L. P. Brockett.

The Military and Civil History of Connecticut during the War, by W. A. Croft and J. M. Morris.

The History of Woburn, Mass., from 1640 to 1860, by Rev. S. Sewall, with Sketch of the Author by Rev. C. C. Sewall.

Illustrations of the History of Lowell, by Charles Cowles.

History of the Town of Lexington, Mass., to 1868, by Charles Hudson.

The History of Massachusetts in the Civil War, by Wm. Schouler.

The Mariposa Estate, etc., its Past, Present, and Future.

Pictorial History of the Late Civil War. By Benson J. Lossing. Vol. II.

Pictorial History of the Rebellion. By E. Guernsey and H. M. Alden. 2 vols.

The *Histories of other Countries and Times* were generally valuable contributions to English literature, and some of them will be regarded as standard works on their several topics. The following were those of most value:

Legends of the Wars of Ireland, by R. D. Joyce, M. D., with the French in Mexico, by J. F. Elton.

History of the United Netherlands, by J. L. Motley. Vols. III. and IV.

History of Civilization in the Fifth Century; translated from the French of Ozanam, by A. C. Glyn. 2 vols. (Imported edition.)

The History of the Kings of Rome, by T. H. Dyer, LL. D. (Imported edition.)

The Republic of Liberia; its Geography, Climate, Soil, and Productions, with a History of its Early Settlement, by G. S. Stockwell.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew, by Henry White.

History of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, by J. Foster Kirk. 3 vols.

The History of Ireland, from the Treaty of Limerick to the Present Time. Being a Continuation

- of the History of the Abbé MacGeoghegan, by John Mitchel.
- Cameos from English History, Rollo to Edward II., by Miss Yonge.
- Life in the Argentine Republic in the Days of the Tyrants; or, Civilization and Barbarism. From the Spanish of D. F. Sarmiento, with a Biographical Sketch of Sarmiento, by Mrs. Horace Mann.
- The Dutch Reformation in the Sixteenth Century, by W. C. Martyn.
- The Invasion of the Crimea; its Origin and Progress, down to the Death of Lord Raglan. Vol. II.
- Annals of Rural Bengal, by W. W. Hunter. (Imported edition.)
- Greater Britain; a Record of Travel in English-speaking Countries, during 1866-'67, by C. Wentworth Dilke.
- The contributions to *Ecclesiastical History* were much fewer than in past years, and not of remarkable importance. The following were all that were worthy of note:
- History of the Church of Christ in Auburn, by Rev. P. H. Fowler, D. D.
- A Commemorative Discourse on the Completion of the Tower and Spire of the Church of the Holy Trinity, Brooklyn, with Historical Notes, by Rev. T. S. Drowne, D. D.
- A History of the New School, and of the Questions involved in the Disruption of the Presbyterian Church in 1838, by S. J. Baird, D. D.
- A Concise History of the First Baptist Mariners' Church, New York, and its Connection with the great Religious Work in Sweden and Norway, by Mrs. C. H. Putnam.
- Religion, and the Reign of Terror; or the Church during the French Revolution. From the French of E. de Pressensé, by Rev. J. P. Lacroix.
- The number of RELIGIOUS BOOKS was somewhat larger than usual; and though there were no controversies which engrossed very general attention, as in former years, Ritualism being perhaps more prominent than any other, yet the number of *Theological Works* of a *polemic* character was as great as in past years. The following were the most important:
- Sermons of Theism, Atheism, and Popular Theology; new edition, by Theodore Parker.
- Letters on the Divine Trinity, addressed to H. W. Beecher, by Rev. B. F. Barrett.
- The Comedy of Canonization, in Four Scenes.
- Sermons on the Failure of Protestantism, and on Catholicity, by Rev. F. C. Ewer.
- Baptism *versus* Immersion; a Review of the New Testament, by Rev. Geo. B. Jewett.
- Village Sermons on the Baptismal Service, by Rev. John Keble.
- Close Communion, or Open Communion; an Experience and an Argument, by Crammond Kennedy.
- Symbolism; or Exposition of the Doctrinal Differences between Catholics and Protestants, as Evidenced by their Symbolical Writings, by J. A. Moehler. From the German, with Memoir, etc., by J. B. Robertson.
- The Life of Jesus, from the Gospel Record, vindicated and defended against the Attacks of Dr. Strauss, and of Infidelity in general. From the German of Dr. J. F. I. Tafel.
- Theoklesia; or, the Organization and Perpetuity, Conflicts, and Triumphs, of the One Holy Catholic and Apostolic Church, by a Presbyterian of the West.
- The Controversy between True and Pretended Christianity, by Rev. L. T. Townsend.
- Rome and the Popes; translated from the German of Dr. K. Brandes, by Rev. W. J. Wiseman.
- The Comedy of Convocation in the English Church. In two Scenes; edited by Archdeacon Chasuble, D. D.
- A Reply to Rev. John Weiss on "Our Relations with the Spiritual World," by F. T. Lane.
- A Letter from Gerrit Smith to Albert Barnes.
- Ecce Ecclesia; an Essay, showing the Essential Identity of the Church in all Ages.
- The Roman Catholic Church and Free Thought; a Controversy between Archbishop Purcell and Rev. T. Vickers, with Appendix.
- Swedenborgianism depicted in its True Colors; or, a Contrast between the Holy Scriptures and the Writings of Baron Swedenborg, by J. G. Pike.
- Some Thoughts on Low Masses; addressed to Members of Convocation, by Rev. Edward Stuart. (Reprint.)
- A Discussion on the Trinity, between Rev. W. B. H. Beach, of the Christian Denomination, and Rev. Y. Hickey, Presbyterian Minister, Greenville, N. Y.
- A Review of Free-Masonry and Christianity, by a Christian.
- Is it Honest? Eight Questions by Father Hecker; with Answers, by H. Mattison, D. D.
- Analysis of Proof Texts of Dr. J. Müller's System of Theology, by H. B. Smith, D. D.
- A Letter to Rt. Rev. H. Potter, Bishop of New York, as to the Proceedings against Rev. S. H. Tyng, Jr.
- The Plan of Redemption by Our Lord Jesus Christ, carefully examined and argued, etc., by I. C. Wellcome and C. Gould.
- The Practice of Re-baptism in the New Church, Examined by Rev. A. E. Ford.
- Plain Talk of the Protestantism of To-Day; from the French of Monseigneur Segur.
- The Divine Charter of Church Authority; a Sermon by Rev. J. Doughty.
- Congregationalism. What it is; Whence it is; How it Works; Why it is Better than any other Form of Church Government; and its Consequent Demands, by Rev. H. M. Dexter, D. D.
- Are there Romanizing Germs in the Prayer Book? Gropings after Truth; a Life Journey from New England Congregationalism to the One Catholic and Apostolic Church, by Joshua Huntington.
- On the Apostolic and Infallible Authority of the Pope, when Teaching the Faithful, and on his Relations to the General Council, by F. X. Weninger, D. D., S. J.
- The Origin of Christianity, and a Commentary on the Acts of the Apostles, by I. M. Wise.
- The Abduction of Mary Ann Smith by the Roman Catholics, and her Imprisonment in a Nunnery for becoming a Protestant, by Rev. H. Mattison, D. D.
- The Present Age and Inner Life; Ancient and Modern Spiritual Mysteries Classified and Explained, by A. J. Davis.
- Of *Theological Works* of a *Didactic Character*, the following were the principal:
- The Revelation of Law in Scripture, by Patrick Fairbairn, D. D. (Imported edition.)
- The Unconscious Truth of the Four Gospels, by Rev. W. H. Furness, D. D.
- Problems of the Age, with Studies in St. Augustine on Kindred Topics, by Rev. A. F. Hewit.
- The Worship of Jesus in its Past and Present Aspects, by Samuel Johnson.
- Theological Index; References to the Principal Works in every Department of Religious Literature, by Howard Malcom, D. D., LL. D.
- An Exposition of the Scheme of Redemption, by Rev. R. Milligan.
- Reason and Revelation, by Rev. R. Milligan.

- The Mind of Francis de Sales; a Book on Religious Life, from the Original French.
- Angelic Wisdom concerning the Divine Providence, by Emanuel Swedenborg, from the Original Latin.
- The Modern Representations of the Life of Jesus, by Dr. G. Uhlhorn, from the German.
- Where is the City, by "Israel Knight."
- The Augsburg Confession, literally translated from the Original Latin, with the General Creeds and Introduction, Notes, and Index, by Professor C. P. Krauth, D. D.
- Particular Providence, by Rev. William R. Gordon.
- Discussions in Theology, by Rev. T. H. Skinner.
- Lectures on Reason and Revelation, by Rev. T. S. Preston.
- A Peep into Sacred Tradition; containing the Condensed Evidence on both sides of the most Important Questions known to Man, etc., by Rev. O. Abbott.
- God and Man, by the Light of Nature. A Sketch in Outline, by "El. Bib."
- Presbyterian Union Convention, held in Philadelphia, November 6, 1867, Minutes and Phonographic Report.
- Liberal Views of the Ministry, in Harmony with the Bible, the Prayer Book, and the Canons. A Sermon, by Rev. K. Newton, D. D.
- The Bible Doctrine of Immortality, by H. Mattison, D. D.
- A Manual of Rites and Ritual, by Rev. J. J. El-mendorf.
- Mary the Virgin, as Commemorated in the Church of Christ, by Rev. S. Seabury, D. D., with an Essay on "Who was James, the Lord's Brother," by Rev. M. Mahan, D. D.
- A Catechism of the Ancient Schools, Religious and Moral, with References from Scripture, by H. Berrian.
- Lectures on Christian Theology, by E. Pond, D. D.
- On Death or Disembodied Man, the World of Spirits, etc., by Dr. P. B. Randolph.
- The Last Judgment and Second Coming of the Lord, Illustrated; a Prize Essay, by Rev. E. B. Rendell.
- Notes on the Rubrics of the Roman Ritual, regarding the Sacraments in General, Baptism, the Eucharist, and Extreme Unction, by Rev. J. O'Kane. (Imported edition.)
- The Banquet of Theodulus; or the Reunion of the Different Christian Communions, by the late Baron de Starck.
- First Lessons in Theology, by Rev. A. Ritchie.
- Gems from the Writings of Swedenborg, with a Memoir, by Rev. O. P. Hiller.
- The Protestant Episcopal Church; What She Has, What She Lacks, and What is Her True Position with Reference to other Churches.
- Resurrection Destinies; an Exposition of 1 Cor. xv. 21-23, by D. D. Buck, D. D.
- The Dying Command of Christ; or, the Duty of Believers to celebrate weekly the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, by the author of "God is Love."
- The Young Friend's Manual, a Statement of the Doctrines, etc., of Friends, and the Principles of that Society, by B. Hallowell.
- Discipline of the Methodist Episcopal Church, with an Appendix.
- Journal of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church at Chicago, 1868, edited by Rev. W. L. Harris, D. D.
- Ninety-five Theses for the Seventh Centennial Jubilee of the Reformation.
- The Atonement; an Examination of a Remedial System in the Light of Nature and Revelation, by J. H. Waggoner.
- Who is He? An Appeal to those who regard with any Doubt the name of Jesus, by S. F. Smiley.
- The Canon of Holy Scripture, with Remarks upon King James's Version, the Latin Vulgate, and the Douay Bible, by M. H. Henderson, D. D.
- Review of the Thirty-nine Articles, by a Layman of the Protestant Episcopal Church.
- The Living Present and the Dead Past; or, God made Manifest in Living Men and Women, as He was in Christ Jesus, by H. C. Wright.
- The Holy Communion, its Philosophy, Theology, and Practice, by J. B. Dalgairns.
- The number of *Religious Books not Theological*, but of a *Didactic or Narrative* character, was large beyond all former precedent. In this sub-class are not included religious juveniles, which form a separate class. The following titles embrace the most important, though by no means all the volumes appertaining to this class issued during the year:
- The Sabbath of Life, by R. D. Addington.
- Notes, Explanatory, Critical, and Practical, on the Book of Psalms, vol. I., by Rev. Albert Barnes, D. D.
- Sermons by Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, 2 vols.
- Isaiah, with Notes, designed for both Pastor and People, by Rev. Henry Cowles.
- Cyclopedia of Biblical, Theological, and Ecclesiastical Literature. Prepared by Rev. J. McClintock, D. D., and James Strong, S. T. D. Vol. II. C. D.
- Dr. William Smith's Dictionary of the Bible, Unabridged, edited by H. B. Hackett, D. D., and E. Abbot, A. M. Vol. I.
- The Comprehensive Dictionary of the Bible, compiled from the Works of Smith, Kitto, Davidson, Ayre, etc., by Rev. S. W. Barnum, in 1 vol.
- The Family Companion, a Book of Sermons on Various Subjects, by Rev. E. Goodwin.
- Biblical Biography, by Rev. T. G. Beharrell.
- Sermons, with a History of Surrey Chapel, by Rev. Newman Hall.
- Discipline, and other Sermons, by Charles Kingsley.
- The Water of Life, and other Sermons, by Rev. Charles Kingsley. (Imported edition.)
- David, the King of Israel, from the German of Rev. Fred. W. Krummacher.
- Commentary on the Holy Scriptures, from the German of John P. Lange, D. D., with Additional Notes, Original and Selected, by Eminent American Divines, edited by Philip Schaff, D. D., Professor, etc., 3 vols., VI. and VII. of the New Testament, and vol. I. of the Old Testament.
- Letters to a Man of the World, from the French of J. F. E. Le Boys des Guays.
- Sermons before the University of Oxford, by Rev. H. P. Liddon, D. D.
- The Table-Talk of Martin Luther, from the German.
- Watchwords from the Warfare of Life, from Martin Luther. Translated and Arranged by the Author of "The Schönberg-Cotta Family" (Mrs. Charles).
- Wind-wafted Seed, by Norman McLeod, D. D., and Thomas Guthrie, D. D.
- The Grounds and Object of Hope for Mankind, by Rev. F. D. Maurice.
- Faith and Freedom in America, a Sermon, by Rev. S. Osmond.
- The Prodigal Son, Four Discourses, by Rev. W. Morley Punshon.
- The Pearl of Parables, by Rev. James Hamilton, D. D.
- The Epistle to the Hebrews, with Explanation and Notes, and a Translation of the Epistle, by Rev. Henry J. Ripley, D. D.
- The New Testament History, with Maps and Illustrations, by Dr. William Smith.

Gleaning among the Sheaves, by Rev. C. H. Spurgeon.

Seeds and Sheaves; or, Words of Scripture, their History and Fruits, by Rev. A. C. Thompson, D. D.

A Suggestive Commentary on the New Testament, by Rev. W. H. Van Doren. St. Luke. 2 vols.

Conversations of Christ with Representative Men, by Rev. William Adams, D. D.

The Book of Jeremiah and the Lamentations, from the Original Hebrew, with a Commentary, by E. Henderson, D. D.

The Hand of Jesus, by Rev. Jeremiah Chaplin, D. D.

The Heritage of Peace; or, Christ our Life, by Rev. T. S. Childs, D. D.

Devotional Thoughts of Eminent Divines, Compiled by Rev. D. A. Harsha.

Search after Truth, Address to Young Men, by Rev. G. W. Eggleston.

Gospel Treasury and Expository Harmony of the Four Evangelists, in the Words of the Authorized Version, compiled by R. Mimpriss, 2 vols. in one, with Maps and Plates (imported edition), a work of great value.

The Unnoticed Things of Scripture, by Rt. Rev. W. Ingraham Kip.

Glimpses of Christ in Holy Scripture, by Thomas Laurie, D. D.

Short Sermons for Children, by John N. Norton.

Notes of the Christian Life, a Selection of Sermons, by Rev. H. R. Reynolds.

The Christian Household, Embracing the Christian Home, Husband, Wife, Father, Mother, Child, Brother, and Sister, by Rev. G. S. Weaver.

Words of Hope, compiled by Mrs. C. A. Means.

An Old Man's Prayer, by G. M. Baker.

Light and Truth; or, Bible Thoughts and Themes, by H. Bonar, D. D. (imported edition).

Arrows from my Quiver, selected from the Private Papers of Rev. J. Caughey, Introduction by Rev. D. Wise, D. D.

Glimpses of Life in Soul-saving; Selections from the Journal, etc., of Rev. J. Caughey. Introduction by Rev. D. Wise, D. D.

Binding and Loosing, Two Sermons, by Rev. O. B. Frothingham.

Memories of Olivet, by J. R. Macduff, D. D. (imported edition).

The Life of God in the Soul of Man, by Rev. H. Scougal.

The Holy Bible. Translated from the Vulgate. The Old Testament in the Douay Translation, and the New Testament in the Rheims Translation, with Annotations, References, etc.

The New Testament. The Greek Text of Scholz, the Readings of Griesbach, and the Variations of the Editions of Stephens, Beza, and Elzevir, with the English Authorized Version, and its Marginal Renderings. With a Greek-English Lexicon, edited by Rev. T. S. Green.

Nearing Home, Comforts and Counsels for the Aged. Sermons preached on Several Occasions, by Robert South, D. D., vol. ii.

The Solitude of Christ, by Austin Phelps, D. D.

Prayer the Key to Salvation, by Michael Muller.

Our Children in Heaven, by W. H. Holcombe, M. D.

The Feast Enjoyed. Illustrations of the Lord's Supper, by Rev. S. H. Tyng, D. D.

God's Way of Peace, a Book for the Anxious, by H. Bonar, D. D.

The Life of the Saviour, by Henry Ware, Jr., sixth edition.

Tales from the Diary of a Sister of Mercy, by C. M. Brane.

The Divine Teacher; being the Recorded Sayings of Our Lord Jesus Christ (imported edition).

Gems from the Sacred Mine.

Notes on the Books of Genesis, Exodus, and Leviticus, by C. H. Mackintosh, 3 vols.

Christian Separation from the World: its Philosophy, Obligation, and Extent, with Especial Reference to Popular Amusements, by Rev. S. H. Platt. Introduction by Rev. T. L. Cuyler, D. D. The Literary Character of the Bible, a Lecture by H. B. Swoope.

Christianity from God, by A. Tobey.

Nature's God and His Memorial; a Series of Four Sermons on the Sabbath, by H. Wardner.

Ten Years on the Euphrates, or Primitive Missionary Policy illustrated, by Rev. C. H. Wheeler.

Shocks from the Battery: or, Sermons and Sayings, by Rev. B. Pomeroy.

The Book of Genesis; the Common Version, revised for the American Bible Union, with Explanatory Notes, by Thomas J. Conant, D. D.

The Gospel in the Trees; with Pulpit Opinions on Common Things, by Rev. Alexander Clark.

Life and Thoughts of John Foster, by W. W. Everts, D. D.

Ten Commandments and Thirteen Creeds; or Chief Principles of the Jewish Religion, with Commentaries from Henry's Class-Book.

Power with God and Men, by Rev. John Levington.

The Sword that Cuts; the Fire that Burns; by Rev. D. F. Newton.

The Word of God Opened: its Inspiration, Canon, and Interpretation, considered and illustrated, by Rev. B. K. Peirce.

Witnessing for Jesus in the Homes of the Poor, with Introduction by Rev. J. C. Smith, D. D.

The Beauty of Holiness, illustrated by 2,000 Reflective Passages from the Sacred Writings, by the Editor of "Truth Illustrated by Great Authors" (imported edition).

Letters addressed to my Sister Mourners, by "Fellowship."

Christian Work in Zulu Land.

Glad Tidings; or, Walks with the Wonderful, by a Lover of the Word, Introduction by Rev. W. L. Parsons, D. D.

The Words of the Lord Jesus, by R. Stier, translated chiefly by Rev. W. B. Pope, revised by J. Strong, S. T. D., and Rev. H. B. Smith, D. D.

3 vols.

Life Scenes from the Old Testament, by Rev. G. Jones.

The Age-Question; or, A Plea for Christian Union, by Rev. A. Nevin, D. D.

The Works of Rev. A. O'Leary, O. S. F., edited by a Clergyman of Massachusetts.

The Translated Prophet, by Rev. J. M. Lowrie.

Pivot Words of Scripture, by Rev. P. B. Power (reprint).

A Believer's Testimony to the Work of Christ and the Power of His Resurrection.

The Kingdom of Satan, by A. Blauvelt.

The Son of Man, by T. Wickes, D. D.

The Promises of God, considered in their Nature, Source, etc., by E. C. Wines, D. D., LL. D.

Sermons by H. W. Beecher, Plymouth Church, revised by their Author, 2 vols.

Bringing in Sheaves, by Rev. A. B. Earle.

Studies of Character from the Old Testament, by Rev. T. Guthrie, D. D. (imported edition).

The Court and Camp of David, by Rev. P. C. Headley.

Cradle Lands, by Lady Herbert.

City Missions, by Rev. W. A. McVickar.

The City of God, by Rev. E. H. Nevin, D. D.

The Gates Ajar, by Miss E. S. Phelps.

Gleanings among the Sheaves, by Rev. C. H. Spurgeon.

Seekers after God, by Rev. F. W. Farrar (imported edition).

Sermons preached in the Chapel of the Church of St. Matthias in Philadelphia, by Rev. R. G. Chase, A. M., late Rector.

The Empty Crib: a Memorial of Little Georgie, with Words of Consolation for Bereaved Parents, by Rev. T. L. Cuyler, D. D.

There were also a few works of a strictly *Devotional* character, which deserve a place by themselves. The following were the principal of these:

The Blessed Eucharist, our Greatest Treasure, by Rev. M. Muller.

Eleven short Addresses during a Retreat of the Companions of the Love of Jesus, engaged in a Perpetual Intercession for the Conversion of Sinners, by Rev. E. B. Pusey, D. D. (reprint).

Aid to those who pray in Private, by Rev. D. F. Sprigg.

The Spirit of St. Vincent de Paul: or, a Holy Model, translated from the French of A. J. Ansart, by the Sisters of Charity, N. Y.

An Epistle of Jesus Christ to the Faithful Soul that is Devotedly Affected toward Him, by J. Lanspergius, translated from the Latin by the Earl of Arundel (imported edition).

Little Month of St. Joseph, by Rev. R. de Chazournes, S. J., translated from the French.

A Catechism of the Vows for the Use of Persons consecrated to God on the Religious State, by Rev. Father Peter Cotel, S. J., translated from the French.

The Child's Month of Mary, by the Author of St. Francis and the Franciscans.

Family Prayers for Four Weeks, edited by Rev. John Hall.

Occasional Services and Prayers used by the Students of the General Theological Seminary.

Catechism on the Lord's Prayer, for Parents, Teachers, and Ghardians, by J. P. Perry.

Manual of Piety, designed to lead Young Persons to a Devout Communion with their God and Saviour, edited by Rev. W. Mason (reprint).

Services for Congregational Worship (Unitarian).

The works on *Physical Science* were somewhat more numerous than in former years, and some of them of great value.

The only volume covering the whole circle of the physical sciences was:

Annual of Scientific Discovery; or, Year-book of Facts in Science and Art, for 1868. Edited by S. Kneeland, M. D.

In *Natural Philosophy* there was but one important volume:

A Treatise on Optics; or, Light and Sight Theoretically and Practically Treated, by E. Nugent, C. E.

In *Chemistry* there were eight volumes, some belonging rather, perhaps, to Chemical Technology:

A Manual of Inorganic Chemistry, by C. W. Eliot and F. H. Storer.

The Blowpipe; a System of Instructions in its Practical Use for the Examination of Metallic Combinations, by G. W. Plympton.

Lessons in Elementary Chemistry; Inorganic and Organic, by H. E. Roscoe.

A Practical Guide for the Perfumer, by Prof. H. E. Dussauce.

On the Original Formation of Gold from its Silicious and Sulphurous Oxide, by B. Hardinge.

Manual of Inorganic Chemistry for Students, by Dudley Peet, M. D.

Elements of Chemistry, Theoretical and Practical, by W. A. Miller (imported edition).

Hand-book of Chemistry, by W. J. Kolfe and J. A. Gillet.

In *Zoology*, including all its branches, as well as the practical details of hunting, fishing, and trapping, and horse-training, there were sixteen volumes, all of considerable importance:

The Birds of North America, by Daniel Giraud Elliot. Nine Parts already issued.

The American Beaver and his Works, by Lewis H. Morgan.

The Ocean World—being a Description of the Sea and its Living Inhabitants; from the French of Louis Figuier (imported edition).

The Insect World; a Popular Account of the Orders of Insects. From the French of L. Figuier.

Horse Portraiture: Breeding, Rearing, and Training Trotters; their Management in the Stable, on the Track, etc., by J. C. Simpson.

Cecil's Book of Beasts, by S. H. Peabody, M. A.

The Economy of the Animal Kingdom, considered Anatomically, Physically, and Physiologically, by Emanuel Swedenborg. Translated by Rev. A. Clissold.

The Butterflies of North America. With Colored Drawings and Illustrations, by W. H. Edwards.

A Guide to the Study of Insects, and a Treatise on those injurious and beneficial to Crops, by A. S. Packard, Jr., M. D.

What Makes Me Grow? or, Walks and Talks with Amy Dudley.

Fur, Fin, and Feather; Containing the Game Laws of the United States and Canada.

The Hunter's Guide and Trapper's Companion.

American Fish-Culture, by T. Norris.

The Trotting Horse of America: How to Train and Drive him, by Hiram Woodruff.

The Hunter and Trapper, by H. Thrasher.

The History of the Robins, by Mrs. Trimmer (imported edition).

Of *Geographical Works*, exclusive of those of travel and adventure, which come under another class, there were over twenty of varying importance. The principal were:

Kansas and the Country beyond on the Line of the Union Pacific Railroad, East Division, from the Missouri to the Pacific Ocean, by Josiah Copley.

Colton's Journal of Geography for 1868.

Early Recollections of Newport, R. I., from 1793 to 1811, by G. G. Channing.

The Earth and its Inhabitants. Intermediate Geography, by A. Guyot.

The Great Southwest; or, Plain Guide for Emigrants and Capitalists, embracing a Description of the States of Missouri, and Kansas, etc., etc., by W. Nicely.

First Lessons in Geography, by M. G. Maury.

The World We Live in, by M. G. Maury.

The Agriculture and Industry of Kennebec County, Maine, with Notes upon its History and Natural History, by S. L. Boardman.

Chicago and Her Churches, by G. S. Phillips.

Walling's Guides of Various Railway and Steamboat Routes.

A Presentation of Causes tending to fix the Position of the Future Great City of the World in the Central Plain of North America, by J. W. Scott.

The City of New York; a Complete Guide, with Descriptive Sketches, by H. F. Walling.

Polar Magnetism; a Paper read before the North American Institute, by John A. Parker.

The Great Lakes, or Inland Seas of America, with a Guide to the Upper Mississippi River, by J. Disturnell.

Elements of Physical Geography, by J. Brocklesby, A. M.

In *Mineralogy* and *Geology* there were but three volumes, all of them valuable:

Sulphurets; What they are, how Concentrated, how Assayed, and how Worked. With a Chapter on the Blowpipe Assay of Minerals, by W. Barstow, M. D.

A System of Mineralogy; Descriptive Mineralogy,

comprising the most Recent Discoveries, by J. D. Dana, aided by G. J. Brush.
The Past and Future of our Planet; or, Geology, by W. Denton.

Two important works on *Meteorology* were issued during the year:

A Treatise on Meteorology; with a Collection of Meteorological Tables, by E. Loomis, LL. D.
On the use of the Barometer on Surveys and Reconnoissances. Part 1. Meteorology in its Connection with Hypsometry. Part 2. Barometric Hypsometry, by R. S. Williamson, Brevet-Lieutenant-Colonel, U. S. A.

Five treatises on *Astronomy*, one popular, three elementary, and one of higher astronomy, were the contributions of the year to this science.

Theoretical Astronomy, or the Motions of the Heavenly Bodies, by J. C. Watson, Prof., etc.
A Fourteen Weeks' Course in Descriptive Astronomy, by J. D. Steele.
A Compendium of Astronomy, by Denison Olmstead; revised by E. S. Snell, LL. D.
Ecce Cælum; or, Parish Astronomy. In Six Lectures, by a Connecticut Pastor.
A New Manual of the Elements of Astronomy: Descriptive and Mathematical, by H. Kiddle.

In *Botany* there were but two volumes, and those rather imaginative than scientific.

The Trees of Old England, by Leo H. Grindon.
The Book of Evergreens: a Practical Treatise on the Coniferae, by J. Hoopes.

Four volumes treated of *Ethnological* questions:

The Negro: What is his Ethnological Status? by Ariel.
Man's Origin and Destiny, sketched from the Platform of the Sciences. Lowell Institute Lectures, by J. P. Lesley.
The Myths of the New World: a Treatise on the Symbolism and Mythology of the Red Race in America, by D. G. Brinton, M. D.
Man: Where, Whence, and Whither? A Glance at Man in his Natural History Relations, by D. Page, LL. D.

In the department of *Intellectual Philosophy* and *Psychology*, with which have been classed the publications of the Spiritualistic theorists, and the professed revelations of Planchette, we have:

The Dervishes: or, Oriental Spiritualism, by J. P. Brown (imported edition).
Memoranda of Persons, Places, and Events: comprising Authentic Facts, Visions, Impressions, Discoveries, in Magnetism, Clairvoyance, Spiritualism. Also Quotations from the Opposition, by A. J. Davis.
The Progress of Philosophy in the Past and in the Future, by S. Tyler, LL. D.
Man and his Relations: illustrating the Influences of the Mind on the Body, the Relations of the Faculties to the Organs, and the Phenomena of the External World, by Prof. S. B. Brittan, M. D.
Three Voices, by W. S. Barlow.
Curious Myths of the Middle Ages, by S. Baring Gould; Second Series (imported edition).
The Spirituelle; or, Directions in Development, by Abbé M. L. Ferree.
Planchette's Diary, by Kate M. Field.
Mediumship: its Laws and Conditions. With Brief Instructions for the Formation of Spirit Circles, by J. H. Powell.

Revelations of the Great Modern Mystery, Planchette, with Theories respecting it.
Tablets, by A. B. Alcott.
The Science of Knowledge, by J. G. Fichte. From the German.
History and its Philosophy, by C. S. Henry, D. D.

The works on *Mental and Moral Philosophy* and *Ontology* were but few, but all of them of high character:

Mental Science; a Compendium of Psychology and the History of Philosophy, by A. Bain.
Essays Philosophical and Theological, by J. Martineau. Two vols.
The Human Intellect; with an Introduction upon Psychology and the Soul, by Noah Porter, D. D.

Those on *Ethics* were not much more numerous, and several of them were occupied with a single phase of ethical teaching, the discussion of temperance in the use of liquors and tobacco. They were:

The Bible Rule of Temperance: Total Abstinence from all Intoxicating Drink, by G. Duffield, M. D.
The Temperance Doctor, by Mary D. Chellis.
New York Sunday-School Institute. New York, February 2-7, 1868. Proceedings and Addresses.
Moral Uses of Dark Things, by Horace Bushnell.
Will the Coming Man Drink Wine? and Does Smoking Pay? by James Parton.
Tobacco and Alcohol. 1. It does Pay to Smoke. 2. The Coming Man will Drink Wine, by J. Fiske.
Love as a Law, by Mark Hopkins, M. D., D. D., LL. D.

The topics coming properly under the head of *Social Science* were more fully treated. The following are the principal works of this class:

Unhappy Marriages, by A. B. Child, M. D.
Sexology as the Philosophy of Life, implying Social Organization and Government, by Mrs. Elizabeth O. G. Willard.
Social and Political Dependence of Women, by Mrs. John Stuart Mill.
White Supremacy and Negro Subordination; or, Negroes a Subordinate Race, etc., by J. H. Van Evrie, M. D.
Suburban Homes for our Business Men. The Country and Inducements on the Line of the Erie Railway, by H. T. Williams.
Provision for the Chronic Insane Poor, by Dr. John B. Chapin.
Remarks on the Care and Treatment of the Chronic Insane Poor, by Dr. G. Cook.
Provision for the Insane Poor of the State of New York, by G. Cook, M. D.
A Woman's Reasons why Women should not Vote, by Cora Clement.
Die Geschichte von Einem Bissen Brod, von J. Macé, und D. L.—
The Law of Human Increase; or, Population based on Physiology and Psychology, by N. Allen, M. D.
Lectures on Ventilation: Being a Course before the Franklin Institute of Philadelphia, by L. W. Leeds.
Will the People of the United States be benefited by an International Copyright Law? by F. Gerhard.
The Adamic Race: Reply to Ariel, Drs. Young and Blackie on the Negro, by M. S.
City Missions, by Rev. W. A. McVickar.
Marrying by Lot: a Tale of the Primitive Moravians, by Charlotte B. Mortimer.
The Mystery Finished! The Negro has a Soul, etc.
What Shall We Eat? A Manual for Housekeepers.

The Charities of New York, Brooklyn, and Staten Island, by H. S. Cammann and H. N. Camp.
 Fortunes for Working-Men: a New and Sure Way to accumulate Property. Recently discovered by A. T. Peck.
 Prison Hygiene; an Essay prepared at the Request of the Prison Association of New York, by T. H. Griscom, M. D.
 The Illustrated Annual of Phrenology and Physiognomy, by S. R. Wells.
 The Philosophy of Domestic Life, by Dr. W. H. Byford.
 The Relation of the Legal Profession to Society, by G. W. Brown.
 Plain Thoughts on the Art of Living, by Rev. W. Gladden.
 A Counter-Irritant, by Gail Hamilton (Miss M. A. Dodge).
 Modern Women and What is Said of Them. Introduction by Mrs. Lucia G. Calhoun.
 About Women, Love, and Marriage, by Frederick Saunders.
 Essays on Men and Manners, by Shenstone.
 The Chimney Corner, by Mrs. H. B. Stowe.

We have classed together works on **POLITICAL ECONOMY, POLITICS, AND POLITICAL SCIENCE, FINANCE, AND SCIENCE OF GOVERNMENT.** The class is comprehensive, but it is difficult in some instances to draw the line, and the connection seemed sufficiently close to justify such an arrangement. The most important works under these heads were:

Ekkoes from Kentucky, by D. R. Locke (Petroleum V. Nasby).
 Proceedings of the Tammany Society at laying the Corner-Stone of their New Hall, with a History of the Society.
 The American Cyclops, the Hero of New Orleans, and Spoiler of Silver Spoons, by Pasquino.
 Letters on International Copyright, by H. C. Carey.
 The American Citizen, by W. Divoll.
 A Plea for Impartial Suffrage, by a Lawyer of Illinois.
 Time and Tide, by Weare and Tyne: Twenty-five Letters to a Working-man of Sunderland, on the Laws of Work, by John Ruskin.
 A Review of the Financial Situation of our Country, by C. P. Williams.
 The Historical Relations between England and Ireland, by W. B. Walsh.
 The Republics of the Western Hemisphere, and the Monroe Doctrine, by W. B. Walsh.
 History of the Thirty-ninth Congress of the United States, by W. H. Barnes.
 The Constitution of the United States Defined and carefully Annotated, by George W. Paschal.
 Resumption of Specie Payments; and the Dangers which Threaten Modern Civilization, by A. H. Simonin.
 Our Form of Government and the Problems of the Future, by A. E. Kruger.
 Ireland: Liberty the Price of Her Martyrs' Blood, by Rev. G. W. Pepper.
 History of the Reconstruction Measures of the XXXIXth and XLth Congresses, 1865-1868, by Henry Wilson.
 Important to the Bondholders of the United States: a New Plan to resume Specie Payments and pay the National Debt, by G. W. Hewes.
 A Constitutional View of the Late War between the States, by A. H. Stephens. 2 vols.
 The Terrible Mysteries of the Ku-klux Klan; a Full Exposé, etc., by Scalpel, M. D.
 The American Annual Cyclopaedia for 1867.
 The National Hand-book of Facts and Figures, Historical, Documentary, Statistical, and Political; with a Chronology of the Rebellion.

Democracy in the United States: What it has Done, What it is Doing, and What it will Do, by R. H. Gillett.
 The Restoration of the Currency, by J. S. Pike.
 The Financial Problem: being Suggestions on the Money, Paper Currency, Public Revenue, and Debt of the United States, by Mercator.
 The Lost Cause Regained, by E. A. Pollard.
 Manual of the Railroads of the United States for 1868-'69, showing their Mileage, Stocks, Bonds, etc., etc., with a Sketch of their Rise, Progress, Influence, etc. With an Appendix, containing an Analysis of the Debts of the United States and of the States, by H. V. Poor.
 The New Yankee Doodle: being an Account of the Little Difficulty in the Family of Uncle Sam, by T. Trumbull.
 The Position and Prospects of the United States on Finance, Currency, and Commerce. With the Financial Policy of Massachusetts.
 On the Currency, by George H. Gordon.
 The Sovereignty of the People, by W. B. Greene.
 Senator Sherman's Fallacies; or, Honesty the Best Policy, by E. A.
 A Political Manual for the Campaign of 1868, for the New-England States, by S. A. McPhetres.
 New Sharp Threshing Instrument having Teeth.
 The Negro at Home; an Inquiry after his Capacity for Self-Government and the Government of Whites, etc., by Lindley Spring.
 The Story of the Kearsarge and Alabama.
 An Analysis of the Constitution of the United States, by Calvin Townsend.
 The Detectives' Manual and Officers' Guide. With Official Lists of U. S. State, County, and Canadian Officers; Criminals liable to Arrest; Summary of Property Stolen, etc., etc., by E. Chapin.
 General Grant's Lady Detective. A Most Singular Narrative.
 Essays on the Progress of Nations in Civilization, Productive Industry, Wealth, and Population, by Ezra C. Seaman. Second Series.
 Outlines of the U. S. Government, its Origin, Franchises, Departments, etc., by A. Willis.
 The American Citizen's Manual: Constitution, Declaration of Independence, Washington's Farewell Address, Emancipation Proclamation.
 Lessons in Political Economy, for Schools and Colleges, by J. T. Champlin, D. D.
 The Negroes in Negroland; in America; Generally. Also the Several Races of White Men, etc. A Compilation, by H. R. Helper.
 The House that Jeff Built.
 A Political Manual for 1868: including a Classified Survey of the Important Executive, Legislative, Politico-National, and General Facts of the Period from April 1, 1867, to July 15, 1868, by E. McPherson.
 The Instrument of Association: A Manual of Currency, by G. A. Potter.
 No Female Suffrage; Theology, Logic, Anatomy, Physiology, and Philology united to establish the Truism that Woman is no Human Being, by Attila.
 The Acts of Kings: a Biblical Narrative of the Acts of the First and Second Kings of the First Province, once Virginia, by J. M. Hanna.
 How to furnish a Dwelling-House on Small Means, by Mrs. Warren.
 The Ermine in the Ring: A History of the Wood-Lease case.
 Speeches of the Hon. W. Y. Gholson, on the Payment of the Principal of the National Debt, and on the Reconstruction of the Southern States.
 Treatise on the Constitutional Limitations which rest upon the Legislative Power of the States of the American Union, by T. M. Cooley.
 Text-Book for the Republican Campaign: with Political, Commercial, and Financial Information.

Capital and Labor. Why should the Laboring Man be poor, while the Idler is rich? by Truman Beeman.

Fragments of Political Science on Nationalism and Internationalism, by Francis Lieber, LL. D.

Suffrage for Women: the Reasons why, by Lois Waisbrooker.

Essays on Political Organization. Submitted for the Prizes offered by the Union League of Philadelphia.

Resumption of Specie Payments. Enforced Contraction of the Currency will cause Distress and Panic, etc., by R. T. Paine, Jr.

The Department of *Mechanical Science and Technology* is always large, and increases with each year, in part, perhaps, from the impatience of our people of acquiring their knowledge of any art or trade by the long road of years of apprenticeship, when a theoretical acquaintance with it can be gained so much more expeditiously by means of text-books. The following were the most important books of this department:

How shall we Paint our Houses? The Art of House-Painting, by J. W. Masury.

Five Hundred Employments adapted to Women. With the Average Rate of Pay in each, by Miss Virginia Penney.

The Wine-Maker's Manual: A Guide to the Manufacturers of Still and Sparkling Wines, etc., by Charles Reemelin.

American Houses. Designs for Rural Buildings, by Samuel Sloan, Architect.

American Engineering, Illustrated, by G. Weissenborn.

A Treatise on the Metallurgy of Iron: Containing Outlines of the History of the Iron Manufacture, Methods of Assay, Analysis of Iron Ores, etc. With Appendix on Martin's Process of Making Steel, by H. Bauerman.

Recent Improvements in the Steam-Engine; being a Supplement to the "Catechism of the Steam-Engine," by T. Bourne (imported edition).

Cabinet-Maker's Album of Furniture. Forty-eight Engraved Plates.

Gothic Album for Cabinet-Makers: A Collection of Designs for Gothic Furniture. Twenty-three Engraved Plates.

On the Construction of Iron Roofs, by F. Campin.

Conner's Navigation Simplified: A Manual of Instruction in Navigation as Practised at Sea.

Dart's Freight Computations. For Every Mode of Transportation and Every Class of Storage.

The Modern Geometrical Stair-Builders Guide, by Simon De Graff. Twenty-two Plates.

The Mechanic's Tool-Book; with Practical Directions for the Use of Machinists, Iron-Workers, etc., by W. B. Harrison.

Manual of United States Surveying; with an Appendix of Information on Entering, Locating, Purchasing, and Settling Lands, by J. H. Hawes.

A Hand-Book of Practical Gauging for the Use of Beginners; with Instructions for the Use of Sides, Hydrometer, etc., by J. B. Keene.

A Treatise on Steel: Comprising its Theory, Metallurgy, Properties, Practical Working, and Use, by M. H. C. Landrin. Translated, with an Appendix on the Bessemer and Martin Processes for Manufacturing Steel, by A. A. Fesquet.

The Lathe and its Uses: or, Instruction in the Art of Turning Wood and Metal (imported edition).

The Practical Stair-Builders: a Complete Treatise on the Art of Building Stairs and Hand-Rails; for Carpenters and Builders, by C. E. Loth.

Distillation Brewing, and Malting, by J. McCulloch.

On Aniline and its Derivatives, by A. Reimann. With Hoffmann's Report on the Coloring Matters derived from Coal-Tar, revised and edited by W. Crookes.

The Carpenter, Joiner, and Elements of Hand-Railing; new and revised edition, by R. Riddell.

A Practical Guide for Puddling Iron and Steel, by E. Urbin; with a Comparison of the Resisting Properties of Iron and Steel, by A. Brüll. From the French, by A. A. Fesquet.

Statistics of the Coal-Trade of the United States for 1866. To which are added Prize Essays on Mining Bituminous Coal, from the London Mining Journal.

Manual of Instruction for the Improved Method of Building with Concrete, by S. T. Fowler.

A Manual of Instruction in the Art of Wood-Engraving; with a Description of the Necessary Tools and Apparatus, by J. S. Fuller.

The Mine of Wealth and Guide for the Million: Containing the Secret System and Instructions for the Manufacture of Wines, Liquors, Cordials, and Bitters; Cookery; Fireworks, etc., etc., by Dr. William Fitzgibbon.

The Invaluable Companion: Containing the Celebrated \$1,000 Receipt and 459 other Receipts, etc.

The Watch: its Construction, Merits, and Defects; how to Choose it and how to Use it, etc., etc., by H. F. Piaget.

Gold in an Amorphous and Chemically combined Condition in Nature: with a Description of Processes for Extracting Precious Metals from their Ores, by Prof. L. Fleury.

Leaf and Flower Pictures, and how to Make them. New edition.

Five Hundred and Seven Mechanical Movements: Embracing the Most Important in Dynamics, Hydraulics, etc., by H. T. Brown.

The American Watchmaker and Jeweller, by J. P. Stelle.

The Crack Shot, or Young Rifleman's Complete Guide, by E. C. Barber.

A Treatise on Hat-Making and Felting, including a Full Exposition of the Singular Properties of Fur, Wool, and Hair, by John Thompson, a Practical Hatter.

Description of the Piers of the New Railroad Bridges of the Boston and Providence Railroad over the Seekonk River, by J. A. Monroe.

Plan for building a Bridge across the East River at Blackwell's Island, by W. P. Trowbridge.

The Standard Sign Writer and Letterer's Companion; a Series of Alphabets of the Most approved Styles, by an Association of Practical Sign-Painters.

A Manual of Photography: a Text-Book for Beginners, and a Book of Reference for Advanced Photographers, by M. Carey Lea.

In the department of *Mathematical Science*, there were a few works in the higher walks of the science, and the business applications of Mathematics, but the greater part of the additions of the year to this department were text-books. The following were the principal:

The Philosophy of Mathematics, with Special Reference to the Elements of Geometry and the Infinitesimal Method, by Prof. Albert T. Bledsoe.

A Treatise on the Method of Least Squares; or, the Application of the Theory of Probabilities in the Combination of Observations, by W. Chauvenet.

Ganot's Elements of Physics, Experimental and Applied. Translated and edited by S. Atkinson. 3d edition, enlarged.

Lessons in Numbers in the Natural Order: 1. Visible Objects; 2. Concrete Numbers; 3. Abstract Numbers, by J. H. French, LL. D.

A Practical Treatise on the Adjustment of General Average in the United States and Other Countries; including the Elements of Maritime and Insurance Law, by F. B. Dixon.

The Elements of Written Arithmetic; combining Analysis and Synthesis, by James S. Eaton.

A Basis of Arithmetic; a Collection of Tables and Exercises for Beginners; adapted to any Series, by R. S. Jameson.

The Quadrature of the Circle Perfected; or, the Circle Squared; in which the Method is stated and demonstrated, by Cyrus Pitt Grosvenor.

Geometry: The Elements of Euclid and Legendre Simplified and Arranged to Exclude from Geometrical Reasoning the Reductio ad Absurdum, etc., by L. S. Benson.

Mental Arithmetic, by G. P. Quackenbos, LL. D.

The class of EDUCATION and PHILOLOGY includes generally the text-books of our public schools, and academies, and collegiate institutions, as well as the essays and treatises on the subject:

The Arts of Reading, Writing, and Spelling, by E. A. Cox.

Excelsior: or, Essays on Politeness, Education, and the Means of Success in Life, by a Lady (R. V. R.).

Good English; correcting Popular Errors in Speaking and Writing, by Ed. G. Gould.

In the School-Room. Chapters on the Philosophy of Education, by John S. Hart, LL. D.

A Book about Boys, by A. R. Hope.

First Principles of Popular Education and Public Instruction, by S. S. Randall, Superintendent of Public Schools, New York City.

Vulgarisms, and other Errors of Speech, including a Chapter on Taste, and Examples of Bad Taste.

The Scientific Basis of Education demonstrated by an Analysis of the Temperaments, and Phrenological Facts, etc., by John Hecker.

The Education of the Voice: being Musical Instruction, Exercises, and Recreations.

Grammaire Française à l'usage des Anglais, by E. Borel. Revised by E. B. Coe.

Cours des Thèmes, by E. Borel.

Latin-English Dictionary, with an English-Latin Dictionary, by Rev. P. Bullions, D. D.

A New Elementary Course in the German Language, by G. Campbell, M. A.

School Lyrics. A Collection of Sacred Hymns for Devotional Exercises in Schools, by S. M. Capron, A. M.

The Cavé Method for Learning to Draw from Memory, by Mad. Maria E. Cavé.

A Manual of Mythology in the Form of Question and Answer, by Rev. G. W. Cox.

Grammar of French Grammars, by A. de Fivas.

The Student's Edition of the History of England, 4 vols.

Harper's Phrase-Book: or, Hand-book of Travel Talk. Being a Guide to Conversation in English, French, German, and Italian, on a New and Improved Method, by W. P. Ftridge.

A Modern Historical Atlas for the use of Colleges, Schools, and General Readers, by Rev. William L. Gage.

Alphabet of Geology, by S. R. Hall, LL. D.

Russian and English Phrase-Book for Traders, Travellers, and Teachers, by A. Honcharenko.

The Elements of Physiology and Hygiene. A Text-Book for Educational Institutions, by T. H. Huxley and W. J. Youmans.

Chinese and English Phrase-Book, with the Chinese Pronunciation indicated in English, by B. Lanctot.

First Lessons in Geometry, objectively presented, by B. Marks.

Newell and Creery's Fifth Reader.

Watson's Independent National Fourth Reader.

Dr. Emil Otto's Beginning German, arranged by L. Pylodet.

L. Pylodet's New Guide to German Conversation, with a Synopsis of German Grammar.

Pylodet's Beginner's Third Reader, with a Complete Vocabulary.

The Mastery Series, by Thomas Prendergast, 3 vols., Hand-book, French and German.

A Practical Business Arithmetic for Common Schools and Academies, by W. Peck.

Elementary History of the United States, by G. P. Quackenbos, LL. D.

The Little Corporal New Drawing-Book: being Drawing-Lessons for beginners, both in Schools and at Home, by P. F. Reed.

Linear Perspective, for the use of Schools and Students in Drawing, by J. Ropes.

Differential and Integral Calculus, for High Schools and Colleges, by H. N. Robinson, LL. D. Edited by J. F. Quimby.

Analysis of Civil Government, for Schools, Academies, etc., by Calvin Townsend.

Elementary Grammar of the German Language, with Exercises, Readings, Conversations, Paradigms, and a Vocabulary, by J. H. Worman, A. M.

Landmarks of History.—Part 3, Modern History, by Miss Yonge.

The Voice in Singing. From the German of Emma Seiler.

Condensed French Instruction: consisting of Grammar and Exercises, with Cross References, by C. J. Delille.

Book-keeping by Single and Double Entry. Practically Illustrating Merchants', Manufacturers', Private Bankers', Railroad, and National Bank Accounts. Including all the late Improvements in the Science, by P. Duff. Twentieth edition, enlarged and revised.

Munson's New Classification and Arrangement of Phonography.

The Lengthening Principle, by James E. Munson.

A Manual of Etymology and Syntax, adapting Crosby's General Grammar to the Analysis of the English Language, by Cyrus Baldwin.

The Relation of the Academy to our Educational System.

An Address, by G. F. Magoun, LL. D.

University Book-keeping, by J. Mayhew.

The Education of the Heart. An Address at Commencement of Aurora (Illinois) Seminary, by Schuyler Colfax.

A Summary of English and French History, by Miss Thalheimer.

The Æneid of Virgil. With Notes, by T. Chase.

Easy French Reading, being Selections of Historical Tales and Anecdotes, etc., by Prof. E. T. Fisher. With a plain French Grammar, by C. J. Delille.

The American Hebrew Primer: an Easy Method of Teaching Hebrew, in Twelve Lessons, by L. Aufrecht.

A Manual of the Art of Prose Composition, by J. M. Boswell, D. D.

Comstock's Elocution, enlarged. A System of Vocal Gymnastics, by A. Comstock, M. D. Edited by P. Lawrence.

A Practical Grammar of the Hebrew Language for Schools and Colleges, by B. Felsenthal, Ph. D.

Sunday-school Hand-book: a Compendium for Pastors, Superintendents, Teachers, etc., by E. House.

Progress in School Discipline: Corporal Punishment in the Public Schools, by M. Wyman, M. D.

The Principles of English Grammar, by T. R. Vickroy, A. M.

New Fourth Reader, by Mrs. A. De V. Chaudron.

Martindale's Series of Spellers, 3 vols.

Webster's Academic, High School, Common School, and Primary Dictionaries. Revised editions by W. G. Webster and W. A. Wheeler.
 Wilson's Book of Recitations and Dialogues. With Instructions in Elocution, Declamation, etc., by F. B. Wilson.
 Dictées Corrigés or Orthographical Exercises. With Grammatical and Logical Exercises, for Schools, by J. H. C. Lajoie de Marcelean.
 Single and Double Entry Book-keeping and Business Manual, by H. W. Ellsworth.
 Reflections on the Science of Ignorance; or, The Art of Teaching Others what we do not Know Ourselves, by C. M. Sawtelle.

The number of CLASSICAL WORKS of importance was very small. The following were the only ones of any considerable note:

Selections from the Kalevala. Translated from the German Version, by J. A. Porter, M.D.
 With an Introduction and Analysis of the Poem.
 The Classics in Education. An Essay read before the University Convocation of the State of New York, by B. N. Martin.
 Commentaries on the Gallic War, by C. Julius Cæsar.
 Latin Vocabulary and Notes, by W. Bingham.

The class of LAW BOOKS embraces about thirty volumes of Reports of Decisions in the Courts of Appeal, Supreme Courts, Courts of Chancery, and Superior Courts of New York, Maine, New Jersey, Michigan, West Virginia, Kentucky, Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Maryland, Missouri, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin. Four volumes of Transcript Appeals in New York Court of Appeals; two volumes of Howard's Practice Reports of New York Courts; one volume of Edmunds's Reports of Select Cases in the Higher Courts; Elmer's Digest of New Jersey Reports; ten volumes of Bacon's Digest of Georgia Reports; eleven volumes of Barclay's Digest of Missouri Reports; and one volume of Simmons's Digest of Wisconsin Reports. It also includes four volumes of Reports of United States Court of Claims, District Courts, Circuit Courts, and Supreme Court of the United States; two volumes of the United States Digest, three volumes of Digest of Laws and Acts of Congress, and Brightly's Digest of the Decisions of United States Courts; the Opinions of the Attorneys-General, vol. 10, and the Military Laws of the United States; and vol. 107 of the English Common Law Reports. There are also compilations of the Lien Laws of New York, Kings and Queens Counties, of the Law of Highways, the Common-School Laws of New York, the Laws of Corporations, of Life, Fire, Marine, and other Insurance, and of Loans, and the Currency of the United States. There was also a History of the Marine Court, giving its origin and organization, and carefully compiled and collated editions of the Tariff, Internal Revenue, and Bankrupt Laws; the Civil Code, and the Code of Practice of Louisiana, and the Rules of the Circuit Courts of the United States. Besides these, there were the following legal treatises and essays:

The First Book of the Law: Explaining the Nature, Sources, Books, and Practical Applications of Legal Science, and Methods of Study and Practice, by Joel Prentiss Bishop.
 A Practical Treatise on the Criminal Law and Practice of the State of New York, with an Appendix of Precedents, by John H. Colby.
 Treatise on the Constitutional Limitations which rest upon the Legislative Power of the States of the American Union, by T. M. Cooley.
 A Practical Treatise on the Adjustment of General Average in the United States and other Countries, including the Elements of Maritime and Insurance Law, by F. B. Dixon.
 Reports of Select Cases decided in the Courts of the State of New York, not reported, or reported only partially, by John W. Edmunds.
 Reports of Cases arising upon Letters Patent for Inventions, determined in the Circuit Courts of the United States, by S. S. Fisher.
 Statutes of the United States relating to Revenue, Commerce, Navigation, and the Currency, with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, by Lewis Heyl.
 Ecclesiastical Law of the State of New York, by Murray Hoffman.
 A Treatise on the Law of Navigable Rivers, by L. Houck.
 A Treatise on Marine Insurance and General Average, by T. Parsons, LL. D.
 Digest of the Military Laws of the United States, 1860-1867: relating to the Army, Volunteers, Militia, the Rebellion, and Reconstruction, by Brevet Lieut.-Col. Poland.
 An Introduction to the Constitutional Law of the United States, for Students General and Professional, by J. N. Pomeroy, LL. D.
 The Principles of Equity, for the use of Students and the Profession, by E. H. T. Snell.
 Criminal Abortion; its Nature, its Evidence, and its Law, by H. R. Storer, M. D., and F. F. Heard.
 A Treatise on Slander and Libel and on the Remedy by Civil Action, by J. Townshend.
 Guardianship and Custody of Infants and the Law of Coverture; Embracing Marriage and Divorce, and the Statutory Policy of the Several States respecting Husband and Wife, by R. H. Tyler.
 Legal Titles to Mining Claims and Water Rights in California, under the Mining Law of Congress of July, 1866, by Gregory Yale.
 A Treatise on the Law of Evidence, by Simon Greenleaf, LL. D. 8 vols. Revised, with Additions, by I. F. Redfield, LL. D.
 The Law Register; The State Record; The Official Directory for the United States; The Collector's Assistant, etc., constituting an Official and Business Man's Directory, by John Livingstone.
 A Practical Treatise on the Laws of Highways, including Ways, Bridges, Turnpikes, and Plank-roads, at Common Law and under the Statutes, with an Appendix of Forms, by J. G. Thompson.
 Commentaries on the Law of Promissory Notes and Checks on Banks and Bankers, by J. Story, LL. D. Sixth edition.
 Trial and Sentence of Rev. S. H. Tyng, Jr., reported by Warburton, Bonyng, and Devine.
 Decisions of Hon. P. Sprague in Maritime Admiralty and Prize Causes in the United States District Court of Massachusetts, 1854-1864.
 The Statutes at Large; Treaties and Proclamations of the United States, December, 1865, to March, 1867.
 A Treatise on the Criminal Law of the United States, by F. Wharton. Sixth revised edition. 3 vols.
 Proceedings in the Trial of Andrew Johnson before the United States Senate.
 The Great Impeachment Trial of Andrew Johnson, with the Preliminary Proceedings.

- Equity in Pennsylvania; a Lecture, by W. H. Raub, with an Appendix, being the Registrar's Book of Gov. Keith's Court of Chancery.
- A Treatise on the Measure of Damages, by Theodore Sedgwick. Fourth edition. With Notes of English and American Decisions down to the Present Time. Edited by H. D. Sedgwick.
- The Tyng Case: A Narrative, with the Judgment of the Court and the Admonition.
- The Amended Constitution of the State of New York, adopted by the Convention of 1867-'68, with the Manner and Form of Submission to the People.
- Commentaries on the Law of Partnership, by Joseph Story. Sixth edition. By J. C. Gray, Jr.
- Commentaries on the Criminal Law, by J. P. Bishop. Fourth revised and enlarged edition. 2 vols.
- Concillii Plenarii Baltimorensi. II. Acta et Decreta.
- New Internal Revenue Guide, with the Act passed July, 1868, by C. N. Emerson.
- A Treatise on the Law of Highways, by J. K. Angell and T. Durfee. Second edition. By G. F. Choate.
- A Treatise on the American Law of Real Property, by E. Washburn, LL. D. Third edition. 3 vols.
- Digest of Fire Insurance Decisions in the Courts of Great Britain and North America, by H. A. Littleton and J. H. Blatchley.
- The Marine Court of the City of New York; its Origin, Jurisdiction, and Practice, by D. McAdam.
- The American Juror; being a Guide for Jurymen throughout the United States, by H. B. Wilson.
- Laws and Ordinances of New Netherland, 1638-1674. Translated and Compiled by E. B. O'Callaghan.
- Reports of Decisions in Criminal Cases, made at Term at Chambers, and in the Courts of Oyer and Terminer of the State of New York, by A. J. Parker, LL. D. 6 vols.
- At no time in the history of this country has the number of *Medical Treatises and Essays*, published in a single year, been so large and generally so valuable as in 1868. A considerable number of these were editions of English works, imported for the American market; others were reprints usually edited and enlarged here: but the greater part were original works, and such as fully entitle the medical profession in the United States to take rank with their profession in any of the countries of Europe. The following are the most important publications of the year in this department:
- Outlines of Comparative Anatomy and Medical Zoology, by H. Allen, M. D.
- A Rational Treatise on the Trunkal Muscles, elucidating the Mechanical Cause of Chronic Spinal, Pelvic, Abdominal, and Thoracic Affections, and of Bronchial and other Derangements; with the Rationale of their Cure by Mechanical Support, by E. P. Banning, M. D.
- A Biennial Retrospect of Medicine, Surgery, and their Allied Sciences; edited by M. H. Powers and others, for the New Sydenham Society (reprint).
- Constipated Bowels: the various Causes and different Means of Cure, by S. B. Birch, M. D. (reprint, 3d London edition).
- Practical Observations on the Etiology, Pathology, Diagnosis, and Treatment of Anal Fissure, by W. Bodenhamer, M. D.
- A New and Effective Method of Treating Consumption through Artificial Calcification; with Explanatory Cases and Drawings, by Carl Both, M. D.
- Lectures on the Diagnosis and Treatment of Functional Nervous Affections; Part I.
- Physiological, Pathological, and General Therapeutics of Functional Nervous Affection, by C. E. Brown-Séquard, M. D.
- Advice to a Mother on the Management of her Children; ninth edition, by Pye Henry Chavasse, M. D.
- The Neuroses of the Skin: their Pathology and Treatment, by H. F. Damon, M. D.
- Photographs of Diseases of the Skin; taken from Life under the Superintendence of H. F. Damon, M. D. First Series.
- The Maternal Management of Infancy; for the Use of Parents, by F. H. Getchell, M. D.
- Comparative Materia Medica, by H. Gross, M. D. Edited by C. Hering, M. D.
- The Diagnosis, Pathology, and Treatment of Diseases of Women, including the Diagnosis of Pregnancy, by G. Hewitt, M. D.
- Diseases of Children: a Clinical Treatise, based on Lectures at the Hospital for Children, London, by T. Hillier, M. D. (reprint).
- A Manual of Dissection of the Human Body, by L. Holden; with Notes and Additions, by E. Mason, M. D.
- A Popular Treatise on Bronchitis, embracing Bronchial Consumption, Whooping Cough, and Asthma; their Nature, Causes, and Treatment, by R. Hunter, M. D. (reprint).
- Lessons in Physical Diagnosis, by A. L. Loomis, M. D.
- On Chronic Alcoholic Intoxication; with an Inquiry into the Influence of the Abuse of Alcohol as a Predisposing Cause of Disease, by W. Marcet, M. D.
- Outlines of Physiology, Human and Comparative, by J. Marshall; with Additions, by F. G. Smith, M. D.
- The Anatomy and Histology of the Human Eye, by A. Metz, M. D.
- Electro-Physiology and Therapeutics; the Study of the Electrical and other Physical Phenomena of the Muscular and other Systems in Health and Disease; including the Phenomena of the Electrical Fishes, by C. E. Morgan, M. D.
- Clinical Lectures on Diseases of the Liver, Jaundice, and Abdominal Dropsy, by C. Murchison, M. D. (imported edition).
- Special Pathology and Diagnostics; with Therapeutic Hints, by C. G. Raue, M. D.
- A System of Medicine; two volumes: Vol. 1. General Diseases; Vol. 2. Local Diseases, by J. R. Reynolds, M. D. (imported edition).
- Microscopic Examinations of Blood and Vegetables found in Variola, Vaccina, and Typhoid Fever, by J. H. Salisbury, M. D.
- A Hand-book of Vaccination, by E. C. Seaton, M. D.
- The Treatment of Diseases of the Throat and Lungs by Inhalation; with a new Inhaling Apparatus, by E. Siegle, M. D. From the second German edition, by S. Nickles, M. D.
- The Prescription and Clinic Record, by Edouard Seguin, M. D.
- Treatise on Diseases of the Eye; including the Anatomy of the Organ, by C. Stellwag, M. D. From the third German edition, by C. E. Hackley, M. D., and D. B. St. John Roosa, M. D.
- On the Signs and Diseases of Pregnancy, by T. H. Tanner, M. D. From second London edition.
- A Practical Treatise on the Diseases of Women, by T. G. Thomas, M. D.
- Chronic Diseases of the Larynx, with Special Reference to Laryngoscopic Diagnosis and Local Therapeutics, by A. Tobold, M. D. From the German, by G. W. Beard, M. D.
- Lectures on Clinical Medicine by A. Trousseau, M. D. Translated and edited by V. P. Bazire, M. D. (imported edition).
- Dental Materia Medica, by J. W. White.

- Pennsylvania Hospital Reports. Vol. I.
 Plastics: a New Classification and a Brief Exposition of Plastic Surgery. From the Report in the Transactions of the Illinois Medical Society for 1867, by D. Prince, M. D.
- Pathological Anatomy of the Female Sexual Organs, by Julius M. Klob, M. D. Translated from the German by J. Kammerer, M. D., and B. F. Dawson, M. D.
- Lectures on Orthopedic Surgery, by L. Bauer, M. D. Second edition.
- Annual Abstract of Therapeutics, Materia Medica, Pharmaceutics, and Toxicology, for 1867. With an Original Memoir on Gout, Gravel, and Urinary Calculi, by A. Bouchardat. Translated and edited by M. J. de Rosset.
- The Practical Treatment of the Diseases of Children, by D. F. Condie, M. D. Sixth edition.
- Extra-Uterine Fœtation and Gestation, with the Early Signs which characterize it: Symptoms of the Fatal Hæmorrhage into the Peritoneal Cavity, etc., by Stephen Rogers, M. D. From the Transactions of the American Medical Association.
- Diseases of the Heart: their Diagnosis and Treatment, by David Wooster, M. D.
- The Dartrous Diathesis; or, Eczema and its Allied Affections, by A. Hardy, M. D. Translated by H. P. Piffard, M. D.
- Prevention and Cure of Consumption by the Swedish Movement Cure. With Directions for its Home Application, by David Wark, M. D.
- Light: its Influence on Life and Health, by Forbes Winslow, M. D.
- The Eclectic Practice of Medicine and Surgery, by J. Buchanan, M. D. Third edition, improved.
- Contributions relating to the Causation and Prevention of Disease, and Camp Diseases. With a Report of Diseases, etc., among the Prisoners at Andersonville, edited by Austin Flint, M. D.
- Atlas of Venereal Diseases, by A. Cullerier. Translated from the French, with Notes and Additions, by F. J. Bumstead, M. D.
- A Manual of Pharmacodynamics, by Richard Hughes. Second edition, with Alphabetical Index.
- Test Types for the Determination of Acuteness of Vision, Myopia, Range of Accommodation, etc., Corresponding to the Schriftscalén of E. Jaeger.
- The Venereal Diseases: their Pathological Nature, correct Diagnosis, and Homœopathic Treatment, by G. H. G. Jahn, M. D. Translated with Additions by C. J. Hempel, M. D.
- The Last Events of 1867. The Tele-Microscope of Gottlieb Juntz and the Organopathy of William Sharp, M. D.
- The Lifting Cure: an Original Scientific Application of the Laws of Motion or Mechanical Action to Physical Culture and the Cure of Disease, by D. P. Butler.
- The Eclectic Practice of Medicine, by R. S. Newton, M. D.
- An Inquiry into the Influence upon Health of Anthracite Coal, by G. Derby, M. D.
- Odontalgia, commonly called Toothache: its Causes, Prevention, and Cure, by S. P. Shaw (imported edition).
- The Principles and Practice of Obstetrics, by G. S. Bedford, M. D. Fourth edition, enlarged.
- The Indigestions; or, Diseases of the Digestive Organs Functionally Treated, by T. K. Chambers, M. D. (reprint).
- Fecundity, Sterility, and Allied Topics, by J. M. Duncan, M. D. (imported edition).
- Researches in Obstetrics, by J. M. Duncan, M. D. (imported edition).
- A Dictionary of Medical Terminology, Dental Surgery, and Collateral Sciences, by C. A. Harris, M. D. Third edition, revised and enlarged, by F. J. Gorgas, M. D.
- A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of Medicine and Pathology, Diseases of Women and Children, and Medical Surgery, by W. Paine, M. D.
- Therapeutics and Materia Medica: a Systematic Treatise on the Action and Uses of Medicinal Agents, etc., by A. Stille, M. D. Third revised and enlarged edition. Two vols.
- A Practical Treatise on Operative Dentistry, by J. Taft. Second edition.
- Materia Medica for the Student, by J. B. Biddle, M. D. Third enlarged edition.
- The Use of Tobacco and the Evils Resulting from it, by J. H. Griscom, M. D.
- The Principles of Medicine, by J. M. Scudder, M. D.
- On Diseases of the Skin: a System of Cutaneous Medicine, by E. Wilson, F. R. S. Seventh American from sixth English edition.
- On the Pathology and Treatment of Albuminuria, by W. H. Dickinson, M. D. (imported edition).
- The Servants of the Stomach, by Jean Macé. Translated from the French.
- On Nurses and Nursing: With Especial Reference to the Management of Sick Women, by H. B. Storer.
- Cholera in the Orient, and its Successful Treatment in the Epidemic of 1865, by Dr. Cricca. New revised edition. Translated by J. Davies, M. D.
- Vesico-Vaginal Fistula, from Parturition and Other Causes. With Cases of Recto-Vaginal Fistula, by T. A. Emmet, M. D.
- Kidney Diseases, Urinary Deposits, and Calculous Disorders: their Nature and Treatment. With Tables for the Clinical Examination of Urine, by L. S. Beale. Third edition.
- Two Cases of Œsophagotomy for the Removal of Foreign Bodies, with a History of the Operations. Second edition, revised, with an Additional Case, by D. W. Cheever, M. D.
- The Medical Formulary, by B. Ellis, M. D. Twelfth edition, revised by A. H. Smith, M. D.
- A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of Medicine for Practitioners and Students in Medicine, by A. Flint, M. D. Third edition, revised.
- The Medical Register of the City of New York and Vicinity, etc., by J. Shradý, M. D.
- A Treatise on Physiology and Hygiene, for Schools, Families, and Colleges, by J. C. Dalton, M. D.
- How not to be Sick: A Sequel to "Philosophy of Eating," by A. J. Bellows, M. D.
- In the way of POETRY and the DRAMA, there were numerous reprints and cheap editions of Shakespeare, Byron, Burns, Scott, Milton, Moore, Spenser, Dryden, Butler, Tasso, Dante, etc. Of most of these a good edition, and of some of them four or five different editions, were published in paper covers at fifty cents retail, while illustrated editions in cloth bindings were sold at from \$1.12 to \$1.50. There were also published collected editions, some of them illustrated, others at a low price, of the poems of Halleck, Longfellow, Willis, Saxe, Tennyson, Whittier, Jean Ingelow, and Alice Cary.
- The following were the principal *Anthologies* or collections of poetry by different writers on particular topics published during the year:
- Christ in Song. Hymns of Immanuel, selected from all Ages, with Notes. Edited by Philip Schaff, D. D.
- Lyra Anglicana, edited by Rev. H. Bairnes.
- Lyra Sacra Americana: or, Gems of Sacred Poetry, edited by Charles D. Cleveland.
- Hymns, by F. T. Palgrave.
- Poetry of Compliment and Courtship, edited by J. W. Palmer.
- The Layman's Breviary, by L. Schefer. From the German, by Charles T. Brooks.
- Scotia's Bards.

Under the Cross. Selections of Sacred Poetry, edited by Mrs. H. B. Stowe.

Carmina Collegensia. A Complete Collection of the Songs of American Colleges, with Piano-forte Accompaniment, collected and edited by H. R. Waite.

Collection of Songs of the American Press, and other Poems relating to the Art of Printing, compiled by C. Munsell.

The Southern Amaranth, edited by Miss Sallie A. Brock.

Hymns for Happy Voices, without the Music.

Ecos Perdidos. Coleccion de Poesias, por J. P. Varela.

Children with the Poets, by Harriet B. McKeever.

The Trinity Hymnal, with offices of Devotion for Sunday and Parish Schools.

The Common Prayer, with Ritual Song, edited by W. H. Walter, Mus. Doc.

The number of volumes of new Poems and Dramas by American writers, first published in 1868, was somewhat larger than usual. There were in all about seventy-five, of which the following were the principal:

Rhymes of the Poets, by Felix Ago.

Poems, by Horace P. Biddle.

No Sects in Heaven, and other Poems, by Mrs. E. H. J. Cleveland.

Halloween. A Romaunt, with Lays Meditative

and Devotional, by Right Rev. A. C. Coxe, D. D.

Regina and other Poems, by Eliza Cruger.

The Mexican : or, Love and Land, founded on the

Invasion of Maximilian, by John M. Dagnall.

The Broken Fold, Poems of Memory and Consola-

tion, by Eliza A. Dana.

The Lily of the Valley : or, Maggie and I, and

other Poems, by Amy Gray.

Poems, by Rev. J. H. Hanson.

Salome. A Dramatic Poem, by J. C. Heywood.

The Annunciation. A Poem, by John Hillhouse.

Poems, by B. G. Hosmer.

No Love Lost. A Poem of Travel, by W. D.

Howells.

Poems, by Lucy Larcom.

Life Below, in Seven Poems.

Poems, by Mrs. O. M. Livingston.

The New England Tragedies, by Henry W. Long-

fellow.

Under the Willows, and other Poems, by James

Russell Lowell.

Bianca Capello. A Tragedy, by Laughton Osborn.

The Antarctic Mariner's Song, by J. C. Palmer.

Among the Hills, and other Poems, by J. G. Whit-

tier.

Saga : a Drama in three Parts, by C. Heavysege.

Africanus, and the Idumean Tragedies ; with the

Roman Martyr, and other Poems, by Rev. J. M.

Leavitt.

Legends and Poetry of the Hudson.

The Wreath of Eglantine, and other Poems, by

Daniel B. Lucas.

The Montanini, by Laughton Osborn.

The School for Critics : a Comedy, by Laughton

Osborn.

The Colonnades : a Poem, by B. Blood.

Stella, by E. J. Cutler.

The Glad New Year, and other Poems, by Ethel

Wolf.

The True Vine : Hymns of Home and Heaven, by

Rev. W. A. Des Brisay.

Poems, by J. B. Everhart.

Poems, by Ellen Clementine Howarth.

Irish Lyrical Poems, by Mrs. O'Donovan (Rossa).

Mand's Peril : a Drama ; and Nobody's Son : a

Drama, by Watts Phillips.

Caste : a Comedy, by T. W. Robertson.

Henry Dunbar : a Drama, by Tom Taylor.

Poems, by J. E. Howell.

The Spirit of Seventy-Six ; or, The Coming Wo-

man : a Prophetic Dream.

The Snarl of a Cynic : a Rhyme, by B. O. Hoffman.

The Song of Higher Water, by J. W. Ward.

The Inner Mystery : an Inspirational Poem, by

Lizzie Dotin.

Liliput Levee : Poems of Childhood, Child Fancy,

and Childlike Moods.

The Pilgrim's Hope, and other Poems, by J. W.

Pine.

Highland Rambles : a Poem, by W. B. Wright.

King Sham, and other Atrocities in Verse, by L.

N. Greenleaf.

Caliban ; a Sequel to Ariel, by Prospero.

Footprints of Life ; or, Faith and Nature Recon-

ciled : a Poem, by P. Harvey, M. D.

Alleghania ; or, Praises of American Heroes, by

C. L. Pondar.

The Talisman, and other Poems, by D. C. Richman.

O Carminho da Paz.

Logan, the Last of the Race of Shekellemus : a

Dramatic Piece ; with the Dialogue of the Back-

woodsman and the Dandy, by Dr. Joseph Dod-

dridge. (Reprinted from the Virginia edition of

1823.)

Hans Breitmann's Party, and other Ballads, by C.

G. Leland.

St. Paul : a Poem, by J. H. Myers.

Ethic Hymns and Scriptural Lessons for Children,

by Asaph.

The Puritan : a Poem in Seven Cantos.

Alaska : a Spectacular Extravaganza ; in Rhino-

Russian Rhyme, and two Acts, by Q. Z.

Hush-Money : a Life Drama, by C. H. Ross.

The Upshot Family : a Serio-Comic Poem, by H.

C. Work.

Rural Poems, by William Barnes.

Katherina : a Poem, by J. G. Holland. (Illustrated

edition.)

The True Grecian Bend : a Story in Verse, by

Larry Leigh.

The Varied Year : an Advent Poem, by W. A.

White.

The Mimic Stage : a Series of Dramas, Comedies,

Burlesques, and Farces, for Public Exhibitions

and Private Theatricals, by G. M. Boker.

Comic Recitations and Humorous Dialogues, edited

by J. Barton.

Amateur Theatricals, and Fairy Tale : Dramas, by

Miss S. A. Frost.

The Rightful Heir : a Drama, by Sir E. L. Bulwer.

A Silent Woman : a Farce, by Thomas Hailes Lacy.

The number of reprints of new foreign poems was not so large as usual. The following were all of any importance :

Yesterday, To-Day, and Forever, by Rev. E. H. Bickersteth.

The Ring and the Book, by Robert Browning, two volumes.

Cromwell : a Tragedy in Five Acts, by the Author of "Thomas à Becket," etc.

The Spanish Gipsy : a Poem, by George Eliot. (Mrs. Lewes).

Infelicia, by Adah Isaacs Menken.

The Earthly Paradise, by William Morris.

Life and Death of Jason, by William Morris.

Poems, by the Author of "John Halifax, Gentle-

man" (Mrs. D. M. Craik). Only complete edition.

Siena : a Poem, by Algernon C. Swinburne.

Chronicles and Characters, and other New Poems,

two volumes, by Owen Meredith (Robert Bulwer

Lytton).

Morte D'Arthur, by Sir T. Malory. Revised for

Modern Use ; with Introduction, by Sir E. Stra-

they.

Sabbath Chimes : or, Meditations in Verse for the

Sundays of a Year, by Rev. W. M. Punshon.

Locksley Hall, by A. Tennyson. (Illustrated edi-

tion.)

There were about the usual number of ESSAYS, REVIEWS, AND WORKS OF CRITICISM, somewhat more than sixty. The following are all that seem to be worthy of a place in our record:

Woman's Wrongs. A Counter-Irritant, by Gail Hamilton (Miss M. A. Dodge).

Sense and Nonsense, by Brick Pomeroy (M. M. Pomeroy).

The Great Exhibition: Continental Sketches, Practical and Humorous, by H. P. Arnold.

The Irish in America, by J. F. Maguire.

Oratory Sacred and Secular; or, the Extemporaneous Speaker, by W. Pettinger.

The Cromwellian Settlement of Ireland, by J. P. Prendergast.

Leaves from the Journal of Our Life in the Highlands, by Queen Victoria. Edited by Arthur Helps.

Sketches on the Ice; or, the Skating Mania Reviewed, by Horace Cope.

Human Life in Shakespeare, by Henry Giles.

Wayside Thoughts: a Series of Desultory Essays, by D'Arcy W. Thompson.

Spiritual Significance of Gems, by Cora Wilburn.

An Historical Account of the Providence Stage, by Charles Blake.

Behind the Scenes, by Elizabeth Keckley.

A Sister's Bye-Hours, by Jean Ingelow.

A Mother's Love; or, A Young Man's Lighthouse. Letters, by the Wife of a late Distinguished Citizen of New Haven to a Son.

The Early Years of the Prince Consort. Compiled under the direction of the Queen, by Lieutenant-General Sir C. Gray. Cheap edition.

Mathieu Ropars, by an ex-Editor.

Folly as it Flies. Hit at by Fanny Fern (Mrs. S. Parton).

Faraday as a Discoverer, by John Tyndall.

Yang-Pih-We-Wing - Tzonga - Foh; or, Lessons from a Cup of Tea.

Was it a Ghost? The Murders in Bussey's Wood: an Extraordinary Narrative.

On Ice and Other Things, by Josh Billings (H. W. Shaw).

Transcript Pieces, by Frank Foxcroft.

The Love-Life of Brigadier-General H. M. Naglee: consisting of a Correspondence in Love, War, and Politics.

The Philosophers of Foufouville, by Radical Freilmann, Esq.

Miscellaneous Prose Works, by E. Bulwer Lytton.

About Woman, Love, and Marriage, by F. Saunders.

Asmodeus in New York.

Tablets, by A. B. Alcott.

Excelsior; or, Essays on Politeness, Education, and the Means of Success in Life, Part I. For Young Gentlemen, by T. E. Howard. Part II. For Young Ladies, by a Lady (R. V. R.).

Plain Thoughts on the Art of Living, by W. Gladstone.

The Tragedian: an Essay on the Histrionic Genius of Junius Brutus Booth, by T. R. Gould.

Calamities and Quarrels of Authors, by I. Disraeli. Edited by B. Disraeli. 2 volumes.

The Literary Character; or, the History of Men of Our Genius, Literary, Miscellaneous, etc., by I. Disraeli. Edited by B. Disraeli.

Theatrical Management in the West and South for Thirty Years, by Sol. Smith.

Passages from the Note-Books of Nathaniel Hawthorne.

My Paris: French Character-Sketches, by E. King.

The New England Tragedies in Prose, by R. H. Allen.

Mrs. Partington's Knitting-Work; and what was done by her Plaguy Boy, &c., by B. P. Shillaber.

Smoked Glass, by Orpheus C. Kerr (R. H. Newell).

Cakes and Ale at Woodbine, by Barry Gray (B. G. Coffin).

The Wickedest Woman in New York, by C. H. Webb.

Realmah, by Arthur Helps.

Of the 320 novels published during the year, a very considerable number were included among the four or five editions of the fictions of Dickens, Sir Walter Scott, Marryatt, Charles Reade, Bulwer Lytton, Thackeray, etc., put upon the market by rival publishers. There were also reprints, and usually two or three, of the new novels of Wilkie Collins, Miss M. E. Braddon, Annie Thomas (Mrs. Pender Cudlip), Mrs. Henry Wood, Mrs. C. Jenkin, Ouida, and J. Sheridan Le Fanu, George Lawrence, "Holme Lee," Mrs. Edwards, Mrs. Oliphant, Miss Sewell, Miss M. B. Edwards, Mrs. D. M. Craik, Miss Georgiana Craik, George MacDonald, Anthony and T. Adolphus Trollope, and other popular English novelists. Five more have been added to the already long list of Louisa Mühlbach (Mrs. Clara Mundt's) novels, and one of her late husband's (Theodor Mundt) historical fictions has been translated. Berthold Auerbach, F. Dingelstedt, A. E. Brachvogel, F. W. Hackländer, J. C. Hauch, J. A. Sigmund, Fritz Reuter, Heribert Raue, Max Ring, and others, have been added to the list of German novelists, from whom our publishers have drawn their supplies. Among the French writers whose novels have been deemed worthy of translation, we notice the literary firm of Erekmann and Chatrion, two of whose novels have been translated and published; Alexander Dumas, Octave Feuillet, Madame de Lesdernier, and Alphonse de Lamartine. Two or three novels by Spanish writers were also published. From the Scandinavian countries, there were novels by Miss Bremer, Emilie Carlen, and two from a new writer, a young Norwegian of great promise, Bjornstjerne Bjornson. Of the novels by American writers, which did not exceed a hundred, the larger proportion were by new writers, though some of the older novelists were not remiss in the production of new works. A few novels, standard works in our earlier literary history, such as those of Paulding, have been republished, but have met with no great success.

The following are the principal American novels of the year:

Norwood; or, Village Life in New England, by H. W. Beecher.

Proverb Stories, by Miss L. M. Alcott.

Shelter, by C. Coningsby.

Dallas Galbraith, by Mrs. R. Harding Davis.

Fairfax; or, the Master of Greenway Court, by J. Esten Cooke.

Mohun; or, the Last Days of Lee and his Paladins, by J. Esten Cooke.

Hilt to Hilt, by J. Esten Cooke.

Uncle Timothy; or, Our Bible Class, by Mrs. C. F. Corbin.

Alice Tracey; or, Faint yet Pursuing, by Mrs. S. Currier.

What Answer? by Anna Dickinson.

Sydney Adriance; or, Trying the World, by Amanda M. Douglas.

Holidays at Roselands, by Martha Farquharson.
 Rosamond Dayton, by Mrs. H. C. Gardner.
 Cousin Paul, by Jessie Glen.
 Doctor Howell's Family, by Mrs. H. B. Goodwin.
 If, Yes, and Perhaps, by Edward Everett Hale.
 Ruby's Husband, by Marion Harland (Mrs. Terhune).
 Home Stories, by Cousin Alice (Mrs. Alice B. Haven).
 The Homestead on the Hillside, and other Tales, by Mrs. Mary J. Holmes.
 Rose Mather; a Tale of the War, by Mrs. Mary J. Holmes.
 The Morrisons, by Mrs. M. Hosmer.
 Gloverson and his Silent Partner, by Ralph Keeler.
 Henry Powers, Banker, by R. P. Kimball.
 Margaret; a Story of Life in a Prairie Home, by Lyndon (Miss A. Bright).
 Edith's Ministry, by Miss Harriet B. McKeever.
 Silver Threads, by Miss Harriet B. McKeever.
 Malbrook, by Miss Harriet B. McKeever.
 Horace Wilde, by Mrs. M. J. Mallory.
 The Helpless Hand, by Capt. Mayne Reid.
 The White Gauntlet, by Capt. Mayne Reid.
 The Child-Wife, by Capt. Mayne Reid.
 Life in the West; or, Stories of the Mississippi Valley, by N. C. Meeker.
 Montalban; an American Novel.
 The Clifford Household, by J. F. Moore.
 Marrying by Lot; a Tale of the Primitive Moravians, by Charlotte B. Mortimer.
 The Shannons; or, From Darkness to Light.
 The Gates Ajar, by Miss E. Stuart Phelps.
 Callamure, by Julia Pleasants.
 Aldeane, by Laura Preston.
 Randolph Honor, by the Author of "Ingemisco."
 McCarthy Moore; or, the Fortunes of an Irish Chief, by Mrs. J. Sadlier.
 The Widow's Son, by Mrs. E. D. E. N. Southworth.
 Fair Play, by Mrs. E. D. E. N. Southworth.
 Fallen Pride, by Mrs. E. D. E. N. Southworth.
 Doubly False, by Mrs. Ann S. Stephens.
 Mabel's Mistake, by Mrs. Ann S. Stephens.
 Too True; a Story of To-day, by the Author of "The Dead Letter."
 Daisy: Sequel to "Melbourne House," by Miss E. Warner.
 Self-Made; or, Living for Those We Love, by Miss E. A. Welty.
 Albert Hastings, by M. S. Whitaker.
 The Steel Safe; or, the Stains and Splendors of New York, by H. L. Williams, Jr.
 The Gem of the Lake, by Mrs. S. A. Wright.
 Trifles for the Holidays, by H. S. Armstrong.
 The Bitter Dose, and other Stories.
 The Light of Home; a Christmas Story, by D. Brougham.
 A Christmas Story, by Caroline E. K. Davis.
 The Upward Path, by Caroline E. K. Davis.
 A Noble Sister, by Mrs. M. A. Denison.
 Orphan Anne, by Mrs. M. A. Denison.
 Golden Hills; a Tale of the Irish Famine, by the Author of "Cedar Creek."
 Lenny's Search, by H. A. D.
 The Good Mr. Bagglethorpe, by Olive Logan.
 Beechenbrook, by Mrs. M. J. Preston.
 Joanna Darling; or, the House at Breakwater, by Virginia F. Townsend.
 The Story of the White Rock Cove.
 Leslie's Confession; an Autobiography.
 Hannah; a Novel, by H. M. Moas.
 The Confederate Flag on the Ocean, by Prof. W. H. Peck.
 Diary of a Milliner, by Belle Otis. Cheap edition.
 Dolores; a Novel, by J. H. Robinson.

There were also about the usual number of cheap novels, by Starbuck, Willett, Reynolds, etc., etc.

The large class of JUVENILE BOOKS was this

year larger than ever, numbering 434 volumes, of which about ninety were reprints, the remainder being by American authors. Of the whole number, the names of the authors of 140 were not given; 81 more concealed their real names under initials, *nommes de plume*, or the veil of the authorship of some other work. Of those whose names are known, the following contributed the principal books of the class: Mrs. Martha E. Berry, two of whose books were published during the year; Miss Helen C. Weeks, who also published two; Mrs. Lucy R. Comfort, Rev. W. M. Baker, Nellie Grahame, author of three volumes; Emma Leslie, Harriet B. McKeever, two of whose books appeared in 1868, Mrs. Ann Augusta Carter, Mrs. S. P. Doughty, Miss Susan Warner (two books), Mrs. Carey Brock, Martha Farquharson (twelve volumes), C. D. Gardette, "Glance Gaylord" (the late W. S. Bradley), (three volumes); Mrs. S. S. Robbins (two volumes), Mrs. Herbert, Emma Marshall (five volumes), J. F. Moore, Mrs. H. B. Stowe, Linda Warfel, Miss Louisa M. Alcott (four volumes), Rev. W. W. Hicks, R. M. Ballantyne, Mrs. J. McNair Wright (five volumes), H. Alger, Mary D. Chellis, Helen S. Conant, Mrs. Hayden, Rev. A. McLean, Mrs. H. M. Marvin, Miss Joanna H. Matthews, three of whose "Little Bessie Books" appeared during the year, M. P. Parmelee, Mrs. Emily C. Pearson, E. Vincent, Oliver Optic (Mr. W. T. Adams), (five volumes), John Ashworth, Mrs. A. Reed, Caroline B. Southey, Fanny Taylor, Catherine M. Trowbridge (two volumes), Mrs. Caroline F. Corbin (two volumes), Miss S. M. Wells, Mary B. Este, Jean Mace, Miss Margaret E. Wilmer, Rosa Abbott Parker, J. Challen, Florence Marryatt, Harry Castleman, Clara W. T. Fry, Chauncey Giles, Sophie May (four volumes), Louise M. Thurston, Angelica B. Barrett, Mary Godolphin (four volumes, one-syllable books), Anna H. Drury, L. C. Comyer, Annie D. Cridge, Mrs. E. E. Boyd (three volumes), Mrs. Joseph Lamb (two volumes), C. Matthews (two volumes), E. Sauvage, Sydney Cox, Mrs. Helen C. Knight, Faith Latimer, E. Marlitt, C. E. Bowen, Mrs. Sophronia Carrier, D. S. Erickson, W. Everett, E. Garrett, Alice A. Holmes, Dr. Isaac I. Hayes, Rev. G. S. Mott, Madame E. De Pressensé (two volumes), Mrs. Sanborn Tenney (six volumes), Rev. H. C. Trumbull, T. S. Arthur (six volumes), John Carlin, Anna M. Diaz, Mary S. Robinson (three volumes), Mrs. S. H. Bradford, Mrs. M. E. Dodge, the late Mrs. Alice B. Haven, the late Mrs. Sherwood, Rev. W. M. Blackburn, Sarah Chester (three volumes), Caroline E. K. Davis (two volumes), A. H. Engelbach, Mrs. H. C. Gardner, Mrs. Mary J. Holmes, Rev. Elijah Kellogg, Miss S. W. Lauder, Miss I. N. Luyster (two volumes), S. H. Peabody (three volumes), H. S. Armstrong, D. Bingham, Sarah G. Connell (two volumes), Mrs. Mary A. Denison (two volumes), Marion Howard, W. H. G. Kingston, Mrs. Dr. Prentiss,

Miss Lee, Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney, C. C. Cotterill, E. D. Little, Mrs. Helen S. C. Nevius, Paul B. Du Chaillu, Sidney Daryl, Sidney Cox, W. J. Linton, F. T. Palgrave, J. Morris, John Timbs, the late Frederica Bremer, Laura Preston, Virginia F. Townsend (two volumes), Mrs. M. E. Bradley, Miss Kate J. Neely, Mrs. H. B. Goodwin (seven volumes).

There were twenty-six series or libraries of juvenile books published during the year, generally of three or six volumes each, though there were two of nine volumes and one each of ten and twenty volumes. The number of ILLUSTRATED BOOKS AND WORKS ON THE FINE ARTS was larger than usual. The following were the principal works of this class:

Select Historical Costumes. Compiled from the most Reliable Sources, by H. L. Hinton.

Old Grimes, by Albert G. Greene. Illustrated by A. Hoppin.

The Female Characters of Goethe, from the Original Drawings of W. Kaulbach. With Explanatory text by G. H. Lewes.

Hyperion; a Romance, by H. W. Longfellow. Illustrated with 24 Photographs by Frith.

The Ideal in Art, by H. Taine. Translated by J. Durand.

A Description of the New York Central Park. Superbly illustrated.

Illustrations of the Life of Martin Luther. Photographs by P. H. Labouchère. Text by J. H. Merle D'Aubigné, D. D.

The Holidays: Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. Their Social Festivities, Customs, and Carols. Illustrated by N. B. Warren.

Aesop's Fables, with 56 Illustrations from Designs by H. L. Stephens.

The Album of Language. Illustrated by the Lord's Prayer in 100 Languages, by H. G. Naphegyi.

Rural Poems of W. Barnes, with 12 full-page Illustrations.

Purgatory and Paradise. Text in French and Italian. Illustrated by G. Doré.

Dickens's Christmas Carol, with more than 30 new Illustrations by S. Eytinge, Jr.

Harper's Pictorial History of the Rebellion; 1,000 Illustrations, 2 vols., 4fo.

Kathrina, by J. G. Holland. With 70 Illustrations by Hennessy and Griswold.

Passio Christi. The Little Passion of Albert Durer, 37 Woodcuts reproduced in fac simile. Edited by W. C. Prime. Limited to 500 copies.

Longfellow's Poetical Works, Popular illustrated edition. Over 40 Illustrations.

Nothing but Leaves: a Poem, illuminated by Jean Lee.

Pictures of Edgewood; being Photographic Views, by Rockwood; with Text and Illustrative Diagrams, by D. G. Mitchel; 300 copies printed.

Locksley Hall, by Alfred Tennyson; with 19 Illustrations by Hennessy.

The Book of the Artist; Biographical and Critical Sketches of American Artists, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time, by H. T. Tuckerman. Landscape and Portrait edition. Proofs on India Paper.

Whittier's Poetical Works; Red Line edition; 12 Engravings.

Wood-side and Sea-side; Illustrated by Pen and Pencil; with Engravings from Drawings by Birket Foster, Hows, etc.

Tom Brown's School Days, by Thomas Hughes; with Drawings by Arthur Hughes, and Portrait.

The Poet and the Painter; or, Gems of Art and Song; Choice Selections from the English Poets; with 99 large Steel Engravings.

The class of MUSIC and MUSICAL COLLECTIONS presented an unusual number of excellent collections of music, the greater part of them of a religious character. The following, though not all, were the best musical publications of the year:

The Greeting: a New Collection of Glees, Quartettes, and Choruses, by L. O. Emerson.

The Education of the Voice; being Musical Instruction, Exercises, and Recreations, by Carlo Bassini.

The Clariona: a Collection of Music for Sabbath-Schools, by W. B. Bradbury.

The Cantata No. 2: a Selection of Solos, Duets, Trios, and Quartettes, from the best Masters; edited and arranged by F. H. Nash and G. F. Bristow.

The Praise-Offering: a New and Extensive Collection of Tunes for all the Metres in Use; with Anthems, etc., and an Elementary Department, by V. C. Taylor.

A Selection of Rounds, Canons, and Catches; Compiled as an Aid in Teaching, and Reading Music at Sight, by H. Carter.

The Book of Praise; or, Hymns and Tunes for Public and Social Worship; prepared under the Sanction and Authority, and in Behalf of the General Association of Connecticut.

Catechism of the Rudiments of Music, for Teachers of the Piano-forte, by James Clarke.

The Chapel Hymn Book; Containing over 400 Hymns; with the First Strain of the Melody prefixed to the Hymns, Compiled by Rev. G. A. Hubbell.

Hymn and Tune Book, for the Church and the Home; and Services for Congregational Worship. Palm-Leaves of Sacred Melody for Social Worship and Revival Occasions.

Carmina Collegensia: a Complete Collection of the Songs of the American Colleges; with Piano-forte Accompaniment, etc., collected and edited by H. R. Waite.

The Order for the Burial of the Dead, Set to Music, by W. H. Walter, Mus. Doc.

Amphion: a Collection of Four, Five, and Six-Part Songs, for Male Voices; with Piano-forte Accompaniment; Selected and arranged, by J. E. Gould. Five volumes.

An Outline of Musical Form; designed for Musical Students, by W. S. B. Mathews.

The Revivalist: a Collection of Choice Revival Hymns and Tunes, Original and Selected, by J. Hillman. Rev. L. Hartsough, Musical Editor.

Happy Hours: a Collection of Songs for Schools, Academies, and the Home Circle, by H. Kingsbury and A. A. Graley.

The Signet-Ring: a New Collection of Music and Hymns compiled for Sunday-schools, by J. P. Webster.

The Song-Cabinet: a New Singing-Book for the use of Schools, Academies, etc., by C. G. Allen.

The Alleghany Academy of Music School Song-Book: for Schools, Singing Classes, etc., containing Johnson's Method of Teaching Singing-classes, and a Collection of Songs, by A. N. Johnson.

The Spiritual Harp: a Collection of Vocal Music for the Choir, Congregation, and Social Circle, by J. M. Peebles and J. O. Bassett. E. H. Bailey, Musical Editor.

The Triumph: a Collection of Music for Classes, Schools, Families, and Choirs, edited by G. F. Root.

Chapel Melodies: a Collection of choice Hymns and Tunes for Prayer and Social Meetings, and Family Devotion, edited by S. J. Vail and Rev. R. Lowry.

The Golden Robin, for Public Schools, etc. Part I. Musical Notation. Part II. Exercises adapted

- to Physical Action. Part III. Pieces for General Use. Part IV. Sacred Music. By W. O. Perkins.
- Chapel Gems for Sunday-schools. Selected from other Publications, by G. F. Root, F. W. Root, B. R. Handy, and J. R. Murray. With Additional Pieces by D. P. Horton.
- The Tonart: a Collection of Sacred and Secular Music, with a complete Elementary Department, by E. Roberts and J. P. Morgan.
- OF BOOKS OF TRAVEL, DISCOVERY, AND ADVENTURE there were about fifty important volumes. They were the following:
- A Journey in Brazil, by Prof. and Mrs. Agassiz.
- The Albert N'Yanza, or Great Basin of the Nile, an Exploration of the Nile Sources, by Sir S. W. Baker, 2 vols.
- Exploration of the Nile Tributaries of Abyssinia, with Adventures among the Native Sword Hunters, by Sir Samuel W. Baker.
- Stories of the Gorilla Country, for Young People, by Paul B. Du Chaillu.
- Upper Mississippi; or, Historical Sketches of the Mound-Builders, the Indian Tribes, and the Progress of Civilization in the Northwest, from A. D. 1600 to 1868, by G. Gale.
- Life Among the Mormons, and a March to their Zion, with a Chapter on the Indians of the Plains and Mountains of the West, by an Officer of the United States Army.
- The Stranger in the Topics: being a Hand-book to Havana, and Guide-book for Travellers in Cuba, Puerto Rico, and St. Thomas, etc., etc. Maps.
- Life in the West; or, Stories of the Mississippi Valley, by N. C. Meeker.
- Italy, Rome, and Naples, from the French of H. Taine, by J. Durand.
- The Old World in its New Face: Impressions of Europe in 1867-'68, by H. W. Bellows, D. D. 2 vols.
- Lake George, its Scenes, etc., with an Account of Ticonderoga, Route to Schroon Lake, and the Adirondacks, and Notes on Lake Champlain, by B. F. De Costa. Map.
- Travels by Sea and Land of Alethitheras.
- Abroad: a Journal of a Tour through Great Britain and on the Continent, by J. N. Coghill.
- Going to Jericho; or, Sketches of Travel in Spain and the East, by J. F. Swift.
- Appletons' Short-Trip Guide to Europe, by Henry Morford.
- Book of Summer Resorts: Explaining where to find them, etc., by C. H. Sweetzer.
- From the Oak to the Olive: a Plain Sketch of a Pleasant Journey, by Mrs. Julia Ward Howe.
- Leaves of a Wanderer in Europe, by J. H. Pugh.
- Recollections of the Paris Exhibition of 1867, by Eugene Rimmel.
- A Complete Descriptive Guide of Long Branch, with Maps, Directory, etc., by J. H. Schenck.
- Reminiscences of European Travel, by A. P. Peabody.
- Glen Sketches at Havana, New York, with Descriptive Poems, by H. C. Winton.
- Among the Arabs: a Narrative of Adventures in Algeria, by G. Naphegyi.
- Absaraka, Homes of the Crows: being the Experience of an Officer's Wife on the Plains.
- A Thousand Miles' Walk across South America, by N. H. Bishop. Introduced by E. A. Samuels.
- Sketches Abroad with Pen and Pencil, by F. O. C. Darley.
- St. Augustine, Florida: its History, Objects of Interest, and Advantages as a Resort for Health and Recreation, by an English Visitor.
- Our Life in China, by Mrs. Helen S. C. Nevius.
- Recollections of Persons and Places in the West, by H. M. Breckenridge.
- Life among the Apaches, by J. C. Cremony.
- Stories of the Prairie and other Adventures of the Border, selected from the Works of J. Fenimore Cooper, illustrated.
- Helen on her Travels; what she Saw and what she Did in Europe.
- The Christmas Holidays in Rome, by Right Rev. W. J. Kip, Bishop of California.
- Adventures in the Apache Country: a Tour through Arizona and Sonora, with Notes on the Silver Regions of Nevada, by J. Ross Browne.
- Across the Atlantic; being Letters from Switzerland, Germany, Italy, and England, by Charles H. Haeseler, M. D.
- China and the Chinese, by Rev. John L. Nevius. Map, and Illustrations.
- Travels and Adventures in South and Central America. Life in the Llanos of Venezuela, by Don Ramon Paez.
- Cradle Lands, Egypt, Palestine, etc., by Lady Herbert. Illustrated.
- Letters of a Sentimental Idler, by Harry Harewood Leech.
- The number of books on MILITARY AND NAVAL SCIENCE was smaller than for many years past. They were:
- Siege Artillery in the Campaigns against Richmond, with Notes on the 15-inch Gun, etc., by Brevet Brigadier-General H. L. Abbott.
- The Campaigns of Lieut.-Gen. N. B. Forrest, and of Forrest's Cavalry. Portraits, Maps, and Illustrations, by Gen. T. Jordan and J. B. Pryer.
- The Special Operations of War, comprising the Forcing and Defence of Defiles and of Rivers, etc., by F. G. Lippitt.
- System of Naval Defence, by J. B. Eads, C. E.
- A Manual of Signals for the Use of Signal Officers in the Field, Military and Naval Students, etc. New edition revised and enlarged, by Bvt. Brig.-Gen. A. J. Myer.
- Of the works on AGRICULTURE the following were the principal:
- Handbook of Grape Culture; or, why, where, when and how, to Plant and Cultivate a Vineyard, Manufacture Wines, etc., by T. H. Hyatt.
- Cotton Culture, by J. B. Lyman. With a Chapter on Cotton-Seed and its Uses, by J. R. Sypher.
- The Prairie Farmer Annual.
- The American Wheat Culturist; a Practical Treatise on the Culture of Wheat, by S. E. Todd.
- The Variation of Animals and Plants under Domestication, by C. Darwin. With Preface by Prof. Asa Gray. 2 vols.
- American Cattle: their History, Breeding, and Management, by L. F. Allen.
- Farming for Boys, by the Author of Ten Acres Enough.
- Woodward's Record of Horticulture, No. 2; edited by A. S. Fuller.
- Farm-Talk: a Series of Articles on Common Farm Topics, by G. E. Brackett.
- The Percheron Horse; translated from the French of C. Du Huys.
- The Tim Bunker Papers; or, Yankee Farming, by Timothy Bunker, Esq., of Hookertown, Conn.
- Vineyard Culture, Improved and Cheapened, by A. Du Breuil, Prof., etc.; Translated by E. and C. Parker, of Longworth's Wine-House; with Notes, etc., by John A. Warder.
- The Diseases of Sheep, Explained and Described; with Remedies, etc., by H. Clok.
- Earth Closets; how to make them, and how to use them, by G. E. Waring, Jr.
- Gardening for the South; or, how to grow Vegetables and Fruits, by W. N. White.
- A Guide to the Study of Insects, and a Treatise on those injurious and beneficial to Crops, by A. S. Packard, Jr., M. D.

LORD, DANIEL, LL. D., an eminent lawyer of New York City, born there in 1795, and died there March 4, 1868. He was graduated at Yale College, in the class of 1814; studied law under the celebrated George Griffin, in New York, and at the Litchfield Law School, and was admitted to the bar in 1817. From the beginning of his practice, he was unflinching in his moral integrity and high adherence to principle; was conscientiously faithful in his duty to his clients, never coming before the court, even in the most trifling case, without thorough preparation, and undertaking no cause which he did not believe to be just. He was a diligent student of the law, especially in its civil aspects, for criminal law was not to his taste, and he rarely, if ever, undertook a case in the criminal courts; but in all the departments of commercial law, inheritances, wills, marine, admiralty, and international law, he was more thoroughly versed than any other man connected with the New York bar. He never attempted oratorical display—was not imaginative or brilliant; but his arguments were always so clear, logical, practical, and convincing, that they had great weight both with judges and juries. It resulted naturally from this, that he had a very large practice for many years, and that there were very few great civil causes before either the State or United States courts, within the last forty years, in which he was not retained on one side or the other. The Dutch Reformed and the Methodist Church cases; the so-called "Fire Cases," growing out of the great fire of December, 1835; the American Life and Trust cases; the Leake and Watts Charity case; the Mason and the Phelps Will cases; the foreign cases growing out of the financial disasters of 1837; a succession of cases involving the questions of commercial guarantee, and credit by letters of commendation; and the celebrated insurance cases, which brought up the question of contribution by general average; bank tax cases, prize cases, privateer cases, and other cases of admiralty jurisdiction, together with the vast civil business of Mr. Astor; these, and many others, constituted so wide a range of great legal questions, as have seldom or never fallen to the lot of one man to argue, even in a professional career of fifty years. His religious character was in the highest degree exemplary. He united with the Brick Presbyterian Church (Rev. Dr. Spring's) in 1833, and was chosen elder in 1834; and, in all his relations as a Christian and a church officer, he was eminently useful. Mr. Lord, through life, steadily and firmly declined all judicial, civil, or political preferment. He had devoted himself from his youth to the law, and he would accept no office or position which would in any way interfere with his duties as a lawyer. His death was the result of a paralytic attack. In 1846, Yale College conferred on him the degree of LL. D.

LOUISIANA. The Constitutional Conven-

tion, which met at New Orleans on the 23d of November, 1867, continued in session until the 9th of March, 1868. On the 24th of December, it had passed an ordinance providing for a tax on property of one mill per cent. to defray the expenses of the convention. In order to carry this provision into effect it was found necessary to pass a supplemental ordinance, directing the sheriffs and collectors to give notice of the tax to the tax-payers of the State, and imposing a penalty of 25 per cent. additional in case full payment was not made in thirty days after such notice. The collectors and sheriffs were further ordered, in case of such default, to seize and sell any movable or immovable property to satisfy this special assessment. A committee was afterward appointed to confer with General Hancock for the purpose of ascertaining whether he would use his authority to assist in collecting this tax. He replied that the ordinance made sufficient provision for its collection, and, if any of the officers intrusted with the duties pertaining thereto were forcibly resisted, the "major-general commanding will promptly use the military power to maintain the supremacy of the law. To this extent he has authority to act, but it is not his province to interfere in the matter in any other way." Another application was made to the military commander through a special committee to know what he would do in case the civil courts should interfere with the collectors in the discharge of their duties. He replied that "it would be highly improper for him to anticipate any illegal interference of the courts in the matter. Whenever a case arises for the interposition of the powers vested in the commanding general by the acts of Congress, he will promptly exercise them for the preservation of law and order." The tax was collected slowly, and on the 3d of March an ordinance was adopted extending the time for exacting the penalty to the 20th of that month, and making the following additional provision: "That the warrants issued by the authority of this convention for the payment of per diem and mileage of delegates, and the pay of its officers, except the official printer or printers, shall be receivable in payment of all taxes and licenses due to the State of Louisiana, and, when paid in the Treasury of the State on account of any State tax or license, the same shall be placed by the Treasurer of the State to the debit of the convention fund on his books, and shall be paid out of said fund for the benefit of the general fund of the State."

A variety of propositions were submitted in the convention, intended to secure certain social rights to citizens "without regard to race or color," which excited considerable discussion, and finally resulted in the adoption of the following as the 13th article of the constitution:

All persons shall enjoy equal rights and privileges while travelling in this State upon any conveyance o

a public character. And all business places, and those otherwise carried on by charter, or from which a license is required by either State, parish, or municipal authority, shall be deemed places of a public character, and shall be open to the accommodation and patronage of all persons, without distinction or discrimination on account of race or color.

The provision of the constitution relating to citizenship is in these words:

ARTICLE 2. All persons, without regard to race, color or previous condition, born or naturalized in the United States, and residents of this State one year, are citizens of this State. The citizens of the State owe allegiance to the United States, and this allegiance is paramount to that due the State. They shall enjoy the same civil, political, and public rights and privileges, and be subject to the same pains and penalties.

The ordinance of secession is declared to be null and void, and all former constitutions to be superseded, but all laws in force and contracts subsisting, not inconsistent with the new constitution, are pronounced valid, with the exception of certain specified acts of the late Legislature.

As in the reconstruction conventions in most of the other States, the topics which excited the most earnest debate were those connected with the subjects of voting and holding office. Some delegates opposed all restriction founded on the part which citizens had taken in the late civil war. The provisions finally adopted on these important points are contained in the following sections:

ARTICLE 98. Every male person, of the age of twenty-one years or upward, born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, and a resident of this State one year next preceding an election, and the last ten days within the parish in which he offers to vote, shall be deemed an elector, except those disfranchised by this constitution, and persons under interdiction.

ART. 99. The following persons shall be prohibited from voting and holding any office: All persons who shall have been convicted of treason, perjury, forgery, bribery, or other crime punishable in the penitentiary, and persons under interdiction. All persons who are estopped from claiming the right of suffrage by abjuring their allegiance to the United States Government, or by notoriously levying war against it, or adhering to its enemies, giving them aid or comfort, but who have not expatriated themselves, nor have been convicted of any of the crimes mentioned in the first paragraph of this article, are hereby restored to the said right, except the following: those who held office, civil or military, for one year or more, under the organization styled "the Confederate States of America;" those who registered themselves as enemies of the United States; those who acted as leaders of guerrilla-bands during the late rebellion; those who, in the advocacy of treason, wrote or published newspaper articles or preached sermons during the late rebellion; and those who voted for and signed an ordinance of secession in any State. No person included in these exceptions shall either vote or hold office until he shall have relieved himself by voluntarily writing and signing a certificate setting forth that he acknowledges the late rebellion to have been morally and politically wrong, and that he regrets any aid and comfort he may have given it; and he shall file the certificate in the office of the Secretary of State, and it shall be published in the official journal: *Provided*, That no person, who, prior to the 1st of January, 1868, favored the execution of the laws of the United States popu-

larly known as the reconstruction acts of Congress, and openly and actively assisted the loyal men of the State in their efforts to restore Louisiana to her position in the Union, shall be held to be included among those who are herein excepted. Registrars of voters shall take the oath of any such person as *prima facie* evidence of the fact that he is entitled to the benefit of this proviso.

ART. 100. Members of the General Assembly and other officers, before they enter upon the duties of their offices, shall take the following oath or affirmation: I, A B, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I accept the civil and political equality of all men, and agree not to attempt to deprive any person or persons, on account of race, color, or previous condition, of any political or civil right, privilege, or immunity enjoyed by any other class of men; that I will support the Constitution and laws of the United States, and the constitution and laws of this State, and that I will faithfully and impartially discharge and perform all the duties incumbent on me as — according to the best of my ability and understanding; so help me God.

The constitution provides that the State election of Louisiana shall be held on the first Monday in November, and the General Assembly shall meet on the first Monday in January. The Governor holds his office for four years, and is ineligible for a second term immediately following the first. The members of each branch of the Legislature are chosen for two years. With regard to eligibility to office, the following was embodied in the organic law of the State:

ART. 18. Every elector, under this constitution, shall be eligible to a seat in the House of Representatives; and every elector who has reached the age of twenty-five years, shall be eligible to the Senate: *Provided*, That no person shall be a Representative or Senator, unless at the time of his election he be a qualified elector of the representative or senatorial district from which he is elected.

The judicial power of the State is vested in a Supreme Court, District Courts, Parish Courts, and justices of the peace. The Supreme Court, except in certain specified cases, has only an appellate jurisdiction. It is composed of a chief justice and four associate justices, appointed by the Governor for a term of eight years. The judges of all the lower courts are elected by the people.

Among the constitutional provisions affecting the general policy of the State government is the following, relating to the contraction of a public debt:

ART. 111. Whenever the General Assembly shall contract a debt exceeding in amount the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, unless in case of war, to repel invasion or suppress insurrection, it shall in the law creating the debt provide adequate ways and means for the payment of the current interest and of the principal when the same shall become due, and the said law shall be irrepensible unless principal and interest be fully paid, or unless the repealing law contains some adequate provision for the payment of the principal and interest of the debt.

In addition to the constitution itself, the convention passed an ordinance providing for the election, at which the vote was to be taken on its ratification, and the officers chosen to administer the government under it at the same time. The days fixed for this purpose were the

17th and 18th of April. It is furthermore provided that all officers chosen at such election should enter upon the discharge of their duties on the second Monday after the returns of their election were officially promulgated, or as soon thereafter as qualified, but their regular terms of office were to date from the first Monday in November following their election. The same ordinance provides for the first meeting of the General Assembly in the city of New Orleans, on the third Monday after the official promulgation of the results of the election, and declares that it shall "proceed, immediately upon its organization, to vote upon the adoption of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proposed by Congress, and passed June 13, 1866;" and that "said Legislature shall not have power to enact any laws relative to the per diem of members, or any other subject, after organization, until said constitutional amendment shall have been acted upon."

Meantime the State of Louisiana continued under the military authority of the United States, which was exercised in a spirit of moderation by General Hancock. The following order, issued on the first day of the year, indicates the views taken by this commander of the power which had been delegated to him by the Federal Government:

General Orders, No. 1.

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
NEW ORLEANS, January 1, 1868. }

Applications have been made at these headquarters implying the existence of an arbitrary authority in the commanding general touching purely civil controversies.

One petitioner solicits this action, another that, and each refers to some special consideration of grace or favor which he supposes to exist, and which should influence this department.

The number of such applications and the waste of time they involve make it necessary to declare that the administration of civil justice appertains to the regular courts. The rights of litigants do not depend on the views of the general—they are to be adjudged and settled according to the laws. Arbitrary power, such as he has been urged to assume, has no existence here. It is not found in the laws of Louisiana or Texas—it cannot be derived from any act or acts of Congress—it is restrained by a constitution and prohibited from action in many particulars.

The major-general commanding takes occasion to repeat that, while disclaiming judicial functions in civil cases, he can suffer no forcible resistance to the execution of process of the courts.

By command of Major-General HANCOCK.

GEO. L. HARTSUFF, Assistant Adjutant-General.

On the 20th of December, 1867, an investigation had been ordered into certain charges of malfeasance in office, which had been made against William Baker, Street Commissioner for the city of New Orleans; and at about the same time Arthur Gastinel, Recorder for the Second District, was pronounced ineligible to that office by the Supreme Court of the State. On the 5th of February, General Hancock issued an order, removing both these individuals from office. A day or two after this action was taken, the City Council of New Orleans adopted

a resolution providing for the immediate election of a recorder, to fill the place of Mr. Gastinel, although they were reminded of the order of General Sheridan, forbidding elections without the authority of the commanding general until reconstruction was completed. No sooner did General Hancock hear of this action of the City Council, than he removed all the members who voted for the project, nine in number, two white men and seven negroes, and telegraphed the circumstances to General Grant. The commander-in-chief immediately replied, directing General Hancock to suspend his order and report the case more fully. At the close of his answer to this demand, General Hancock uses the following language:

At any rate, my self-respect as commander of this district made it absolutely necessary that I should take summary measures, regardless of the consequences with which partisans might threaten me. I do not know what fuller report could be furnished in this case, for all the papers explaining my action have been sent to you. To suspend my order would be to destroy my usefulness here—and, in such want of a sense of what I consider due to me and my position in this matter, would necessitate a respectful request to be relieved from my present command. Although I have been here seventy days, this is the second occasion I have taken on my own responsibility to make a removal—the first one, two days previous to this—both for grave causes, reported to you in detail by telegraph; and while I fully recognize the power of the general-in-chief to disapprove my action, I respectfully request that, as I have acted upon a full knowledge of the fact, the general-in-chief may delay his action until he can inform me what further papers or information he may desire in addition to what has already been furnished, for a full understanding of the case under consideration.

My action in the premises was originally based upon the first supplementary reconstruction act of July 19, 1867. I await your reply before issuing the order.

On receiving this communication, General Grant replied that if the former order had been executed and the new appointees were in office, that order need not be revoked; but some days later new orders were received by the district commander, directing that the members of the New Orleans City Council who had been removed should be reinstated, which was accordingly done on the 27th of February, and subsequently Street Commissioner Baker was also restored by direction of General Grant. On transmitting the correspondence on this matter to Washington, General Hancock asked to be relieved from his command.

The Treasury of the State at the opening of the year was financially embarrassed to the last degree, and the necessity was severely felt of some efficacious measure of relief. The State Auditor had reported to General Hancock in December the condition of the finances, and after speaking of some attempts to relieve the Treasury, which had failed, he said: "It now becomes evident that, unless something is done, the wheels of government must stop; the present indebtedness of the State is such that, under the present revenue laws, the debt cannot be paid." The claims upon the Treasury at the close of the year 1867 were \$1,313,000 in

excess of its receipts. The Governor, in an official communication to the military commander, declared that the State Treasurer was totally bankrupt, that no adequate means were provided to meet the current expenses, and that, unless some remedy were applied, "the machinery of civil government in the State must stop." General Hancock regarded the emergency so pressing, and prompt action so indispensable to prevent anarchy and confusion, that he determined to use his authority for the relief of the State, and on the 22d of February issued an order containing the following provisions:

1. That, from and after this day, all the licenses on trades, professions, and occupations, the revenues, dues and taxes, of the State of Louisiana, shall be payable and collected in United States legal-tender Treasury notes. It is made the duty of the State Treasurer, and of all other persons charged with these collections, to exact payments as above.

2. The Auditor and Treasurer of the State shall be required to keep a special and separate account of all dues, taxes, funds, or other public moneys, which shall be received by them, hereafter, from any and all collectors of taxes, or from other sources; and it shall be their duty to appropriate the same to the payment of the salaries of the judicial, executive, and civil officers of the State; and to pay and discharge all the appropriations made in favor of the charitable institutions, the free public schools, for the rent of the Mechanics' Institute, and for the support of the State convicts. The act of the Legislature making appropriations for the general expenses of the State ending the 31st of December, 1867, so far as the appropriations therein set forth apply to the above enumerated officers and institutions, will be adopted by the said Treasurer and Auditor, and other officers, as if the said Legislature had passed the same act providing for the year 1868, making appropriations for the objects hereinbefore specified in this order, for the sums contained in said act; provided, however, that the Treasurer of the State shall not pay any other outstanding warrants or other obligations of the State than those that are issued against appropriations for the last quarter of the year 1867, restricting himself, in the payment of these last-mentioned obligations, to those applicable to, and issued in favor of, the officers and institutions hereinbefore referred to in this order, and for whose special benefit and protection this order provides, and for no others.

3. For the purpose of carrying out this order without delay, the tax-collectors throughout the State of Louisiana will report immediately, under oath, to the State Treasurer, the kinds and amounts of funds and moneys collected by them up to this date.

A few days later, another order appeared, declaring that the foregoing provisions should not be construed as applying to taxes due prior to the year 1867, and directing that all State notes then in the Treasury, or thereafter received, should be destroyed; and it was further ordered that

3. Whenever, under Special Orders No. 40, a sufficient sum shall have been collected to satisfy the purposes expressed in said order, and for the period specified therein, any further receipts into the Treasury may be applied to the liquidation of other obligations impaired by said order, as if the same had not been issued.

General Hancock's action in this matter was severely criticised in the Constitutional Convention then in session, but appears to have given general satisfaction.

Military orders, containing full directions concerning the registration of qualified voters, and the holding of the election on the 17th and 18th of April, to vote on the ratification of the constitution, were issued on the 10th and 11th of March, by General Hancock. The following are among the more important provisions of the election order:

9. The sheriff of each parish is made responsible for the preservation of good order, and the perfect freedom of the ballot at the various election precincts in his parish. To this end he will appoint a deputy—who shall be duly qualified under the laws of the State—for each precinct in the parish, who will be required to be present at the place of voting during the whole time the election is being held. The said deputies will promptly and fully obey every demand made upon their official services, in preserving the peace and good order, by the Commissioners of Election. Deputies appointed in accordance with the foregoing will be paid the same as commissioners, on accounts approved by the registrar, out of the reconstruction fund.

As an additional measure to secure the purity of the election, each commissioner and registrar is hereby clothed, during the election, with authority to call upon the civil officers of the parish to make arrests, and, in case of failure of the aforesaid civil officers, are empowered to perform their duties during the election. They will make full report of such failures on the part of civil officers to the commanding general, Fifth Military District.

10. All places where intoxicating liquors are retailed will be closed on the days of election, and such sale of liquors is prohibited during said election days.

11. Military interference with elections, "unless it shall be necessary to keep the peace at the polls," is prohibited by law; and no soldiers will be allowed to appear at any polling-place, unless as citizens of the State they are registered as voters, and then only for the purpose of voting; but the commanders of posts will be prepared to act promptly if the civil authorities fail to preserve the peace.

14. In case of questions arising as to the right of any individual to be registered, the person deeming himself aggrieved is entitled to his appeal from the decision of the Board, and the Boards are directed to make a full statement of the facts in such cases, and to forward the same to these headquarters without unnecessary delay.

15. Should Congress enact hereafter that at the approaching election votes shall also be cast for State and other officers, the same registrars and commissioners will act under this order for the election of said officers. In such an event, orders will issue from these headquarters notifying the qualified voters that such an election is authorized.

General Hancock was relieved of the command of the Fifth Military District and transferred the same to General J. J. Reynolds on the 18th of March, and a few days later the position was assumed by Brevet Major-General R. C. Buchanan.

The following order relating to the election was issued by General Buchanan after the passage of the act of Congress of March 12th:

Special Orders, No. 63.

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
NEW ORLEANS, LA., March 25, 1868. }

1. By an act of Congress, which became a law March 12, 1868, it is enacted "that hereafter any election authorized by the act passed March 23, 1867, entitled 'An act supplementary to "An act to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States," passed March 2, 1867, and to facilitate their restora-

tion, shall be decided by a majority of the votes actually cast; and, at the election in which the question of the adoption or rejection of any constitution is submitted, any person duly registered in the State may vote in the election district where he offers to vote when he has resided therein for ten days next preceding such election, upon presentation of his certificate of registration, his affidavit or other satisfactory evidence, under such regulations as the district commanders may prescribe;" and

"That the Constitutional Convention of any of the States mentioned in the acts to which this is amendatory, may provide that, at the time of voting upon the ratification of the constitution, the registered voters may vote also for members of the House of Representatives of the United States, and for all elective officers provided for by the said constitution; and the same election officers who shall make the return of the votes cast on the ratification or rejection of the constitution, shall enumerate and certify the votes cast for members of Congress."

In accordance with the terms of this act, an election will be held in the State of Louisiana for members of the House of Representatives of the United States, and for such State, judicial, parish, and municipal officers and members of the General Assembly as are provided for in the constitution to be submitted to the people for ratification.

This election will be in all respects a part of the election heretofore ordered in Special Orders No. 55, dated March 12, 1868, from these headquarters, subject only to such modifications as may be required by the above-mentioned act of Congress.

Any person duly registered in the State of Louisiana may vote in any election district, ward, or precinct, provided he has resided for ten days, next preceding the election, in the district, ward, or precinct, where he offers to vote, upon presentation of his certificate of registration, or, in case of his having lost such certificate, upon his affidavit of his registration, in which shall be set forth the fact of such loss, and that he has not voted before at the present election, or upon such other evidence of these facts as may be satisfactory to the Commissioners of Election.

The ballots to be cast "for" or "against" the constitution shall have on them—printed or in writing—the names of the several officers voted for under its provisions, and the returns of the election will be made to the commanding general, as directed in paragraph 5, of Special Order No. 55, above referred to. By command of

Major-General R. C. BUCHANAN.
GEORGE L. HARTSUFF, Assistant Adjutant-General.

As the time appointed for the election drew near, some organized efforts were made, by those opposed to the congressional scheme of reconstruction, to defeat the ratification of the constitution. An address to the people was published by the Democratic State Central Committee, denouncing in the strongest terms the policy pursued by the Federal Government toward the Southern States, and calling upon the conservative people of the State to send delegates to a convention to be held at New Orleans on the 6th of March. The convention met in pursuance of this call, but made no nominations for the State offices. The sentiments of the party may be gathered from the following resolutions, unanimously adopted at this convention.

Whereas, The people of Louisiana are immediately threatened with the consummation of a policy involving their degradation and ruin, promising the destruction of their material interests, intending the overthrow of all constitutional safeguards, aiming at the perversion of every social, educational, and gov-

ernmental institution, and obliterating every vestige of American civilization in this State, for the notorious purpose of recuperating the waning fortunes and maintaining the supremacy of a distrusted, ambitious, and vindictive party; and

Whereas, It is the duty of every citizen to lend his energy and influence to every effort, and his voice to every protest against the imminent consummation of a scheme so audacious, revolutionary, and destructive, the incipient consequences of which have been beggary, wretchedness, and starvation, and the fomenting of bitter animosities, and the matured results of which will be debasing despotism, or licentious anarchy, disgraceful to the country which tolerates, and ruinous to the people who endure it: therefore be it

Resolved, That we invite all conservative citizens, regardless of past political attachments or differences, to unite with the national Democratic party in the State and throughout the South, and that we cordially approve of the views promulgated in the address of the Democratic State Central Committee.

Resolved, That we recommend to all conservative citizens the propriety of immediately initiating a thorough organization in all the parishes of the State and the wards of the city, preparatory to the electoral contests in which they will be called upon to take part.

Resolved, That we will unite with the national Democratic party in any policy which may be adopted to preserve the threatened integrity of the Executive and Judicial Departments of the Government, and to counteract the designs of a relentless and tyrannical party to subvert the constitution and to convert our republican and democratic institutions into a centralized despotism erected on the ruins of public liberty, personal rights, and the sovereignty of the States.

Resolved, That we cannot refrain from expressing our gratitude to the Democratic party of the North for their zealous, earnest, and persistent vindication of constitutional freedom and personal liberty; that, although, under the fatal influence of the reconstruction laws, we witness the decline of commerce, the decay of agricultural industry, and the paralysis of enterprise; and, although, in the success of the reconstruction policy of the dominant party, we can anticipate only a confirmation of these sad results, and the final lapse of Caucasian civilization into African barbarism, yet we hopefully declare to our Democratic friends and brethren of the North that the spirit of the people of this State has been revived by the late cheering and auspicious Democratic successes; and that upon these successes we base an abiding confidence in the wisdom and patriotism of the American people, and in their firm determination to preserve the guarantees of a constitutional Union and the safeguards of public liberty.

Resolved, That the Democracy of Louisiana, remembering the past, only to be admonished by its misfortunes of the inestimable value of a government based upon constitutional law, do earnestly desire the restoration of civil supremacy as the best guarantee for the preservation of the Union and the promotion of the prosperity and business of our people.

Resolved, That we recognize law based upon the constitution as our only sovereign, and to it, and it alone, can freemen be expected to yield a cheerful submission.

Resolved, That in the declaration of the above sentiments we expressly disavow any motive or feeling of disrespect toward the gallant soldier and patriot, Major-General Hancock, commanding the Fifth Military District, or to his administration as a civil and military ruler, for in him we recognize one who unites in an eminent degree the character of a gentleman, a soldier, and a statesman.

The only Democratic candidates before the people formed a ticket suggested by the State

Central Committee of the party. The freedmen generally showed a disposition to exercise the right of suffrage which had been conferred upon them, and in many instances organized political clubs, to secure concert of action. These organizations were looked upon with apprehension by some of the citizens, as evincing a disposition to show hostility to those who were opposed to their enfranchisement. There were also rumors of bands of persons in different parts of the State, formed for the purpose of preventing the negroes from voting at the election. To prevent the collision of these different classes of persons, who imagined their interests to be opposed, the commanding general thought fit to publish the following documents:

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
NEW ORLEANS, LA., April 14, 1868. }

To the People of Louisiana:

Whereas, It has been reported to the commanding general of this military district that evil-disposed persons, in various parts of the State of Louisiana, are preparing to cause disturbances and riots at the polls during the coming election, to be held on the 17th and 18th instant, and, as the right to vote peaceably is an inheritance belonging to the people, not to be interfered with: therefore, all persons, of whatsoever condition, are hereby cautioned and directed to keep the peace on that occasion, and to avoid and discountenance all acts which may tend to prevent a full and accurate expression of the will of the people in the matters then to be decided by their votes. The laws must and shall be enforced. All men entitled to vote must be allowed to exercise this privilege, and will be protected in so doing.

The necessity for military interference for the purpose of keeping order should not arise; but, if it becomes necessary, all are notified that proper measures have been taken for the protection of each in the exercise of his legal rights. Under existing orders the sheriffs of the several parishes are charged with the preservation of good order at the polls, and they are notified that this duty must be faithfully performed by them, on penalty of such punishment as the laws of the country have provided. They are armed with ample authority for the purpose, and it is expected that they will exercise it fully, but kindly, and thus secure a quiet election.

ROBERT C. BUCHANAN, Brevet Major-General,
United States Army, Commanding.

Special Orders, No. 79.

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
NEW ORLEANS, April 14, 1868. }

[Extract.]

2. The attention of all concerned is hereby called to the orders heretofore issued from these headquarters, forbidding the carrying of fire-arms, which orders must be rigidly adhered to. Until after the coming election no political processions at night will be permitted in the streets of this city, and any political meetings will be attended quietly, and without parades or unnecessary ceremonies.

All persons arrested by civil authorities for disturbances at the polls, or for riotous and disorderly conduct at other places in the city, on the days of the election, will not be released until after the election, or by orders from these headquarters.

By command of

Brevet Major-General R. C. BUCHANAN.
GEORGE L. HARTSUFF, Asst. Adjt.-General.

The following order appeared soon after the election:

Circular No. 11.

HEADQUARTERS BUREAU OF REFUGEES, }
FREEDMEN, AND ABANDONED LANDS, STATE OF }
LOUISIANA, NEW ORLEANS, LA., April 22, 1868. }

It having been reported to the Assistant Commissioner of the Bureau that freedmen, who are laboring on plantations under regular contract, are being discharged by their employers, on account of their participation in the existing political contest in this State, all such employers are hereby notified that no action of this sort will be tolerated by this Bureau, and any planter who shall discharge a freedman from his employ for such cause will be held bound by the terms of his contract with such freedman. If the contract is on shares the freedman will be held to be entitled to his share of the proceeds of the crop when sold. If for wages, the freedman will be entitled to receive wages from the date of his discharge, in addition to the amount due him at that date, as provided for by existing State laws. By order of

Brevet Major-General R. C. BUCHANAN,
United States Army, Assistant Commissioner.

WM. H. STERLING, Captain First United States Infantry, Acting Assistant Adjutant-General.

The election passed off without any serious disturbance, and resulted in the ratification of the constitution, by a vote of 51,737 in its favor to 39,076 against it, giving a majority of 12,661 for the ratification, out of a total vote of 80,813. Henry C. Warmouth received a majority of the votes for Governor, the ballot standing 64,941 for Warmouth, and 38,046 for Taliaferro, also a Republican, out of a full vote of 106,537.

Some doubt existed as to whether the ordinance of the Constitutional Convention authorized the election of the municipal officers of the cities. This question was submitted by General Buchanan to the authorities of the city of New Orleans, and the judges, Whittaker and Buchanan, to whom it was referred, gave opinions directly opposed to each other. The election in that city was, however, held, and resulted in the election of Mr. Conway, the Democratic candidate as mayor; but Mr. Heath, the former mayor, refused to surrender the office. General Buchanan found the means of inducing Mr. Heath to transfer the books and keys of his office to the new incumbent, which was only done, however, by putting him under arrest and placing him in the custody of the chief of police. A writ of *quo warranto* was sued out by Mr. Heath against Mr. Conway, but, before the case came to trial, General Buchanan's course in the matter received the sanction of General Grant, and the district commander informed the court in which the proceeding had been instituted, that "under the authority vested in the brevet major-general commanding, by the reconstruction laws, the result of such a writ, if favorable to the relator, would practically amount to nothing; for, as he was a military appointee and not a candidate, he has no ground upon which to base his claim." The proceedings were, therefore, discontinued.

The registrars of the State proposed, after the result of the election was made known by military order, to proceed to install the newly-elected officers in accordance with the provisions of the ordinance of the Constitutional

Convention relating to that matter, but were informed by General Buchanan that no such course could be pursued without his permission. He furthermore declared that the officers-elect could not enter upon their duties by virtue of their election until November, and that the Legislature should not meet until the constitution had been accepted by the Federal Congress.

On the 25th of June the act of Congress, for the admission of Southern States, became a law, and Louisiana was once more restored to her place in the Union of States. To avoid any question as to who should exercise the offices of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor after the convening of the Legislature, the district commander was directed by General Grant to remove the former incumbents by military order and appoint the individuals lately elected to those positions as their successors. This was accordingly done on the 27th of June, and on the 29th the Legislature assembled at New Orleans in pursuance of notice given to the members who had been elected by the commanding general. The Senate was composed of 20 Republicans and 16 Democrats, and in the House of Representatives there were 56 Republicans to 45 Democrats.

Before the meeting of the Legislature, General Buchanan had applied to General Grant to know whether the members of that body would be required to take any other oath than that prescribed in the constitution. The commander-in-chief gave it as his opinion that no other oath should be required, and his decision was announced to the Assembly when it met for organization. The Lieutenant-Governor of the State, Oscar J. Dunn, who was a colored man, nevertheless announced in the Senate that none could be regarded as qualified Senators without taking the test-oath prescribed by the act of Congress of 1862, and a similar decision was given by the temporary chairman in the House of Representatives, also a colored man. This decision excluded nearly all the Democratic members. On the second day of the session the names of none of the members were called except such as had taken the test-oath. The same day the following communication was received:

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
NEW ORLEANS, LA., June 30, 1868. }

To O. J. Dunn, Lieutenant-Governor, Officer Presiding of the Senate of the State of Louisiana:

SIR: I am directed by the general commanding this district to furnish you with a copy of the following telegram just received from General Grant:

"I have no orders at present to give, but I repeat to you as heretofore, that the members of the Louisiana Legislature are only required to take the oath prescribed by the constitution, and are not required to take the test-oath prescribed in the reconstruction acts. Generals Meade and Canby are acting on this view of the case.

"U. S. GRANT, General, U. S. A."

General Buchanan directs that the oath prescribed by the constitution, and no other, will be required of

the members of the House over which you are now presiding.

JOHN B. JOHNSON,
Brevet Lieut.-Col., U. S. A., Ass't Sec. Civil Affairs.

This was, however, disregarded. On the 1st of July a great crowd of people gathered about the doors of the Mechanics' Institute, where the Legislature sat, to demand the admission of the Democratic members to their seats. The whole police force of the city and a regiment of artillery were stationed in the adjoining square to preserve order. Under the pressure of such surroundings, the committee to whom had been referred the question of exacting the test-oath reported that the action of the presiding officers should be sustained, but that due respect for the general commanding the armies of the United States induced them to recommend a discontinuance of the test-oath. It was accordingly discontinued, the Democratic members took their seats, and the crowd outside quietly dispersed. A committee on elections was appointed in each branch of the Legislature, and several seats were contested in the course of the session.

The first acts of the Assembly after it was duly organized were the adoption of the amendment to the Federal Constitution, known as article 14, and the choice of Senators to the Congress of the United States. The Senators elected were Wm. P. Kellogg and John S. Harris. On the 13th of July Henry C. Warmouth was inaugurated Governor of the State in due form. He then immediately apprised General Buchanan of the ratification of the fourteenth amendment, and that officer at once issued the following order, turning the administration of civil affairs over to the duly-constituted authorities:

Special Orders, No. 154.

HEADQUARTERS, FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, }
NEW ORLEANS, LA., July 13, 1868. }

[Extract.]

2. The commanding general having been officially notified of the ratification of the 14th article of amendment to the Constitution of the United States, by the Legislature of the State of Louisiana, on the 9th inst., it becomes his duty, under the act of Congress which became a law June 25, 1868, and the orders of the General of the Army, to announce to the people of the State, and to the troops under his command, that the provisions of the reconstruction acts of Congress cease to operate in Louisiana from this date. Military authority will no longer be exercised under the reconstruction acts in said State, and all officers commanding posts or detachments are forbidden to interfere in civil affairs, unless upon a proper application by the civil authorities to preserve the peace, or under instructions duly received from the commanding general of the district. Military law no longer exists, the civil law is supreme.

All civil officers, now acting under authority of appointments from these headquarters, will at once transfer their offices, with the records, funds, and property pertaining thereto, to their successors who have been declared duly elected, and who have qualified under the laws of the State. All other records properly belonging to the State will be transferred to the proper State officers.

The commanding general cannot sever the relations heretofore existing between the State and himself, without congratulating the people upon an event

which fully restores Louisiana to her former position among the other States of the Union, and to all her rights under the constitution.

Peace and quiet marked the late election, showing the softening influences of mutual forbearance. Should such forbearance animate the councils of the State, the era of kind feeling will return, and the highest prosperity of the people will be attained.

That this may be the result under the guidance of a merciful Providence, is his devout and earnest prayer. May her restoration to the benefits of our beloved Union mark the commencement of a new era of prosperity and happiness for her people. * *

By command of Bvt. Maj.-Gen. R. C. BUCHANAN.
THOS. H. NEILL, Major Twentieth Infantry, Brevet
Brig.-General U. S. A., A. A. A. G.

Some days later the following appeared:

General Orders, No. 1.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT LOUISIANA, }
NEW ORLEANS, LA., August 4, 1868. }

1. In obedience to paragraph 3, of General Orders No. 55, Headquarters of the Army, Adjutant General's Office, Washington, July 23, 1868, the command of the Fifth Military District—to consist of the State of Texas—is transferred to Brevet Major-General J. J. Reynolds, commanding the District of Texas.

The records pertaining to the District of Texas will be transferred to the headquarters of the new Fifth Military District.

2. Pursuant to paragraph 4, of the above-mentioned order, the States of Louisiana and Arkansas are organized into the Department of Louisiana, headquarters at New Orleans.

The Sub-District of Arkansas, until further orders, will be known as the District of Arkansas, and will be commanded by the senior officer serving therein, headquarters at Little Rock.

The commanding officer of the District of Arkansas will immediately make the necessary returns of troops serving in his district to these headquarters. The chiefs of the staff corps in his district will immediately report to the chiefs of staff of the Department of Louisiana the amount and condition of the supplies on hand.

All stated reports and returns of the Districts of Louisiana and Arkansas, called for by the Revised Army Regulations, will hereafter be made to headquarters Department of Louisiana.

By command of Bvt. Maj.-Gen. R. C. BUCHANAN.
THOS. H. NEILL, A. A. A. G.

The sessions of the Legislature continued from day to day until the 20th of October, and a great variety of laws were enacted, many of which had in view the restoration of the regular working of civil government. An attempt was made to establish a constabulary system throughout the State. This did not succeed, but a bill was passed authorizing the Governor to appoint a board of five police commissioners for the city and parish of New Orleans, Jefferson City, and the parish of St. Bernard, with full powers to appoint and remove the police force of the city. The measure was called the Metropolitan Police Bill, and authorized the Board of Commissioners to require aid from citizens and the militia, and to appoint special policemen at pleasure. It also has power to estimate the sums required for carrying out this law, and to assess them upon the various municipal corporations within the district; to lease and purchase property necessary for its purposes, and to pass enact-

ments pertaining to its functions. No subordinate can be appointed who is disqualified for holding office under the fourteenth amendment. Of the five commissioners appointed by Governor Warmouth, three are negroes. A subject which occupied considerable attention in the Assembly was embodied in what was called, by its supporters, "an act to protect all persons in their civil and public rights," and by its opposers, "the social equality bill." It provided that "all persons, without regard to race, color, or previous condition, shall enjoy equal rights and privileges in their travelling, and being entertained upon any conveyance of a public character, or place of public resort, or any place of business where a license is required in this State." It also prohibited any owner of a vessel to refuse accommodation, or make any distinction, "on account of race or color," and attached a penalty of not less than \$100 for every violation of the law. This bill passed both Houses, and was vetoed by the Governor in the early part of the session, and, at a later period, was introduced again with slight variation, and met with precisely the same fate. An act was passed *allowing* the organization of a militia, to be paid the regular army wages and allowances in case it is called into actual service, but a bill to organize the militia of the State into two contingents of ten regiments each, under the command of the Governor, failed to become a law.

An elaborate measure for organizing a system of schools for the State, which was prepared by Mr. Thomas W. Conway, did not become a law, but is interesting as showing the disposition which existed to introduce certain new features into enactments designed to provide for the public education. The first section of the bill declared that the schools should be open to all children between the ages of six and twenty-one, "without distinction of race, color, or previous condition;" and a subsequent clause made the attendance of all children from eight to fourteen years of age, without fixed employment, compulsory for six months in the year, at the expense of the parents, if able to bear it, otherwise at the expense of the school-fund. There was to be a Board of Education, consisting of the Lieutenant-Governor and six persons appointed by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate. The State Superintendent was to be elected by a popular vote. Much opposition to this measure was expressed in the public prints and elsewhere, chiefly on account of the provision making the same schools free to black and white alike, and that compelling attendance. In a minority report in the Senate on the subject of appointing school directors for the city of New Orleans, Mr. A. B. Bacon used the following language:

The undersigned would further say that, though they [the schools of New Orleans] are organized with separate schools for white and black, this does not

prevent them from being fully attended by both, that the utmost cheerfulness prevails in the schools for the latter as well as the former, and that they are crowded to the extent of the means afforded for their accommodation, which can and will be greatly increased by the cheerful action of the authorities and people of the city as soon as it is ascertained that they are to have the direction of their own children, and that the management of their education is to remain without interference from the State.

The undersigned would remind the Senate that it is the duty of the State to attract its children to the school and not to drive them from it. Our political safety depends on the education of our children, of all complexions and conditions in life, and any plan or system which is calculated to cause the poorer whites, who cannot afford to pay for the education of their children, to avoid the schools, cannot fail to injure the State and to injure those for whom so vital a change is made, as well as others.

As the colored children have now as good schools as the whites, and as those attending them are satisfied therewith, and as this is true also of the great mass of the adult colored population, the only exceptions being those politically ambitious, the undersigned trusts you will agree with him, so far as this bill is concerned, in letting well enough alone.

The financial condition of the city of New Orleans demanded considerable attention in the Assembly, and several measures were introduced intended to enable the city to collect its back taxes and to redeem its notes, which had been issued to a large amount, and were fast becoming depreciated in value. A bill authorizing a loan of \$5,000,000 to be negotiated by the city passed both Houses, but was returned by the Governor without his signature, and, though passed by a two-thirds vote in the House of Representatives, failed in the Senate.

A measure which occupied a large share of attention was an act of registration which should allow to all citizens the opportunity of making the recantation permitted by section 99 of the constitution. Several bills which were introduced did not find favor with the majority of the members, but a measure finally passed on the 7th of September providing for the appointment of three registrars, and making all necessary regulations concerning the appointment of supervisors and the performance of their various duties. The section of this act which relates to the qualifications required of those who apply to be registered consists of the following series of oaths, one of which each applicant must be prepared to subscribe:

SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted, etc.,* That said Board of Registration or the supervisors so appointed by them as aforesaid, for each parish, shall require every person, before he is registered as a voter, to take and subscribe any of the following affidavits as the case may require, and any member of said Board of Registration or any supervisor is hereby authorized to administer said oaths:

I, —, do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I am twenty-one years of age, was born (or naturalized, as the case may be) in the United States, and am subject to the jurisdiction thereof, and have been a resident of the State of Louisiana since the — day of —, and a resident of this parish since the — day of —, and that I am not disfranchised

for any of the causes stated in the first paragraph of article ninety-nine of the constitution of this State.

And I do further solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I did not hold any office, civil or military, for one year or more, under the organization styled "The Confederate States of America;" that I never registered as an enemy of the United States; that I never acted as leader of guerrilla bands during the late rebellion; that I never in the advocacy of treason wrote or published newspaper articles, or preached sermons during the late rebellion; that I never voted for and signed an ordinance of secession in any State.

The last paragraph of the above affidavit shall be dispensed with, where the person applying for registration shall produce and exhibit to the registrar or supervisor the certificate of the Secretary of State, showing that he has relieved himself from the disability contained in the clauses of said affidavit, by voluntarily writing and signing a certificate setting forth that he acknowledges the late rebellion to have been morally and politically wrong, and that he regrets any aid and comfort he may have given it, and showing that such certificate has been filed in the office of the Secretary of State, and been published in the official journal, as is required by article ninety-nine of the Constitution, and the act of this General Assembly, prescribing the requisite forms of such certificate, and the registry and publication thereof, and, if the party applying for registration has lost or mislaid such certificate of the Secretary of State, he shall be required to take and subscribe in lieu thereof the following affidavit:

I, —, do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I have voluntarily written and signed a certificate setting forth that I acknowledge the late rebellion to have been morally and politically wrong, and that I regret any aid and comfort I may have given it, and that I have caused such certificate to be filed in the office of the Secretary of State, and that it has been published in the official journal, according to the requirements of article ninety-nine of the constitution, and according to the forms required by this General Assembly, and that I have either lost or mislaid the certificate of the Secretary of State showing the above facts.

That taking and subscribing the affidavits required by the preceding part of this section shall not prevent the registrars or supervisors from receiving other evidence showing that the party applying for registration is not entitled to register, and they shall have a right to examine under oath, to be administered by themselves or other competent authority, any witness to prove any fact pertinent to the right of any one to register, and shall decide from the evidence whether the party so applying is entitled to register, subject to appeal to the Board of Registration, which Board shall have power to hear and determine such appeals.

That if any person applying to register claims to be relieved from the disabilities contained in the second clause of the aforesaid affidavit under the proviso to article ninety-nine of the constitution, he shall be required to take and subscribe the following affidavit:

I, —, do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that prior to the 1st of January, 1863, I favored the execution of the laws of the United States popularly known as the reconstruction acts of Congress, and openly and actively assisted the loyal men of the State in their efforts to restore Louisiana to her position in the Union.

Any person who shall swear falsely to any of the foregoing affidavits, or any clause thereof, shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished as prescribed by law.

Provided, That it shall be competent for the Board of Registration to propound to applicants for registration such questions as they may deem proper, to be answered under oath, as to the time and manner

in which they favored the execution of said reconstruction acts, and rendered the open and active assistance above referred to, and that no acts shall be deemed such assistance or such favor to said reconstruction acts except an open advocacy of or voting for the Constitutional Convention.

The chairman of the Board of Registration, appointed by Governor Warmouth, was William Baker, who had formerly caused much dissatisfaction to the citizens of New Orleans in the office of Street Commissioner. Mr. Baker issued instructions to the supervisors of registration, giving his interpretation of the oaths prescribed by the acts of September 7th, and directing the officers to refuse to register any person concerning whom they had any doubt. With regard to the third form of oath given above, he said:

It must be borne in mind that the only way in which any person could have aided reconstruction prior to January 1, 1863, was, by favoring and voting for a convention to revise the constitution of the State, at the election held on September 27, and 28, 1867. Those who opposed and voted against a convention did not aid reconstruction, for, had a majority of the people voted against it, this State would no more have been reconstructed than is Mississippi at the present time.

This interpretation of the law gave rise to much complaint respecting the manner in which the registration was to be conducted for the coming election, and a committee was appointed in the General Assembly to investigate the action of the Board of Registrars. This committee reported unfavorably to the views taken by Mr. Baker of the restriction to be placed upon registration, and recommended a supplemental act "to define more fully the powers and duties of the Board of Registration and supervisors thereof for the registration of the qualified voters of the State." A law was accordingly passed, giving the registrars much less discretion with regard to their duties than they had been inclined to take.

The Governor saw fit, on the 19th of September, to issue a proclamation notifying the qualified voters of the State that there would be an election on the 3d of November, for the choice of electors to vote for the next President and Vice-President of the United States, and for Representatives in Congress of the State of Louisiana, and commanding all supervisors of elections, and other officers therein concerned, to hold the election for those purposes; "said election to be conducted and returns thereof made in all respects according to the provisions of the constitution of the State and laws in such cases made and provided."

The Democrats of Louisiana prepared to enter with spirit into the political contest of the autumn in unison with the party throughout the country. Their State Central Committee called a convention, to meet at New Orleans on the 30th of September, "for the purpose of filling vacancies upon the Democratic electoral ticket for electors and alternates at large, and for district electors and alternates who may be found ineligible under the Fourteenth Amend-

ment of the Constitution; for the nomination of candidates for Congress, and for the purpose of consulting together in the interests of the Democratic party in the approaching campaign." The Convention met accordingly on the 30th of September, and continued in session the greater part of three days. The Committee on Resolutions at first made a connected report "on the state of the country," in which they arraign the reconstruction policy of Congress as founded on proscription. Of the condition of things in their own State, they say:

Our present State government presents a spectacle calculated to excite no other feelings than those of shame and disgust. The ascendancy of the negroes at the ballot-box has enabled them to elect the Lieutenant-Governor and about one-half of the Legislature of their own race, and a large number of reckless and unprincipled adventurers from other States, who have no home or interest here, and are entire strangers to our laws, manners, and customs. These two classes have obtained the absolute control of the State government in all its departments, and have inaugurated a system of profligacy, bribery, and open and shameless corruption that we hope, for the honor of human nature, is without a parallel.

These men seem to labor for but two objects, to perpetuate their own power, and to devise new and hitherto unheard-of schemes for plundering the State. They have created about two hundred new offices, with enormous salaries, and have increased and, in most instances, doubled the salaries of the old ones. Under this profligate legislation the public debt is daily increased at a fearful rate; the public credit is utterly ruined, and the ability of the people to support the enormous taxation levied upon them, by men who pay no portion of it, constantly diminishing. Nor is this all. The white people of the State, smarting under a sense of wrong, groaning under an almost intolerable load of taxation, seeing their money daily squandered to enrich needy adventurers, while they are in the same proportion impoverished and ruined, are becoming hourly more restless, discontented, and hopeless of the future.

The resolutions afterward adopted by the convention were the following:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Louisiana, assembled in convention for the first time since the adjournment of the National Democratic Convention, indorse the platform of principles adopted by that body, and pledge themselves to maintain and defend them.

Resolved, That the nominations, made by that convention, of Horatio Seymour, for President, and Frank P. Blair, for Vice-President, have already received the warm approval of the Democracy of Louisiana; that we recognize in them men worthy to be the standard-bearers of constitutional liberty in this its hour of extreme peril, and we pledge them our continued, earnest, and untiring support.

Resolved, That we heartily and entirely indorse the recent letter of General Robert E. Lee and other distinguished Southern citizens to General Rosecrans, and declare that it is a truthful statement of the feelings, wishes, and purposes of the people of the South. That, while we are urged by every consideration of material and political interest to desire a full and speedy restoration to the Union, with all our constitutional rights, and we recognize, to the fullest extent, our duty to support the Constitution, to obey the laws passed in conformity with it, and to maintain the Union in its integrity.

Resolved, That we recognize the abolition of slavery as an accomplished fact, and that it is not our interest or wish ever to revive it. That we believe that the interests of the two races in the South are inseparably connected, and we pledge ourselves to protect and de-

send the colored people of this State in the full and free exercise of all their legal rights.

Resolved, That we look with indignation and alarm upon the attempts now being made by the Republican party of this State to deny the white people of the State a fair registration and a fair election; that this party ought, at least, to be satisfied with the disfranchisements contained in the present constitution; that we have an unquestionable right to demand, and we do demand, that all who are entitled to it shall be registered, and that an opportunity shall be afforded to those thus registered to cast their votes in November next; and that, if we are deprived of these clear and unquestionable rights, the responsibility for the consequence that may follow so glaring an outrage must fall upon those who thus violate and trample upon the laws they themselves have enacted.

In the disorganized condition of society which accompanied the violent transition through which the State of Louisiana was passing in her political affairs, intense partisan feeling in the more lawless elements of society led in several instances to scenes of violence and bloodshed. About the middle of July, the Governor received from Franklin and other northern parishes information of numerous assassinations and outrages in that quarter, accompanied by a petition for relief and protection for life and property. The Governor submitted the various documents which he had received, to the Legislature, with a recommendation that a call be made upon the Federal Government for military aid to suppress the disorders in the north. A joint resolution was accordingly adopted, asking that the military forces of the United States be employed in aid of the civil authorities of the State to preserve order and punish the parties guilty of the reported outrages, it being alleged that the courts were powerless to execute the laws in the disturbed localities. This resolution, however, ignored the authority of the President, and addressed its call to General Grant, and on that ground was vetoed by the Governor; but a new resolution with the proper amendments was immediately passed, and received the sanction of the Governor. This was sent to Washington by a messenger, together with a letter from Governor Warmouth, dated August 1st, detailing the alleged state of affairs in the northern parishes. In this letter the Governor says:

From the very best information, Mr. President, I have no doubt that one hundred and fifty men have been murdered in Louisiana in the last month and a half. Startling as this statement is, letters of the most reliable character fully confirm it.

There seems to be a settled determination, on the part of those men who adhered to the rebellion, to either kill or drive away Union white men and leading colored men, so as to be able to terrify the masses of the colored population into voting as they shall dictate. There is a sect organizing throughout the State as the "K. W. C.," the full details of which, the questions, oaths, etc., Colonel Dean will explain to you. It is founded for the purpose of placing and keeping the colored people in a condition of inferiority, and with a view to this end it contemplates and designs the precipitation of a conflict between the two races. Many prominent citizens of the State are leaders in it. Members are sworn, on the most binding oaths, to carry out the purposes of the organization at all costs and hazards and sacrifices, and by

measures no matter how desperate that their leaders may adopt. It has now transpired that the mob which threatened the Legislature some weeks since were only prevented from enacting it on the 30th of July, 1866, by the presence of United States troops.

It was a deliberate determination of this secret organization to assassinate the Lieutenant-Governor and Speaker of the House of Representatives, for having decided questions, preliminary to the organization of the General Assembly, in a manner obnoxious to them. There are military organizations on foot in this city under the auspices of this secret organization. They drill openly in our streets at night, or in halls, easily to be seen.

In short, I fully believe that there is meditated a bloody revolution, certainly the fruit of which would be a long-continued if not hopeless confusion and disaster and ruin to the State. The presence of the United States troops, in my judgment, is necessary to prevent this. The organization of militia is of very questionable expediency, inasmuch as it will be, under the present excited state of mind, one political party armed to the support of the government against another. I wish to avert this if possible, and respectfully request your Excellency to put two regiments of cavalry, a regiment of infantry, together with a battery of artillery, under the command of some competent officer, with orders to cooperate with me in repressing disorder and violence, arresting criminals, and protecting the officers of the law in trying them; the breaking up of all secret political organizations and a few examples of condign punishment of offenders will secure peace in the State as soon as the excitement attending the present campaign is over.

These statements were at once attacked, not only by newspapers, but by members of the Legislature, and characterized as calumnies and slanders. The *New Orleans Times* said:

It is true that disturbances have taken place in one or two of the interior parishes, but such a fact is by no means surprising, for in staid communities of the North, which have not been subjected to any of the extraordinary convulsions which have affected our people, disturbances quite as violent, and quite as bloody, have occurred.

The story of the one hundred and fifty murders within a month and a half is a wilful Radical fabrication, which no man holding a high official position should have vouched for without being furnished with abundant proofs. We are in constant communication with all portions of the State, and have no hesitation in pronouncing the story entirely unfounded. If there be any truth in it, nothing can be easier than to verify the statement, by publishing the names of the murdered parties, with places, dates, and other facts concerning their untimely taking-off. On behalf of our slandered and oppressed people, we demand this publication.

As to the bloody revolution so glibly foretold, and so religiously believed in, we can only say that the very idea is ridiculous. But if the thief believes each bush an officer, a man who feels that he has been placed in a conspicuous position by fraud and usurpation may be excused for believing, on slight testimony, that the vengeance of the people has been aroused against him and his. Warmouth is undoubtedly frightened; why, we need not ask.

The following is the letter of instructions dispatched from the headquarters of the Army at Washington to the general in command of the Department of Louisiana:

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY, ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., August 10, 1868.
Brevet Major-General B. C. Buchanan, commanding
Department of Louisiana, New Orleans: }

GENERAL: The following instructions from the Secretary of War are furnished for your government,

to the end that the necessary aid may be rendered by the United States as promptly as possible in any case of insurrection or domestic violence in the States embraced in your military department. You will keep yourself informed of the condition of affairs in said States, and communicate promptly by telegraph to the War Department, through the headquarters of the army, any facts which may make it the duty of the President, under the Constitution and laws, to employ the military force of the United States. You will also maintain such disposition of the troops under your command that they may be ready to act without delay on the receipt of the President's order stationing them at, or from time to time moving them to, points where you may have reason to apprehend necessity for their use.

The following extracts from the laws and Constitution of the United States indicate the conditions under which the military force of the United States may be employed to suppress insurrections against the government of any State. The Constitution, article 4, section 4, says:

The United States, shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive, when the Legislature cannot be convened, against domestic violence.

The act of Congress, approved February 28, 1795, says:

SECTION 1. And, in case of an insurrection in any State against the Government thereof, it shall be lawful for the President of the United States, on application of the Legislature of such State, or of the Executive when the Legislature cannot be convened, to call for such number of the militia of any other State or States, as may be applied for, as he may judge sufficient to suppress such insurrection.

SEC. 3. *Provided always, and be it further enacted,* That, whenever it may be necessary in the judgment of the President to use the military force hereby directed to be called forth, the President shall forthwith by proclamation command such insurgents to disperse and retire peaceably to their respective abodes within a limited time.

The act of Congress, approved March 3, 1807, is as follows:

Be it further enacted, etc., That in all cases of insurrection or obstruction of the laws, either of the United States or any individual State or Territory, where it is lawful for the President of the United States to call for the militia for the purpose of suppressing such insurrection, or of causing the laws to be duly executed, it shall be lawful for him to employ for the same purpose such part of the land and naval forces of the United States as shall be judged necessary, having first observed all the prerequisites of the law in that respect.

By command of General GRANT.

E. D. TOWNSEND, Assistant Adjutant-General.

On the 1st of September, General Buchanan issued a circular defining the relations of the military forces to the civil authorities within the State. The sheriff, he said, was authorized, "in cases of unlawful resistance to his authority clearly shown to exist, to require the assistance of any troops serving within his district. In such cases the military commander will be required to render the assistance called for; provided that, in the exercise of a sound discretion, he is satisfied that the necessity for such service exists." Any United States marshal, he said, had also, in cases of resistance to the laws of the United States, "a right to call upon any military commander, within his district, for such assistance as the nature of the case may require, but the military commander will, as before indicated, exercise a sound discretion in deciding upon the necessity for the use of his troops." "In no

case," he adds, "is it deemed proper to consider a mere riotous demonstration as a case calling for the interposition of the military forces, which should not be displayed until it shall be absolutely necessary for them to act."

Several cases of "riotous demonstration" occurred from time to time in the streets of New Orleans, as well as in the interior parishes. A colored orator, who attempted to make a Democratic speech, was mobbed by a radical crowd of his own color in that city soon after the application to the Federal authorities for military aid, and several instances of insignificant outbreaks were reported at about the same time. There were some apprehensions that a Republican torchlight procession, which was to parade the streets on the night of the 12th of September, would be broken up, and the following telegraphic correspondence passed between New Orleans and Washington on that day:

WASHINGTON, D. C., September 12, 1868. }

Received 11 A. M., September 12, 1868. }

Commanding General, Department of Louisiana, New Orleans, La. :

Brevet Major-General Hatch, Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, reports that there is danger of an assault upon a torchlight procession in New Orleans to-night. You will so dispose the troops under your command as to prevent such assault, and preserve the peace. Please acknowledge the receipt of this dispatch.

By command of General GRANT.

J. C. KELTON, Assistant Adjutant-General.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF LOUISIANA, }

NEW ORLEANS, LA., September 12, 1868. }

Sent 12.30, September 12, 1868.

Brevet Brigadier-General J. C. Kelton, Assistant Adjutant-General, U. S. Army, Washington, D. C. :

There is no danger, in my opinion, of any assault upon the procession to-night. The danger is, that the negroes will commence riot, and that the public property may possibly be destroyed.

I have made arrangements to protect it, and shall use all my disposable troops for the purpose. Am I to interfere any further than this? The Governor has not asked for assistance.

ROBERT C. BUCHANAN,

Brevet Major-General U. S. A., commanding.

An application for troops from the Governor was received an hour after the above was sent.

WASHINGTON, D. C., September 12, 1868. }

Received at New Orleans, September 12, 1868. }

Brevet Major-General R. C. Buchanan, commanding Department of Louisiana :

Your dispatch of this date received and approved.

J. C. KELTON,

Assistant Adjutant-General.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF LOUISIANA, }

NEW ORLEANS, LA., September 14, 1868. }

The Adjutant-General United States Army, Washington, D. C. :

As I expected, every thing passed off quietly in the Republican procession on Saturday last.

ROBERT C. BUCHANAN,

Brevet Major-General U. S. A., commanding.

The Democratic State Committee had issued a circular on the 11th, calling upon the adherents of the party to avoid all interference or connection with the demonstration, and recommending "a calm, cautious, dignified and quiet, but resolute, firm, and determined spirit."

Another serious disturbance occurred in the streets of New Orleans on the evening of the 22d of September, and occasioned great excitement among the citizens. Several colored political clubs halted in their parade in front of a restaurant, when some indiscreet person on the premises persisted in shouting for Seymour and Blair. This occasioned an attack upon the building and its occupants, and led to a furious conflict, in which several persons were killed. During the excitement which succeeded, the following proclamation appeared:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, STATE OF LOUISIANA, }
NEW ORLEANS, September 25, 1868. }

I call upon the good people of New Orleans to at once repair to their residences, and abstain from any exciting acts or conversation. The civil authorities are capable of suppressing any difficulties that may arise, and arresting any offenders, or, if found inefficient, will be promptly assisted by the military.

I call upon all political clubs to abstain from any display whatever for the present.

H. C. WARMOUTH, Governor of Louisiana.

Perhaps the most serious outbreak of all was that which took place at Opelousas, in the parish of St. Landry, on the 28th of September. Through that month there had been fears of a collision between the hostile bands of extreme political partisans in that parish, but the most influential men of both political parties had concerted measures for preserving the peace, and a large mass meeting of each party was held at Opelousas, without any disturbance having occurred. On the 27th the editor of the *St. Landry Progress*, a Republican newspaper, was flogged into a recantation of an offensive article published in his paper, and a report got abroad that he had been murdered. Thereupon numerous bands of armed negroes marched upon the town, to the great consternation of the citizens. The men of the village went out in squads to meet and disarm the negroes, but one company refused to disperse, and a fight ensued, in which several persons on each side were killed and wounded.

On the 28th of July, by order, Brevet Major-General Lovell H. Rousseau was assigned to the command of the Department of Louisiana, which includes the State of Arkansas, and General Buchanan was transferred to the command of the District of Louisiana, under Rousseau.

Another unfortunate conflict between the negroes and whites occurred on the 26th of October, in the parish of St. Bernard, and resulted in the slaughter of a family of whites, and the burning of their residence. Several negroes were also killed or wounded. The following correspondence was the result of this affair and several less important disturbances in and near the city of New Orleans:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF LOUISIANA, }
NEW ORLEANS, October 26th. }

Brevet Major-General Schofield, Secretary of War:

I have just received the following official communication, which I believe to be true, from the Governor of Louisiana, and ask for instructions in the premises:

Major-General L. H. Rousseau, commanding Department of Louisiana:

The evidence is conclusive that the civil authorities in the parishes of Orleans, Jefferson, and St. Bernard, are unable to preserve order and protect the lives and property of the people. The act of Congress prohibiting the organization of the militia in this State strips me of all power to sustain them in the discharge of their duties, and I am compelled to appeal to you to take charge of the peace of these parishes, and use your forces to that end. If you respond favorably to my request, I will at once order the sheriffs and police forces to report to you for orders. Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

HENRY C. WARMOUTH, Governor of Louisiana.

L. H. ROUSSEAU, Brevet Major-General, commanding.

WAR DEPARTMENT, }

WASHINGTON, October 26th. }

Brevet Major-General L. H. Rousseau, commanding Department of Louisiana, New Orleans:

Your dispatch of the 26th, forwarding a message from the Governor of Louisiana, and asking instructions, has been received.

You are authorized and expected to take such action as may be necessary to preserve the peace and good order, and to protect the lives and property of citizens. J. M. SCHOFIELD, Secretary of War.

The parishes named by the Governor constitute the Metropolitan Police District created by the act of the last Legislature, in which all the police regulations are under the control of the Board of Commissioners appointed by the Governor, and of their subordinates. After the disturbance connected with the affair in St. Bernard, the commissioners appointed General J. B. Steedman Chief of Police, *pro tem.*, who accepted the position on condition of being allowed to choose his own subordinates. General Rousseau thereupon published the following address to the people:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF LOUISIANA, }
STATES OF LOUISIANA AND ARKANSAS, }
NEW ORLEANS, October 28th. }

To the People of New Orleans, Louisiana:

FELLOW-CITIZENS: I have received instructions from the authorities at Washington to take such action as may be necessary to preserve peace and good order, and to protect the lives and property of the citizens. As the city is quiet to-day, I think it the proper time to make the above announcement, and call upon the law-abiding citizens to aid me, hereafter, in carrying out these instructions; and to that end they are earnestly requested to refrain from assembling in large bodies in the streets, to avoid exciting conversations, and other causes of irritation and excitement, and to pursue their ordinary avocations as usual.

The police force of the city has been reorganized, and the inefficient members dropped from the rolls and others appointed in their places, and General J. B. Steedman appointed Chief of Police, *pro tem.*, by the Board of Police Commissioners. General Steedman and his police force will be supported by the military, and assurance is given, alike to the peaceful and the lawless, that every thing at my command, and to the utmost of my ability, will be used in the endeavor to obey these instructions. For the present, political processions and patrolling the streets by armed men are prohibited.

LOVELL H. ROUSSEAU,

Brevet Major-Gen. U. S. A., commanding.

On the same day on which General Steedman was placed at the head of the police of New Orleans by the State commissioners, the city council met and unanimously passed resolutions authorizing the mayor, "in view of the illegality of the metropolitan police bill, and the utter incapacity of the police under it to

maintain order, to organize a police force in conformity with the laws existing prior to the passage of the bill." The mayor did, accordingly, order Thomas E. Adams, the chief of police under the old law, to resume the duties of that office, and report the force at his command, and the measures taken to preserve the peace and order of the city. General Steedman did not, however, surrender his position, and a writ of injunction issued from the Fifth District Court to prohibit the mayor from commissioning any person for police duty. The constitutionality of the metropolitan police act was thus put in a way to be tested before the courts of the State. The right of the city of New Orleans to control its own police was guaranteed by the former constitution of the State, but this guarantee was not renewed in the constitution of 1868.

The presidential election passed over, in the State of Louisiana, without any serious trouble, and resulted in the choice of the Democratic electors. The whole vote cast was 113,388, of which 33,263 were for Grant for President, and 80,225 for Seymour, giving the latter a majority of 46,962.

Notwithstanding the continual political excitements of the year, some progress was made in Louisiana in the material and industrial interests of the State. The crops were fully up to the average in the great staples, cotton and sugar, while much more corn and other grains was raised than was the case in former times. Some assistance was rendered to the planters and freedmen in the early part of the year through the agency of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands. Supplies of provisions were furnished in many cases, and much was done to bring together the demand and supply of labor. The portion of the Peabody Educational Fund falling to the State was \$17,000.

LOVER, SAMUEL, an Irish artist, novelist, song-writer, and composer, born in Dublin, in 1797; died in that city, July 8, 1868. He was the son of a member of the Dublin Stock Exchange, and was educated by his father for mercantile pursuits, but from an early age he showed a great desire to become an artist, and with genius and perseverance succeeded so far as to be elected, in 1828, a member of the Royal Hibernian Society of Arts; and practised the profession of a miniature-painter for some years in Dublin with success. While thus engaged, he developed also rare powers as a writer both of prose and verse, and, under the encouragement of Thomas Moore, published in 1832 a collection of short pieces, entitled "Legends and Stories of Ireland, by Samuel Lover, R. H. A., with six etchings by the author." This was favorably received, and was followed by a second series, published, in London, in 1834. In 1837 Mr. Lover removed to London, and made authorship his profession, contributing largely to the periodical literature of the day. He also wrote "Rory O'More,"

a romance of Irish life, which immediately became popular, and being dramatized was produced on the stage with great effect, Power sustaining the principal character. His next publication was "Handy Andy," commenced but not completed in *Bentley's Miscellany*, and published entire, with illustrations by the author, in 1842. In 1844, he published "Treasure Trove, the first of a Series of Accounts of Irish Heirs," etc., with twenty-six illustrations on steel by the author. This was originally published in numbers, under the title of "£. s. d., or Accounts of Irish Heirs." He published also a number of Irish songs, among them "Rory O'More," "Molly Carew," etc., "Molly Bawn," "The Four-leaved Shamrock," and several operas founded upon his own works. In 1839 Mr. Lover published a collection of his "Songs and Ballads," with the words only; but considerably more than 100 of his songs were separately published with music, composed or adapted by the author himself. He never attempted to write classically, but what he attempted he did artistically. His accompaniments were tastefully composed, and writing the words, as he always did, to the songs, his correct musical ear prevented him from endeavoring to twist nonsensical and harsh-sounding phrases into his melodies. Even now not a few of his ballads still hold their ground, and in Australia and America they are treated as tenderly as a piece of shamrock brought over from Ireland. Finding his health failing him, Mr. Lover, in 1844, composed a series of entertainments, called "Irish Evenings," in which he recited extracts from his own works, and interspersed songs and music of his own composition. These proved exceedingly popular, and, after continuing them for some time, he came to the United States in 1847, where he received a cordial welcome. Returning, he produced a similar entertainment from his transatlantic experience, which was equally well received. His latest works were: "The Lyrics of Ireland," edited and annotated by Samuel Lover, published in 1858, and "Metrical Tales and other Poems," published in 1860. He retired from public life in 1849, having married a rich lady, and having been placed on the civil pension list for the sum of £100 (\$500) per annum by the British Government. He continued, however, to write songs and adapt them to music until the last year of his life.

LOWRIE, WALTER, a statesman and philanthropist, born in Edinburgh, Scotland, December 10, 1784; died in New York City, December 14, 1868. His father and mother were both of good Scottish families, but emigrated to the United States, and settled in Armstrong County, Pa., when Walter was but seven years of age. The father was a highly-intelligent man and a very earnest and decided Christian. Walter Lowrie received his early training at home, and amid many difficulties succeeded in acquiring a good education. He pursued at

one time a course of theological studies with a view of entering the ministry in the Presbyterian Church, but at length decided to remain in secular life. For many years he represented Butler County, Pa., in the State Legislature, and, in 1819, was chosen U. S. Senator from Pennsylvania. At the close of his term, in 1825, he was chosen Secretary of the Senate, and continued in that position till December, 1836, a period of eleven years. He then resigned to accept the secretaryship of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions. This important post he filled for thirty-two years, assisted of late years by his son, Rev. John C. Lowrie, D. D., and Rev. Dr. Irving. Two of his sons have been foreign missionaries. Mr. Lowrie was distinguished, as a Senator and as Secretary of the Senate, for remarkable executive ability and skill in the dispatch of business, and he brought these excellent qualities, as well as a rare tact and judgment in the trying and difficult duties of his position, into service in his connection with the Board of Missions. Ever faithful, disinterested, and self-denying, he had the gratification of witnessing during his long term of service the rapid growth of the missions of the Board and their greatly-increased efficiency.

LÜBECK, a free city belonging to the North-German Confederation. Area (since the cession of Bergedorf to Hamburg, August 8, 1867), 67 square miles; population in 1867, 48,538; in 1862, 44,357, increase in five years, 9.42 per cent. The city of Lübeck, inclusive of the suburbs, has 36,353 inhabitants, and the country districts 12,185. Nearly the whole of the population belong to the Lutheran Church, only about 500 belonging to the Reformed Church. Presiding Burgomaster, in 1868, Dr. O. L. Roeck. In the budget for 1868, the revenue and expenditure is fixed at 1,852,000 marks each (2½ marks = 1 Prussian thaler, or 97 cents gold). Public debt, at the beginning of the year 1868, 19,403,800 marks. The army was dissolved October 1, 1867, and those liable to military duty enter the Prussian army. The imports, in 1867, were valued at 80,960,000 marks courant; in 1866, at 80,640,000 courant. The countries chiefly concerned in the commerce are the following (value expressed in millions of marks):

	1867.	1866.		1867.	1866.
Russia.....	11.52	17.48	England.....	1.33	1.12
Sweden.....	4.57	4.63	France.....	0.70	0.75
Denmark.....	1.38	3.51	Bremen.....	0.08	0.19
Prussia.....	1.45	1.17	Holland.....	0.09	0.10
Mecklenburg.	0.28	0.17	Belgium.....	0.07	0.06
Norway.....	0.06	0.13	N. America...	0.03	..

The movement of shipping in 1867 was as follows: arrivals, 1,638 vessels (532 steamers), 117,801 lasts (of 4,000 pounds each); clearances, 1,631 vessels (530 steamers), 177,066 lasts. The merchant navy, at the beginning of the year 1868, embraced 43 vessels (17 steamers), 5,086 lasts.

LUTHERANS. 1. UNITED STATES.—The *Lutheran Church Almanac* for 1869 (published

at Baltimore) gives the following statistical view of the Lutheran Church in the United States in the year 1868:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Churches.	Communi- cants.
<i>I. Synods connected with the "General Synod" of the United States.</i>			
1. Synod of New York.....	16	12	1,642
2. Hartwick Synod (N. Y.).....	27	30	4,109
3. Franckean Synod (N. Y.).....	23	29	2,479
4. Synod of New Jersey.....	8	13	1,697
5. Synod of East Pennsylvania....	60	107	13,034
6. Susquehanna Synod (Pa.)....	25	46	4,661
7. Synod of West Pennsylvania....	50	103	12,416
8. Synod of Central Pennsylvania..	88	61	4,825
9. Alleghany Synod (Pa.).....	45	98	6,734
10. Pittsburg Synod (Pa.).....	11	28	1,756
11. Synod of Maryland.....	35	43	8,347
12. Melancthon Synod (Md.).....	18	37	3,755
13. East Ohio Synod.....	38	68	3,838
14. Wittenberg Synod (Ohio).....	32	47	3,678
15. Miami Synod (Ohio).....	34	40	3,405
16. Synod of Northern Indiana....	30	71	3,415
17. Olive-Branch Synod (Ind.)....	17	27	1,576
18. Synod of Northern Illinois....	26	37	2,105
19. Synod of Southern Illinois....	19	16	817
20. Synod of Central Illinois....	18	24	1,410
21. Synod of Iowa.....	22	29	1,171
	572	956	86,770
<i>II. Synods of the "General Council."</i>			
1. New York Ministerium.....	48	52	12,000
2. Synod of Pennsylvania.....	137	300	50,000
3. Pittsburg Synod (Pa.).....	64	124	9,000
4. English Dist. Synod of Joint Synod of Ohio.....	38	90	10,000
5. English Synod of Ohio.....	11	20	2,500
6. Synod of Illinois.....	34	37	5,000
7. Synod of Wisconsin.....	50	100	12,750
8. Synod of Michigan.....	15	24	3,035
9. Synod of Iowa.....	60	80	7,000
10. Synod of Minnesota.....	22	53	3,000
11. Scandinavian Augustana Synod	45	85	11,800
12. Synod of Canada.....	26	55	7,211
	550	1,030	133,296
<i>III. Synods connected with the (Southern) General Synod of North America.</i>			
1. Synod of Virginia.....	30	61	3,200
2. Synod of Southwest Virginia...	21	40	2,179
3. Synod of North Carolina.....	18	34	3,716
4. Synod of South Carolina.....	33	44	4,817
5. Synod of Georgia.....	6	10	1,200
6. Holston Synod (Tenn.).....	12	25	2,000
	120	214	17,112
<i>IV. Synods not connected with any General Synod or General Council.</i>			
1. Joint Synod of Ohio.....	109	227	30,500
2. Joint Synod of Missonri.....	250	304	39,000
3. Norwegian Synod (Wis., etc.)...	50	200	20,000
4. Tennessee Synod.....	32	35	5,800
5. Elison's Synod.....	9	25	2,000
6. Union Synod (Ind.).....	15	20	2,210
7. Buffalo Synod (N. Y.).....	80	40	5,000
8. German Synod of New York....	10	10	1,800
9. Synod of Mississippi.....	7	11	2,000
10. Missionary Synod of the West..	11	20	700
11. Concordia Synod of Virginia....	9	15	1,000
12. Synod of Texas.....	18	23	2,800
	550	982	112,910
Grand total.....	1,792	3,182	350,088

The statistics given in the *Lutheran Church Almanac* for 1869 (published by S. K. Brobst, Allentown, 1869) somewhat differ from the above figures, giving a total of 47 synods, 1,855 ministers, 3,238 congregations, and 372,905

communicants. Under the patronage of the Lutheran Church (all the above divisions taken together) are 13 theological institutions, including theological departments of colleges; 17 colleges; 8 female seminaries, and 12 academies. There are also 15 orphans' homes, and other eleemosynary institutions. Thirty Lutheran periodicals are published, namely, 11 English, 14 German, 3 Swedish and Norwegian.

The "General Synod" began its twenty-third convention at Harrisburg, May 8, 1868. This was the first meeting of the General Synod since the formal withdrawal of three entire synods (Pennsylvania, Minnesota, and the English Synod of Ohio), and of portions of three others, all of which, in 1867, took part in the organization of the "General Council."* In other respects, the condition of the connection was reported by the committee on the state of religion as improved. The benevolent operations of the Church had been stimulated, and the home missionary work had been prosecuted with new energy, but the Foreign Missionary Society had met with a comparatively feeble support. The prospects of the Theological Seminary at Gettysburg, Pa., were bright. Besides this, five literary and theological institutions, and one seminary, were reported to the General Synod. The former had in the aggregate upward of 600 pupils, the last had about 90. A new constitution for the General Synod was adopted. It is to be submitted to the District Synods for their approval. In addition, an article explanatory or in reaffirmation of doctrine was adopted, "to prevent all misapprehension and misrepresentation of the doctrinal position of the Lutheran Church as represented in the General Synod." It is as follows: "That this General Synod, resting on the Word of God as the sole authority in matters of faith, on its infallible warrant rejects the Romish doctrine of the real presence, or transubstantiation, and with it the doctrine of consubstantiation; rejects the Roman Catholic mass, and all ceremonies distinctive of the mass; denies any power to the sacraments as an *opus operatum*, or that the blessings connected with baptism and the Lord's Supper can be received without faith; rejects auricular confession and priestly absolution; holds that there is no priesthood on earth but that of all believers, and that God only can forgive sins; and maintains the Divine obligation of the Christian Sabbath." An expression of doctrine on Christian communion and unity was adopted in opposition to the close-communion doctrines of some Lutheran Synods. They express the spirit of Christian affection and fellowship toward all evangelical pastors and churches; welcome to communion all sincere followers of the Lord Jesus Christ of good standing in their churches, and promise hearty cooperation with the Bible and Tract Societies, the Sunday-School Union, Young Men's Christian Associ-

ations, and similar organizations. A committee was appointed to correspond with the Evangelical Alliance, and to act as a delegation to the next (sixth) convention of that body. Delegates were also sent to the National Temperance Convention. The Synod determined to regard the year ending October 31, 1868, as a year of jubilee, in celebration of the seventh semi-centennial of the Reformation, and to solicit "jubilee offerings" for all the benevolent enterprises and institutions of the Church.

The second session of the "General Council" was held at Pittsburg, commencing November 12th. Delegates reported from the Ministeriums of Pennsylvania and New York; the English and the English District Synods of Ohio; the Pittsburg, Wisconsin, Michigan, Augustana, Minnesota, Canada, Illinois, Iowa, and Concordia Synods. A delegate applied also, and was admitted, from the Texas Synod. Four days were spent in discussing the "four points" as a test for new membership, a question on which danger of division of the council had been apprehended. These four points are the holding of Millennialism (Chiliasm) views, the joining of secret societies, the exchange of pulpits with ministers of other denominations, and the admission of members of other religious denominations to the Lord's Supper. A minority desired an explicit condemnation of every form of Millennialism (Chiliasm); an earnest warning against secret societies, and an absolute prohibition of fellowship with those not Lutheran as regards exchange of pulpits and admission to the Lord's Supper. It was expected that, if the General Council would accede to these terms, it would be joined by a number of the synods which are still independent. It was found, however, that only three synods (Wisconsin, Minnesota, and New York) were in favor of making all these four points a test of membership, and a fourth synod (Iowa) was in favor of the last three points. The majority agreed on the following declaration:

I. *As regards "Chiliasm."*—1. This Council holds firmly the doctrine of our Lord's coming, and the associated Articles touching the Last Things, as they are set forth in the General Creeds and in the Augsburg Confession, in that sense of them which has been undisputed among all who have made a credible profession of unreserved acceptance of the Lutheran faith.

2. The General Council has neither had nor would consent to have fellowship with any synod which tolerates the "Jewish opinions" or "Chiliasmic opinions" condemned in the seventeenth Article of the Augsburg Confession.

3. The points on which our Confession has not been explicit, or on which its testimony is not at present interpreted in precisely the same way by persons equally intelligent and honest and equally unreserved, and worthy of belief in their professions of adherence to the Confession, should continue to be the subjects of calm, thorough, scriptural, and prayerful investigation, until we shall see perfectly eye to eye both as regards the teaching of God's Word and the testimony of our Church.

II. *As regards "Secret Societies."*—1. Though mere secrecy in association be not in itself immoral, yet as it is so easily susceptible of abuse, and in its abuse

* See ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

may work, as it has often worked, great mischief in family, Church, State, and we earnestly beseech all good men to ponder the question whether the benefits they believe to be connected with secret societies might not be equally reached in modes not liable to the same abuse.

2. Any and all societies for moral and religious ends which do not rest on the supreme authority of God's Holy Word, as contained in the Old and New Testaments—which do not recognize our Lord Jesus Christ as the true God and the only mediator between God and men—which teach doctrines or have usages or forms of worship condemned in God's Word and in the Confessions of His Church—which assume to themselves what God has given to His Church and its ministers—which require undefined obligations to be assumed by oath, are unchristian, and we solemnly warn our members and ministers against all fellowship with, or connivance at, associations which have this character.

3. All connection with infidel and immoral associations we consider as requiring the exercise of prompt and decisive discipline, and, after faithful and patient admonition and teaching from God's Word, the cutting off the persistent and obstinate offender from the communion of the Church until he abandons them and shows a true repentance.

III. *In regard to Exchange of Pulpits.*—We hold, 1. That the purity of the pulpit should be guarded with the most conscientious care, and that no man shall be admitted to our pulpits, whether of the Lutheran name or of any other, of whom there is just reason to doubt whether he will preach the pure truth of God's Word as taught in the Confessions of our Church.

2. Lutheran ministers may properly preach wherever there is an opening in the pulpit of other churches, unless the circumstances imply, or seem to imply, a fellowship with error or schism, or a restriction on the unreserved expression of the whole counsel of God.

IV. *As regards the "Communion with those not of our Church."*—1. We hold that the principle of a discriminating, as over against an indiscriminating Communion, is to be firmly maintained. Heretics and fundamental errorists are to be excluded from the Lord's Table. The responsibility of an unworthy approach to the Lord's Table does not rest alone upon him who makes that approach, but also upon him who invites it.

2. It is the right and duty of every pastor to make such examination as is necessary to determine the Scriptural fitness, in doctrine and life, of persons applying for admission to the Communion. This should be done invariably when they are admitted for the first time—and whenever afterward it may be necessary. So that it may be affirmed of our Church now, as at the beginning: "None are admitted except they be proved."—*Augs. Conf., Art. Abuses, iii. 6.*

3. The restoration of more frequent communion, and of private conference, monition, and instruction on the part of the pastor, especially for the young and for the unstable, would, by God's blessing, do much for the maintenance of a higher faith and of a purer practice in the Church.

4. In the confession of her faith, the rejection of errors in conflict with it, and the condemnation of heretics, our Church, now as aforetime, testifies, to use her own words, "that it is by no means her counsel and purpose to condemn those who err from simplicity, and who do not speak reproachfully of the truth of the Divine Word, and still less to condemn entire Churches."—*Preface to Book of Concord, p. 16.*

5. It is the judgment of our Church, now as aforetime, that it is "beyond all doubt whatever, that there are many pious and holy people in those Churches which have not accorded, and do not yet accord in all respects with us, who walk in the simplicity of their

heart, not thoroughly understanding the points involved, but in no respect approving the blasphemies which are uttered against the Holy Supper, as it is dispensed and taught in our churches according to the Institution and Testament of Christ."—*Id., 17.*

6. It is the hope of our Church, now as aforetime, that "if such persons were rightly instructed concerning all these points, they would, by the guidance of the Holy Spirit, be led to a consent with us and our churches in the immutable truths of God's Word."—*Id., 17.*

7. Hence it is a duty which our Church now, as aforetime, enjoins upon her theologians and all her pastors, that "fittingly and with moderation they instruct, admonish, and warn out of God's Word, all who, from simplicity or ignorance, have wandered from the truth."—*Id., 17.*

8. Our Church confesses now, as aforetime, that the Holy Church Universal is preëminently a fellowship whose internal bond is faith and the Holy Ghost in the heart, and whose outward token is "the pure Word and the incorrupt sacraments. The Church is a communion of saints, to wit; the assembly of saints who are in the fellowship of the same Gospel or doctrine, and of the same Holy Spirit who renews, sanctifies, and governs their hearts;" and that "the Catholic (Christian) Church consists of men scattered throughout the whole world, from the rising of the sun to the going down thereof."—*Apology, Art. 4.*

9. Our Church now, as aforetime, amid the clamors of rationalism and sectarianism, confesses that the unchanging marks of the Church are "the pure doctrine of the Gospel, and the sacraments—that this Church alone is properly the pillar of truth, because it retains the pure Gospel, and, as St. Paul saith, the foundation, that is, the true knowledge of Christ, and true faith in Him." Yet we also, as aforetime, confess "that among those who are upon the true foundation, there are many weak ones who have built upon the foundation perishing stubble, that is, empty notions and opinions—and yet, because they do not overthrow the foundation, are still Christians, and their faults may be forgiven them or even be amended."—*Id., 4.*

The minority presented a declaration expressing their views. The General Council appointed a committee to open correspondence with the General Conference of Lutheran ministers in Germany. A committee was appointed to prepare a plan under which the foreign mission-work may be prosecuted. Steps were taken to open correspondence between this body and the Lutheran Church of Alaska, the Danish West India Islands, and some other Lutheran bodies in America.

II. EUROPE. The Lutheran population in Germany has been in part absorbed by the "United Evangelical Church," which now embraces almost the entire Protestant population of Germany, and of which a large majority of the members were originally Lutherans. There are, however, 40,000 classified as "Independent Lutherans" in old Prussia, 1,584,767 Lutherans in Hanover, 48,000 in Frankfurt, 980,000 in Bavaria, 50,000 in Bremen, 285,934 in Brunswick, 220,000 in Hamburg, 8,000 in Lippe-Ditmold, 49,000 in Lübeck, 548,459 in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, 198,000 in Oldenburg, 2,279,882 in Saxony, 260,000 in Saxe-Weimar, 141,212 in Saxe-Altenburg, 145,000 in Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, 26,000 in Schaumburg-Lippe, 73,457 in Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, while

nearly the entire Protestant population of Schleswig - Holstein, Mecklenburg - Strelitz, Reuss-Greiz and Reuss-Schleitz, Saxe-Meiningen, Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen, and Wurtemberg, are Lutherans.

Nearly the entire population, likewise, of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, are Lutherans.

Austria has 1,218,750 Lutherans, France about 500,000, Holland about 76,000 (in two organizations, a liberal and a "high church" one), Poland 382,000, Finland 1,787,000. In Russia proper there are 8 consistories, 421 churches, and 566 ministers.

The first "General Conference of Delegates from all the Lutheran Churches of Germany" was opened at Hanover, July 1st. Three classes of churches were represented: 1. The avowedly Lutheran State Churches of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Saxony, and other states. 2. The Free Lutheran Churches of Prussia and of other states which recognize the United Evangelical Church as the only state Church. 3. The Lutheran party in the United Evangelical Church. Dr. von Harless, well known as one of the prominent theologians of the Lutheran Church, and now President of the Supreme Ecclesiastical Council of Bavaria, and member of the First Chamber of Bavaria, was chosen President. A number of theologians known to the entire Protestant world by their writings, were present. Among them were Dr. Kliefoth, Dr. Luthardt, Dr. von Hofmann, Dr. Kahnis, Dr. Uhlhorn, Dr. Thomasius. The following resolutions, which define the relation of the German Lutheran Churches to the other Protestant state Churches and to the Protestant state governments, were unanimously adopted:

1. Sufficient, but at the same time indispensable for the true idea of the Church, is an agreement in the true doctrine and in the administration of the sacraments as we find them expressed in the Confessions of the Lutheran Church.

2. The Church government, being an important member of the Church, is also included in the demand of an agreement in true doctrine, and in the administration of sacraments with the Church which it is to govern.

3. It is therefore inadmissible to unite Churches of our Church government without agreement in doctrine and the administration of sacraments.

4. For the same reason the right cannot be conceded to the ruler of a country to dissolve ecclesiastical territories which may fall to him, without regard to their doctrine and administration of sacraments, into the whole of the state Churches in such a manner that such churches would only continue to exist within the state Church as individual congregations,

with their private doctrine and administration of sacraments.

In September, the first "General Synod of the Lutheran State Church of Sweden" was held. Formerly the bishops and representatives of the clergy constituted one of the four Estates of Sweden. The new Swedish Constitution, which was adopted in 1867, substituted for the four Estates two Chambers, and in Art. 80, while leaving the whole ecclesiastical legislation in the hands of the Diet and the King, made the validity of all resolutions passed with regard to ecclesiastical affairs dependent upon the consent of the General Synod. The King shall possess the right of interpreting the Church laws, until the adoption of a different interpretation by the General Synod. The establishment of the General Synod dates from the royal decree of November 16, 1863. It shall consist of the Archbishop of Upsala, the eleven bishops of the kingdom, four professors of the theological faculty, the Pastor Promarius of Stockholm, of thirty clergymen to be elected severally by the clergy of the thirty ecclesiastical districts, and of thirty laymen to be elected in as many electoral districts. The Synod shall meet every fifth year. The Minister of Public Worship has a right to be present at the meetings, but has no vote. The proceedings of the First Synod were secret.

LUXEMBURG,* a grand-duchy, united by "personal union" with Holland, but which has an independent constitution and administration. The governor is appointed by the King of Holland. Present governor (since February 5, 1850), Prince Henry, brother of the King of Holland. The grand-duchy belonged from 1815 to 1866 to the old German Confederation. Area, 990 square miles; population, in 1864, 202,937 inhabitants; in 1866, 203,851; in 1868, 199,958. In the budget for the year 1867-'68, the receipts amounted to 4,836,220 francs, and the expenditures to 4,959,971 francs; there was consequently a deficit of 123,757 francs. The public debt in 1868 was about 12,000,000 francs. It is annually reduced about 600,000 francs. The army (according to the law of August 18, 1868) consists of one battalion of chasseurs, which has 13 officers and 500 under-officers and privates. There is also a corps of gendarmes, composed of 3 officers, 27 under-officers, and 79 gendarmes.

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MACBRIDE, JOHN DAVID, D. C. L., F. S. A., an eminent Oriental scholar and author, for fifty-five years principal of Magdalen Hall, Oxford; born in Norfolk, England, in 1788; died at Oxford, January 24, 1868. He was the only son of Admiral John Macbride, and was entered a gentleman commoner at Exeter

College, Oxford, when but eighteen years old, and took his first degree in 1799, and was soon after elected a fellow of Exeter College. He became M. A. in 1802, and D. C. L. in 1812,

* For full information of Luxemburg, which, in 1867, was the subject of a grave European complication, see the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

when he was made assessor of the Chancellor's Court. In 1813 he was appointed, by Lord Grenville, principal of Magdalen Hall, and the same year nominated by the Lord Almoner to the Readership in Arabic. He held these two offices until his death. He exerted himself to raise the character of the Hall of which he was head, and succeeded in bringing it into a rank not inferior to that of the best colleges in the university. His liberality to the poor, his kindness, sincerity, warmth of heart, and his refined and courteous manners, made him universally beloved. He achieved a high reputation as a writer, most of his books being on theological subjects, though he was a layman. His principal works were "Diatessaron, or Harmony of the Gospels," which was long used as a text-book in the university; a work on Mohammedanism; "Lectures on the Articles of the United Church of England and Ireland," published in 1853, and "Lectures on the Epistles," in 1858.

MADAGASCAR, RASUAHERINA MANJAKA, Queen of, the reigning monarch of the Hovas since the close of 1863; born about 1835; died at Antananariva, the capital of the Hova kingdom, in April, 1868. Her original name was Rabodo, and she had, on the demise of the ferocious Ranavalana in 1862, ascended the throne as queen-consort to Radama II., and on his assassination in 1863 she was at once made queen-regnant, it was said by the unanimous voice of the anti-foreign party, by whom the king had been assassinated, though, being of royal lineage and the next in hereditary succession to the late king, she was entitled to the throne. Immediately after her accession to the throne she signed a constitution drawn up by the anti-foreign party, and suspended the treaties which King Radama had concluded with European powers. (*See RADAMA II., ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1863.*) The fears created by these acts were, however, somewhat allayed by an official declaration that religious liberty would be respected, and that the labors of the missionaries would not be interfered with. In the following years several stringent measures were adopted against foreigners, especially against the French, but the Christian missions were not at all disturbed. The relations of the Queen with England were more friendly than those with France. The treaties between the agent of the French Government and King Radama were, in 1865, publicly burned, while with England, in the same year, a new treaty of amity and commerce was concluded. No complaints have since been brought by any of the English residents against the administration of the Queen, and the English missionaries in Madagascar report a rapid and steady progress of Christianity and civilization.

MAGNETIC NEEDLE (VARIATIONS OF). In May, 1866, Mr. Noah Barker, of Exeter Mills, Maine, was appointed by the Governor and Council of that State, under a resolution of the

Legislature, to ascertain the facts relating to the variations of the magnetic needle, throughout the State of Maine, from its first settlement down to the present time. Mr. Barker had been for a number of years land agent of the State, and was an experienced engineer and surveyor. During the past year the commissioner completed his report, to be presented to the Legislature at its session of 1869. The summary given herewith is from a sketch prepared in advance of the publication of the report by the Augusta correspondent of the *Boston Advertiser*. Prior to the commencement of the United States Coast Survey, but few of the variations of the magnetic needle, as observed in Maine, were recorded; and, owing to the doubtful character of some of the earlier observations, the commissioner was unable to place reliance upon them. The magnetic force of the earth being a planetary force, the commissioner recognized the necessity of comparing observations which have been made from time to time, in places widely remote from each other; and in his report has aimed at usefulness rather than originality. He gives a table of azimuths extending down to the close of the present century, and for every five minutes of latitude within the limits of the State; also, time-tables for the elongations and culminations of the North star. He also presents such general rules and suggestions as will enable the land-surveyor to determine the declination of the needle for himself, and with the instruments used in ordinary surveys. The western line of no variation in the United States now traverses Cleveland, Ohio (or about $24\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ east), passes near Raleigh (N. C.), and is still receding slowly to the west. At all places lying to the east of the line, including the New-England States, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, nearly all of Pennsylvania, and the eastern half of Virginia and North Carolina, the variation is westerly, that is, the north end of the needle points to the west of due north. At all places lying to the west of this line, including the Western and Southern States, the variation is easterly, that is, the north end of the needle points to the east of due north. This variation increases in proportion to the distance of the place on either side of the line of no variation, receding more than 21° , easterly variation, in Oregon, and about 20° of westerly variation in the north-eastern part of Maine. But no annual rate can be fixed on as a certain rule for the declination of the needle, as its motion is much more rapid in some years than in others. The secular and diurnal changes of the needle are noted at length, as also the annual change, magnetic storms, auroral disturbances, local attraction, magnetic dip, magnetic force, the magnetic poles and meridians. About 8 o'clock in the morning, the needle is in its most easterly position; from that time until 2 o'clock it moves to the west; from that time until evening it moves to the east, and from 8 to 9 o'clock in

the evening until 3 in the morning it moves west again, after which it returns to the place from which it started, to be ready for similar oscillations the next day. The amplitude of the oscillations is greater in the summer than in the winter, and is greater in high magnetic latitudes than it is near the equator. Thus, at Cambridge, in June and July it is 15", and in December and January 10". In consequence of the diurnal change it is evident that a line run in the morning cannot be retraced with the same bearings at noon; therefore, not merely the date at which an important survey is made, but also the time of day, should be recorded. A large and carefully-prepared map of magnetic declinations is given; and the report closes with an appendix by Edwin F. Johnson, of Connecticut, civil engineer and surveyor, which throws additional light on the variations of the magnetic needle along the eastern boundary of the State, and explains the term "due north" as used by land surveyors to mean the true north as distinguished from the magnetic north, or north as pointed out by the magnetic needle.

MAINE. According to official estimates, based upon a comparison of the last vote for Governor with that in 1860, when the last census was taken, the population of Maine in 1868 was 673,177, showing an increase of 44,577, or about 7 per cent., in eight years. The real and personal property of the State on the 1st of July, 1868, was estimated at \$344,035,000 according to a gold standard of valuation, or about \$500 to each individual of the population. The amount of capital employed in manufactures is \$40,000,000, and the annual value of the fabrics produced is \$81,287,695. The natural facilities for manufacturing enterprises in the State are very great, and it is said that the water-power, most of which is unemployed, cannot be less than 1,000,000 horse-power. There are 314 miles of railroad in progress, for the completion of which capital has been subscribed to the amount of \$9,276,000; and charters have been granted for additional enterprises of the kind to the extent of 265 miles. The Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railroad, which was leased in 1855 to the Grand Trunk for 999 years, extends from Portland to Island Pond in Vermont, a distance of 150 miles, 82 of which are in the State of Maine. Some idea of the business of this road may be formed when we consider the statement of Railroad Commissioners that 20 trains pass a given point every day, and that from November 1, 1867, to November 1, 1868, 83,162 cars, drawn by 6,404 engines, passed from Danville Junction to Portland. This road has become very badly worn by the heavy freightage constantly passing over it, and it has been found necessary to invoke the interference of the civil authorities to compel the prosecution of repairs. These have been finally undertaken, and are now making rapid progress.

The finances of the State are represented to

be in a very promising condition. The public debt now amounts to \$5,053,000, and falls due in 1871, \$37,000 have been paid off during the year, and a sinking fund is accumulating which already amounts to \$846,000. The receipts into the Treasury during the last fiscal year amounted to \$135,853.36, and the expenditures of the government were \$114,280.77.

Notwithstanding the increase in population mentioned above, there has been a decrease in the number of children attending school, which in some aspects of the case is rather alarming. This decrease is exhibited in the following table:

No. of scholars,	1858, between 4 and 21	1859, " "	1860, " "	1861, " "	1862, " "	1863, " "	1864, " "	1865, " "	1866, " "	1867, " "	1868, " "	Incr'se.	Dec'se.
		241,883	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		242,700	817	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		244,920	2,220	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		243,175	—	1,749	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		241,571	—	1,600	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		239,329	—	2,242	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		235,188	—	4,141	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		229,797	—	5,991	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		229,378	—	419	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		228,388	—	990	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
		225,290	—	3,188	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
The decrease since 1858.....												16,683	
" " 1860.....												19,720	

Nearly 20,000 decrease in eight years.

This result has been attributed by competent authority to an actual decrease in the number of children in the State, while the entire population has been steadily advancing. When the census was taken in 1850, about 49 per cent. of the population were under the age of 20 years, but in 1860 the proportion had fallen to 36 per cent.

The State Reform School contains 171 inmates, 58 of whom were committed during the year: 45 of these were sentenced for larceny; 1 for breaking in and entering houses; 2 for being common runaways; 7 for truancy; 2 for assault; 1 for malicious mischief; 1 for cheating; 1 for vagrancy; 1 for robbery; 1 for embezzlement; and 1 for sodomy. It was ascertained, when these boys were received, that, of the 58, 24 had intemperate parents; 15 were "much neglected;" 9 were truants; 16 Sabbath-breakers; 50 were profane; 51 addicted to lying; 21 drank ardent spirits; 42 used tobacco; 4 never attended school, and all were idle. At the Reform School they are employed in labor on the farm, or in the workshops of the institution, and very marked improvement in their character and dispositions is to be observed in a few months. The cost of the school, aside from the value of the productions of the farm consumed by the inmates, was \$23,471.90, but a sufficient amount was earned by the boys to reduce the actual expense to the State to about \$13,945.60.

The extreme rigor with which the liquor law of Maine was enforced, during the year 1867, caused a violent reaction and excited great hostility among a portion of the people, not only to the provisions of the prohibitory statute itself, but against the State constabulary force through whose agency it had been

executed. The result was, that the last Legislature repealed the constabulary law, and although the prohibitory liquor law remains on the statute-books, it has been comparatively a dead letter. A strong effort is made by the prohibitionists to have the State police restored and to secure the most vigorous execution of the existing law respecting the sale of intoxicating drinks.

Another subject which has been agitated to some extent is the abolition of the death-penalty for crime. Some degree of feeling was excited against the Governor for signing the death-warrant of one Harris, an ignorant and brutal negro, whose crime was of a very aggravated character, and the Attorney-General in his report took occasion to cast some grave reflections on Governor Chamberlain for not making this a case for Executive clemency. On this point the Governor said in his message to the Legislature: "It is said that the facts of Harris's early life—the degrading influence of slavery, and the development of his brutal passions alone, and his being almost in his legal infancy—should have been considered. They were considered, and at their full value. They were a relieving element in the case; they were ground of gratitude that no man nursed of woman was left to do these horrors—and of congratulation that this precocity of guilt was nipped in its 'legal infancy,' before its blossom and full fruits had come. But they did not appear sufficient to entitle him to special grace. 'Previous good character' is a mitigation—but to plead a 'previous bad character' is a novelty in jurisprudence."

On the general subject of abolishing the penalty, he says: "However the experience of suffering may have affected my personal sympathies, the consideration of the public safety convinces me that this is not the time to soften penalties. Too much crime is abroad, and emboldened by the mildness and uncertainty of punishment. Most of our neighboring States retain the death-penalty. We do not wish to invite crime here by the impunity it fails to find elsewhere. It is urged that we should be merciful, but to whom, I ask? To the violator of all sanctities, the assassin of all defencelessness—the pitiless spoiler of the peace and order of society? or to the innocent, the good, the peaceful, and well-doing, who rely upon the protection of the State which they serve and adorn? Mercy is indeed a heavenly grace, but it should not be shown to crime. It is the crime, and not the man, at which the law strikes. It is not to prevent that man alone from repeating his offence, but to prevent others from so doing. If the wretch who meditates crime sees the sure and sharp penalty before him, he may take better counsels. This is merciful to him, to his intended victims, and to society in general."

The political campaign of the year was very spirited in Maine, as it was elsewhere throughout the country. The Democratic Convention

met at Augusta on the 22d of June, and was undoubtedly the largest assembly of the kind ever known in the State. Eben F. Pillsbury was nominated for Governor, and a board of presidential electors put before the people for their suffrages. The platform of the party, as represented in this convention, was embodied in the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That while the Constitution of the United States was ordained and established by the people in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, and secure the blessing of liberty, and contains ample provisions for the protection of the life, liberty, and property of every citizen, the present Congress, instigated and controlled by a spirit of local animosity and partisan hate, have persistently excluded from the Union a large number of independent States, and deprived their citizens of all representation in the government of the United States, holding them under the arbitrary rule of martial power. Spurious and pretended legislative and judicial officers have been set over them, by whose usurped authority, sustained by military power, tyrannical and unconstitutional laws have been enforced, test-oaths of an extraordinary and entangling nature have been imposed as a condition of exercising the right of suffrage, and large classes of the most intelligent citizens wholly disfranchised, while the right to vote has been conferred on hordes of ignorant negroes; the right of accused persons to a speedy and public trial by jury has been denied; the right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, has been violated, and they have been deprived of life, liberty, and property, without due process of law, and the freedom of speech and the press has been abridged or wholly subverted; the constitutional and just powers of the executive and judicial departments of the government have been invaded and usurped, and a general system of partial, corrupt, extravagant, and unconstitutional legislation inaugurated, so constructed and contrived as to throw the present enormous burdens of taxation upon industry and the laboring poor for the benefit of accumulated wealth, and with the manifest design to protect the fraudulent speculator against the honest working-man; by their unjust, unconstitutional, and revolutionary proceedings, the rights of our people have been invaded, their liberties endangered, and the perpetuity of the government placed in imminent peril.

Resolved, That, in view of the existing state of public affairs, the time has come for "all who love their country to band together against the Jacobins" who now control Congress, and who threaten to subvert and destroy all that is valuable in the institutions bequeathed to us by our patriotic fathers, and for the protection and defence of which the brave soldiers of our own day have imperilled their lives and shed their blood.

Resolved, That the right of the Federal Government to tax the income of the national debt is clear in itself, and supported by practice, and ought now to be effectively exercised by collecting the tax out of the coupons of the national bonds, and that such a rate of taxation should be imposed upon these coupons as will subject capital so invested to its fair average share of public burdens as compared with other descriptions of property.

Resolved, That the proceeds of such taxation should be distributed among all the States on just, equitable principles.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the Government, in good faith, to abide by the terms of all its contracts, and that the principal of all debts due and owing by the United States, having been declared by the act of Congress of February 25, 1862, to be payable in the

currency which was made a legal tender by that act, it will confer unjust advantages upon money-lenders, and impose oppressive burdens upon the people, to pay any bonds of the United States in gold, except such as are by their terms made so payable; and that all such bonds as are made payable in currency should be paid as fast as it is possible to do so without inflating the currency beyond a safe and just point.

Resolved, That so long as the currency consists in whole or in part of paper money, issued under the authority of the national Government, such paper should be issued directly by the Government itself, and that the great and valuable privilege of issuing three hundred millions of this money, yielding a profit equal to eighteen millions annually in gold, has been too long enjoyed by favored individuals, associated under the national banking law, and should forthwith be assumed by the people represented by the political authority of the nation.

Resolved, That the men who fought for the Union were entitled to the same currency as the men who loaned the money, and that the bayonet-holders, laborers, farmers, and bondholders, should be paid alike.

Resolved, That we recognize with unaffected pleasure the presence of the patriotic soldiers and sailors now in this hall. They heroically met the enemy with the bayonet when our Government was assailed by force, and now with equal patriotism oppose the enemy with the ballot where the Government is assailed by political strategy.

Resolved, That this convention unanimously renominate Hon. Eben F. Pillsbury as a candidate for the gubernatorial chair of Maine, and recommend him to the people of the whole State as eminently qualified for the position, and entitled to their cordial support.

A convention of the conservative soldiers and sailors of the State was held on the same day. Their sentiments were expressed as follows:

We, the conservative soldiers and sailors of Maine, assembled in delegate convention at Augusta, June 23, 1868, resolve that we will never allow the Union, for which we and our comrades fell, to be destroyed by the machinations of the reckless and unprincipled men who now absorb all branches of the Government within the Congress of the United States. Believing the party in power to be false to the best interests of the country, and knowing them to have been false in their promises to the soldiers who fought for the Union, the conservative soldiers and sailors of Maine solemnly declare their intention to use all honorable means within their power to restore the harmony of all the States, to assert the supremacy of the Constitution and the laws, and to restore our divided country to that unity and prosperity which so long made us a paragon among nations, and which was inspired by the spirit of seventy-six. To this end we pledge ourselves to sustain the great conservative party of the country in this, the hour of the nation's peril.

The Republican Convention was held at Portland on the 8th of July. General Joshua L. Chamberlain was renominated, and the following platform of principles adopted:

Resolved, That this convention, representing the views of the Union men of Maine, emphatically approves the platform of principles recently adopted by the National Republican Convention in Chicago as fairly expressive of the political faith and purposes of the loyal citizens of the republic.

Resolved, That General Ulysses S. Grant, for his genius and services in war, and for his calm and sagacious statesmanship in peace, deserves the confidence and will receive the enthusiastic support of the patriotic freemen of Maine for the Chief Magistracy of the nation at the election in November.

Resolved, That Hon. S. Colfax, of Indiana, by his

integrity and patriotism as a citizen, his ability and success as a public man, and his long and unwavering devotion to sound national principles, is eminently qualified for the high place to which he is nominated by the National Republican Convention, and the Union men of Maine pledge him their unity and cordial support for the vice-presidency.

Resolved, That to General Joshua L. Chamberlain, distinguished alike by his ability and bravery as a soldier, and by his successful administration of the gubernatorial office which he fills with admirable satisfaction to the people of Maine, this convention pledges united support and triumphant election in September.

Resolved, That to the living and to the memory of the dead of all those who, by land or sea, perilled life and limb to crush the recent rebellion and save the Republic from dismemberment and overthrow, this convention offers renewed tokens of gratitude and homage.

Resolved, That the proposition made by the recent Democratic Convention of the State, to admit the rebels of the South to a share in the tax on Government bonds, is a fraud and an outrage on the loyal people of the North, under the delusive promise of lightening taxation at home. The resolution proposes to rob the people of Maine by assessing a tax on the deposits of savings banks, on the treasures of our insurance companies, and on the hard earnings of the humblest labor invested in Government bonds, and to divide the amount raised among all the States, thus giving to the rebels of Texas more than two dollars where the loyal men of Maine get one. We denounce the proposition as an attempt to enrich the rebels at the expense of loyal men, and to subject our national debt to the base end of lighting anew the smouldering embers of Southern rebellion.

Resolved, That the Democratic National Convention, now in session in New York, may be regarded as an arranged effort to renew the spirit and accomplish the purposes of the lately suppressed rebellion. Its membership is largely composed of men who led the rebel hosts against the flag of the Union during the recent bloody conflict, and of those who plotted treason in the rebel Congress at Richmond during our four years of national sorrow; its first aim in the new revolt is to destroy the Government credit and then overthrow by revolutionary violence the constitutional governments in the Southern States. Its ill-concealed movements against the first and its openly avowed purpose to accomplish the second should at once alarm and arouse all good citizens who desire the peace, prosperity, and continued Union of the States.

There was also a Soldiers and Sailors' Convention on the same day, at which the platform of the National Soldiers and Sailors' Convention at Chicago was adopted without change, and the Chicago nominations of the Republican party heartily indorsed. An additional resolution was adopted, calling upon the State and national governments to show substantial evidence of their indebtedness to the nation's defenders by furnishing employment, so far as possible, to the maimed soldiers and sailors.

The election, which occurred on the second Monday in September, resulted in the choice of General Chamberlain for Governor, by a majority of 20,403. The whole vote was 131,265. Chamberlain received 75,834, Pillsbury 55,431. Five Representatives to Congress were chosen, all Republican. At the presidential election, 112,822 votes were cast; 70,426 were for Grant, and 42,396 for Seymour, giving the Republican ticket a majority of 28,030. The Legislature

of 1869 contains 29 Republicans and 2 Democrats in the Senate, and 119 Republicans and 30 Democrats in the House.

MANLY, Rev. BASIL, D. D., an American Baptist clergyman, author and college president, born near Pittsburg, Chatham County, N. C., January 28, 1798; died at Greenville, S. C., December 21, 1868. His collegiate education was obtained in the College of South Carolina, whence he graduated in 1821. He commenced preaching soon after leaving college, in Edgefield District, S. C., and removed thence to Charleston, to become pastor of the First Baptist Church in that city, in 1826. He remained in this pastorate until 1837, when he was called to the presidency of the University of Alabama, where he continued, managing the affairs of the university with great ability till 1856, when, owing to impaired health, he resigned and again accepted the pastorate this time of the Wentworth Street Baptist Church in Charleston. In 1859, he returned to Alabama and engaged in missionary labors in that State. Finding his health failing, he removed to Greenville, S. C., and spent his last years in agricultural pursuits; preaching, however, when he was able. In 1845 he was the leader in the movements which led to the organization of the Southern Baptist Convention, and in 1858 he was active in founding the Baptist Theological Seminary at Greenville, S. C. Dr. Manly had written much for the press; more, however, in the way of occasional sermons and addresses, review articles and contributions to the religious periodical press, than in books of a more permanent character. A treatise on Moral Science from his pen, for some years a text-book in Southern colleges, indicated abilities of a high order in the discussion of metaphysical questions. He was ardently Southern in his views, and sympathized very heartily with the Southern States in the late war, but at its close resigned himself calmly to the result, and admitted its possible eventual benefits to the South.

MANN, ABIAH, Jr., a politician and political leader from New York, born in Fairfield, Herkimer County, N. Y., September 24, 1793; died at Auburn, N. Y., September 6, 1868. His early education was obtained in the public schools of Herkimer County, aided by the assiduous instruction of his mother, who was a woman of remarkable ability and intelligence. He began life as a school-teacher, but soon became a tradesman, and in time acquired considerable real estate in the principal cities and villages in the State, at length purchasing a coal-mine in Lackawanna County, Pa. He early entered political life as a Republican of the Tompkins school, and gloried in wearing the "buck-tail." He soon became a man of mark; was elected justice of the peace, appointed postmaster, and finally was chosen to the Assembly in 1828. He served three successive terms, obtaining a wide notoriety for his active hostility to the proposed Chenango Canal. He was

elected to Congress in 1832, and reelected in 1834. Having been appointed on a committee to investigate the affairs of the United States Bank, he went to Philadelphia, but was denied access to the institution. At once he procured laborers and sent them to excavate their way under the building. This proceeding induced the officers to let Mr. Mann have his way, and he made a thorough investigation, the result being the disclosure of the most astounding official corruption then on record. Mr. Mann's service in Congress expired with the second administration of Jackson, and in the autumn of the same year he was elected to the Assembly. Several years afterward he removed from Herkimer County, and opened an office in Jauncey Court in New York City, residing in Queens County, and representing that county in the Democratic Convention of 1854. In 1855 the Republicans held their first nominating convention, over which Governor Fenton presided. Preston King was nominated for Secretary of State, and Mr. Mann for Attorney-General. The American party, however, carried the State. In 1857 Mr. Mann was nominated by the Republicans for the Senate from the second district, but was defeated by Samuel Sloan. This was his last appearance before the public. But he took a lively interest in political matters, generally acting with the Republicans, though retaining his early attachment for the distinctive financial views of the Barnburners.

MARSH, Rev. JOHN, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman and reformer, born in Wethersfield, Conn., April 2, 1788; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., of congestion of the brain induced by the intense heat, August 4, 1868. Dr. Marsh was the son of a Congregationalist clergyman, eminent in the early history of Connecticut, and received a careful and thorough educational training in childhood from his father. He entered Yale College at the age of twelve years, and graduated in the class of 1804. He subsequently studied theology with his father, but did not commence preaching until 1809. He was settled as pastor of the First Congregational Church in Haddam, Conn., in 1818, and continued there till 1833. Meantime he had become deeply interested in the temperance movement which was then attracting much attention throughout the State, and had commenced preaching upon the subject in his own town, which, like most others in the State, was suffering greatly from the intemperate use of intoxicating liquors. In 1828 a county society was organized, of which he was one of the officers. In the spring of 1829 the Connecticut State Temperance Society was founded, with Rev. Jeremiah Day, D. D., president of Yale College, for president, and Rev. John Marsh, secretary. Without relinquishing his pastoral charge, Mr. Marsh engaged actively in the duties of this office, delivering temperance addresses in all parts of the State, and rousing the people to abandon their evil habits. It

was during this period that he delivered his famous address, "Putnam and the Wolf," of which 150,000 copies were sold before it went into the hands of the American Tract Society, which has circulated many thousands more. The statistics of the prevalence of intemperance and the extent and evils of the liquor-traffic, which he presented to the State Society in 1830, were startling, and led to a still greater amount of activity throughout the country. In 1831, he was induced to leave his pastoral charge for three months to labor in behalf of temperance in Baltimore and Washington, where he met with great success. In 1833 the American Temperance Union invited him to accept a district agency for their work in Philadelphia, and resign his pastorate to devote himself to this work. He complied with their request, and, after three years of zealous labor there, was called to New York to become the secretary of the American Temperance Union, and the editor of its *Journal*. In that work he continued for more than thirty years, devoting to it his best energies with the most untiring zeal. His discretion in the management of the Washingtonian movement, and the direction of the Temperance Union in other great crises of its history, is worthy of all praise.

In 1866 the veteran retired from his post, with his laurels well earned. Soon after, he published an interesting volume, entitled "Temperance Recollections," which had a large sale. Besides this work, which appeared in 1866, Dr. Marsh (he received the degree of D. D. from Jefferson College, Pa., in 1852) had published numerous sermons, addresses, tracts, and small books, mostly on the subject of temperance, a "Compendium of Ecclesiastical History," in 1838, of which a new and revised edition appeared in 1865, and a volume of Mr. Beecher's Public Prayers, which he had caused to be reported. After his eightieth birthday he accepted an appointment as financial agent of Yale Theological Seminary, and had entered upon his work with gratifying success, when he was suddenly called away.

MARYLAND. The Legislature of Maryland meets on the first Wednesday in January, and is restricted to a session of ninety days. The new constitution, framed and adopted in 1867, expressly abolished the system of public schools then in operation, and made it the duty of the General Assembly at its first session to devise a new system. Accordingly, soon after the opening of the session of 1868, the important task of preparing a bill for that purpose was assigned to the Committee on Education of the two branches of the Legislature, sitting together as a joint committee. Prior to 1865, a school system had been in operation which gave the entire control of public education to county commissioners and other local authorities. Much complaint was made against this system, on the ground of the inefficiency and the conflicting plans adopted in different parts of the State. In some counties the whole subject was

very much neglected, while the liberal management in others attracted all the talent in the market in the way of teachers; and the whole system was declared, by its opponents, to be incongruous and clumsy. In 1865 a new system was adopted, giving the supervision of public schools to a State superintendent, and the general management of popular education to commissioners appointed for the whole State; but no provision was made for the instruction of colored children, although the distribution of the school fund was made according to the whole population, thus giving the old slave counties much more than their fair proportion for the benefit of the white children.

The subject of a new school law was intrusted to the care of the joint committee already alluded to, about the middle of January, and two months later a bill was reported, which gave the general supervision of the system to a Board of Education, composed of the State Commissioner, the president of the Board of County Commissioners for each county, and a delegation of three persons elected by the commissioners of the public schools for the city of Baltimore. The clause requiring the distribution of funds according to the white population was introduced from the old law, thus leaving the children of the colored people still unprovided for. After considerable discussion, and the adoption of several amendments, this bill passed the Lower House, but in the Senate it encountered decided opposition. The result was, that the whole subject was committed to a select committee of twenty-five, one of whom was chosen from each county in the State, one from each legislative district in the city of Baltimore; and near the close of the session a new bill was reported, and soon after adopted by both Houses. This gives the control of educational matters in each county to a Board of County Commissioners, composed of one commissioner from each election district, chosen by a vote of the people for a term of two years. Each school district is to have two trustees, chosen by the voters of the district. The law requires that one or more schools, according to the population, shall be kept open in each district ten months in the year, and be free to all white youth over six and under eighteen years of age. Schools of different grades are to be established where there are over one hundred pupils in attendance, and an assistant teacher is allowed in every school where there are more than sixty scholars. The studies to be pursued are laid down in the following section:

In every district school there shall be taught orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, history of the United States, Constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State of Maryland, algebra, book-keeping, natural philosophy, vocal music, drawing, physiology; the laws of health and of domestic economy shall also be taught whenever the school district boards shall deem it expedient.

The school year is to be divided into four

terms. The law requires the month of August to be held as vacation in all the schools of the State, and another month of vacation is allowed which is to be designated by the county commissioners in such a way as best to subserve the convenience and advantage of their respective counties. Each Board of Commissioners is required to elect an examiner for their respective counties, and no teacher can be employed until he produces a certificate of qualification from the examiner of the county in which he proposes to teach, or from the principal of the State Normal School. Provision for establishing the normal school in the city of Baltimore is made in the same act, and the general charge of the institution is given to three trustees, to be appointed by the Governor. The trustees have power to prescribe the course of study and appoint the faculty, which is to consist of a principal and two male, and two female assistants, the principal to have a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars a year. Students of both sexes are admitted, and are selected, by appointment of the trustees, from candidates nominated by the county commissioners. Those from the counties of Maryland, and from the city of Baltimore, are to enjoy all the advantages of the school, including the use of text-books, free of charge, but students from other States are admitted on payment of twenty-five dollars per session. All the male students of the normal school are to receive instruction in military tactics. All applicants for admission are required to produce a written declaration that their object is to qualify themselves as public school-teachers, and that their intention is to engage in that profession in the State of Maryland. The principal of the State Normal School is to have general supervision of all the public schools in the State, and make an annual report of their condition, expenses, etc., to the Governor. In the city of Baltimore the authority to establish a system of free schools is given to the mayor and city council, with power to prescribe such ordinances, rules, and regulations as they may see fit. In all the schools of the State, text-books are to be furnished at the public expense, and must contain nothing of a partisan or sectarian character.

Authority is given to the districts and counties to make provision for public instruction additional to that afforded by the State, in the following section of the law :

SECTION 1. Every school-house district, or any two or more school-house districts, or any county, shall, jointly, severally, and respectively, have the power to levy taxes upon their respective assessable property, for the purchase of sites and the erection of school-houses; for the improvement of the schools within their boundaries; for the increase of the teacher's salary beyond the amount herein prescribed; for the purchase of superior school apparatus; for the establishment of grammar and high schools, or for any other purpose that may tend to the increase of educational facilities. If any grammar or high school be established by one school-house district alone, then the trustees of such district shall exercise the

same control over such grammar or high school as hereinbefore provided for primary schools; but if such advanced school be established and maintained by more than one school-house district, then the several Boards of Trustees of the respective districts shall jointly constitute the Board of Trustees for such advanced school, and shall in their joint capacity exercise a like control over such advanced school as in their several capacities they exercise over their respective primary schools; and if the advanced school is established by a county, then the Board of County School Commissioners shall exercise control over such advanced school.

With regard to the sources of the school fund and its distribution and use, the following provision is made :

A State tax of ten cents on each one hundred dollars of taxable property throughout the State shall be levied annually for the support of the free public schools and the Maryland State Normal School, which tax shall be collected at the same time and by the same agents as the general State levy, and shall be paid into the Treasury of the State, to be distributed by the Treasurer to the Boards of School Commissioners of the city of Baltimore, and the several counties, in proportion to their respective population between the ages of five and twenty years. The total amount of taxes paid for school purposes by the colored people of any county, or in the city of Baltimore, together with any donations that may be made for the purpose, shall be set aside for maintaining the schools for colored children, which schools shall be conducted under the direction of the Board of County School Commissioners, or the Board of Commissioners of Public Schools of Baltimore, and shall be subjected to such rules and regulations as said respective Boards shall prescribe.

This law went into operation on the 1st of April, and an organization of colored schools in different parts of the State was begun soon afterward. In Baltimore some opposition was made to a proposition that such schools be governed by the same rules and regulations as were prescribed for schools for whites. An ordinance allowing that privilege was finally adopted; but the Board of School Commissioners for the city decided that no colored teachers should be employed in any of these schools. The number of colored pupils registered in Baltimore was 2,800, and the names of 5,800 were on the books in other parts of the State. The cost of educating this part of the population is about \$60,000 annually, nearly one-half of which is paid by themselves.

The general legislation of the Assembly, aside from the school law, for the most part involved matters of no particular interest. A modification of the stringent Sunday law of 1866 was proposed, but the committee to whom the subject was referred made a report adverse to any change. A new bill was offered by Mr. Deveemon as a substitute for this unfavorable report. He believed, he said, that a large majority of the people desired a repeal of the " Draconic, Puritanical, and, in some respects, unconstitutional features of the law of 1866." The idea of having a law on the statute-books to forbid people to give away or sell a cigar or a little soda-water on Sunday was ridiculous and ludicrous in the extreme. Among the changes proposed was one relieving from the operation

of the law those who observed Saturday in place of Sunday, which failed of passage. The whole law remains unchanged.

Philip Francis Thomas, who was chosen to the United States Senate by the General Assembly of 1867, was rejected by that body as lacking the requisite qualifications, because he had "given aid and comfort to the rebellion." A notification of this rejection was communicated by the Governor to the Legislature at its last session, when the subject was referred to a Joint Committee of the two Houses on Federal Relations. This committee made a unanimous report, in which they declared that the only specific act of "giving aid and comfort to the rebellion" on the part of Mr. Thomas, which could be ascertained by their investigations, was the giving of one hundred dollars to his son, who went South during the war, after he had used "earnest and anxious effort to prevent" his going. The report closes with these resolutions:

Resolved, That the General Assembly of Maryland make this their earnest and solemn protest against the proceeding in the United States Senate whereby a Senator-elect from this State, and duly qualified, has been excluded from the Senate.

Resolved, That the foregoing statement and the protest be transmitted to the Legislatures of other States now in session, that they may judge what notice it merits from them, in vindication of the law, the Constitution, and the common rights of all the States.

Resolved, That as the action of the Senate has created a vacancy in the representation of this State in that body, and as it is due to the State and the country that such vacancy should be filled, we will, therefore, in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress, at the proper time, proceed to fill such vacancy.

Later in the session, Mr. William T. Hamilton was chosen United States Senator for the term ending in 1875.

The question of the discontinuance of the Freedmen's Bureau in the Border States having been somewhat agitated, a resolution passed the General Assembly of Maryland calling for information on the subject, and in reply three documents were submitted by General Howard. One of these was a letter, written by himself, in which he expresses his belief that, in view of the recent decisions of some of the judges of the State courts with regard to the apprenticeship laws of the State of Maryland, the interference of the Freedmen's Bureau was still necessary to protect the children of colored people wrongfully held as apprentices under those laws. The laws, it will be remembered, had been lately pronounced null and void by Chief-Justice Chase, as being inconsistent with the Civil Rights Bill. A letter from the Sub-Assistant Commissioner at Annapolis declared that the State was "entirely under the control of the rebel element," and freedmen were not in so secure a position as those in any of the seceding States. The courts, he said, were all in the power of rebels, and not a State court would recognize the Civil Rights Bill. "Stubborn masters refuse to give up

apprentices in accordance with the Chase decision, but are resisting under the lead of the State judiciary, and since the announcement of the withdrawal of the Bureau are more stubborn than ever." He further said that while the better class of whites were in favor of the colored schools, the poorer class opposed them, and would sweep them away if they dared. The third document submitted by General Howard was the following letter:

Major-General O. O. Howard:

The undersigned, members of the Board of Managers of the Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People, learning that the operations of the Bureau in Maryland are under existing orders to cease at an early day, desire to express to you, and through you to the Department, their earnest desire, looking to the interest of the colored people and the continued existence of the work of their education, that such withdrawal of the Bureau should not take place.

The Bureau has effected a great deal for the uprooting of the system of colored apprenticeship, and though this part of the work is not as urgent as before, yet it is still not completed, and, since Judge Chase's decision on *habeas corpus*, the presence of your agents is very needful to take full advantage of that decision. The school work under our care has now reached a crisis, in the proper management of which will depend its stoppage or its being tided over difficulties until the State assumes the schools as part of its general system, or until the colored people shall be able to support them by unaided effort. To withdraw the Bureau now will seriously embarrass and perhaps destroy our efforts in that direction. Indeed, we are of the opinion that here, as well as in the South, the operations of the Bureau should last, at least in their educational character, until the South is reconstructed and represented in Congress, and such is the opinion we all have of the friends of the colored race in this State.

We would also allege that the withdrawal of the Bureau now will have decidedly a bad effect on the colored people, and create in them a want of confidence and a feeling of desertion.

(Signed by) R. M. JANNEY, J. M. CUSHING,
A. STIRLING, JR., GEO. A. POPE,
WM. McKIM, H. L. BOND,
R. S. MATTHEWS, and others.

The Republican State Central Committee in the early part of the year issued a call to the voters of the State who sympathized with the objects and purposes of that party, to gather in primary meetings and choose delegates to a State Convention to be held in the Front Street Theatre, Baltimore, on the 6th of March. Delegates were accordingly chosen, and the convention was held on the day designated, to choose delegates to the National Convention at Chicago, and nominate electors to vote for President and Vice-President of the United States, and to issue a platform of principles. The resolutions constituting this platform were as follows:

Resolved, That the Union Republican party of Maryland hereby affirms its devotion to the principles of justice and impartial manhood suffrage, that it declares its approval of the reconstruction measures adopted by Congress, and its unalterable purpose to maintain untarnished and inviolate the public faith and national credit, to lessen the burden of taxation by cutting off all useless expenditures, and insisting upon the most thorough economy in the administration of the Government, and confidently anticipates that at an early

day the Union will be completely restored on the solid basis of liberty, loyalty, and genuine republicanism.

Resolved, That feeling assured that Ulysses S. Grant is in full accord with the loyal people of the country upon all the political issues that have sprung up between a hostile Executive and a patriotic Congress; regarding his splendid military record with unfeigned admiration; having full faith in his wisdom, integrity, prudence, and firmness; and believing him to be emphatically the man for the times, this convention declares its preference in favor of his nomination for the office of President of the United States.

Resolved, That the delegates elected by this convention are authorized to fill all vacancies that may occur in their numbers. And they are hereby instructed to vote as a unit in the Chicago Convention, and are requested to employ all honorable and proper means to secure the nomination of General Grant and Mr. Creswell for the offices of President and Vice-President.

Resolved, That the reverses of 1867, with the formidable attempt now everywhere making to disseminate and commend the principles of rebellion and repudiation, admonish us that our adversaries are preparing for the most vehement and desperate efforts to regain the control of the Government, and virtually reverse the triumph consummated at Appomattox Court-House; and we exhort our fellow-Republicans throughout the State to organize forthwith for the systematic diffusion of intelligence, by journals and otherwise, and for a vigorous, persistent, and efficient canvass henceforth to the close of the polls in November next.

Resolved, That Hon. John A. J. Creswell be presented to the National Convention by the Republicans of Maryland as the choice of the Republicans of this State for the vice-presidency. His consistent identification with the cause of human freedom, his patriotic services in Congress, the fidelity and sagacity he has displayed, as well as his great prudence and firmness, have endeared him to every Republican in the State as one who will stand firm in the future as he has been immovable in the past.

Resolved, That the Republicans of Maryland heartily sustain the course of Congress in bringing Andrew Johnson to the bar of the Senate to answer for his manifold transgressions against the Constitution and the laws, for his degradation of his high office, and for his attempt to stir up discord in the country by denying the constitutionality of the legislative branch of the Government, and that, in case he be removed by the Senate, we are satisfied that the Republicans of the country can repose the utmost confidence in the patriotism of the Hon. Benjamin F. Wade and the faithful execution by him of the Constitution and the laws.

In addition to these, a resolution was offered by Dr. Wilmer, of Charles County, with a motion that it be appended to the series reported by the committee. It was in these words:

Resolved, by the Republicans of Maryland in Convention assembled, That our delegates to the Chicago Convention recommend the adoption of a platform by that convention, which shall distinctly and emphatically announce that the Republican party of the nation adhere to impartial manhood suffrage as a cardinal principle of the party, and that they shall advocate it both in theory and principle throughout the Union.

This resolution was rejected, and Dr. Wilmer retired from the convention. The rejection of this resolution and the exclusion of colored men from the primary meetings and caucuses of the party produced considerable dissatisfaction, and it was determined by some of the Republican leaders to repudiate the action of the convention of the 6th of March, and call another to meet on the 6th of May. Ex-Governor Thomas declared that the first convention

was, in his "humble judgment, a wretched failure, inasmuch as the whole time of the convention seemed to be occupied in the nomination of officers to positions which no well-informed man expects any one of the nominees will be elected to fill, instead of organizing a party for the overthrow, by constitutional and legal means, of that engine of tyranny and oppression, the anti-republican constitution of Maryland." It was furthermore claimed that the convention had assumed a position hostile to the doctrines and principles of the party, and had ignored the right of colored men to participate in primary meetings. The expectation that colored men, although not voters, would be allowed to take part in such meetings and aid in shaping the policy and course of the party, seems to have been founded on the share which they had taken in attempting to organize a movement to defeat the constitution in 1867. That movement having failed, it was claimed by the majority of Republicans that it had given the negroes no right to take part in deliberations which were intended to form a basis for the action of qualified voters only. "The Bolters' Convention" was, however, held on the 6th of May, and claimed to represent those "in favor of impartial manhood suffrage." Seventeen counties were represented (out of twenty-three), and nearly half the delegates were negroes. Judge Bond was chosen president, and four vice-presidents were elected, one of whom was a colored man. A full delegation to the Chicago Convention was appointed, and an electoral ticket for the State chosen. An address was adopted setting forth the objects of the convention, and condemning the course of that of the 6th of March, and the action of the State Central Committee.

A Soldiers and Sailors' Convention was held on the 22d of April, for the purpose of sending forty delegates to take part in the Soldiers and Sailors' National Convention at Chicago, on the 19th of May. The sentiments of this body on the political issues of the year were expressed in the following resolutions:

Whereas, A call was issued at an informal meeting of the Grand Army of the Republic, held in Philadelphia in January last, requesting the soldiers and sailors of the United States to assemble in convention at the city of Chicago on the 19th day of May, 1868, for the purpose of securing, by all honorable means, the nomination of General Ulysses S. Grant as the candidate of the Union Republican party for the next President, as the only effective method of securing a recognition of our just claims for past service, and which have been so often ignored by pretended friends; and

Whereas, This convention has assembled, in pursuance of said call to select, delegates to said convention; therefore, be it

Resolved, That we recognize in General U. S. Grant a brave and tried soldier, whose services during the late war demand for him the affection and respect of all loyal people, and we believe him to be a wise and prudent statesman, qualified for the position of President of the United States.

Resolved, That this convention instruct the delegates elected to the National Soldiers and Sailors' Convention, to be held in Chicago, to express the unani-

mous preference of the soldiers and sailors of Maryland for General U. S. Grant as the nominee of the Republican party for the next presidency.

Resolved, That the soldiers and sailors of Maryland represented in this convention use this occasion to manifest their adherence to the principles of the great Republican party.

Resolved, That this convention of soldiers and sailors, called for the specific purpose of advocating the nomination of General U. S. Grant for the next presidency, will not entertain any nomination for the vice-presidency or any other position, as not belonging to the distinct object of this convention.

Resolved, That in the present disturbed condition of national affairs we see a struggle between the people representing freedom, loyalty, and free republicanism on the one side, and on the other side, in the person of A. Johnson, the representative of treason, slavery, and oppression, and, in the course he has pursued, the great and hitherto successful enemy of all republics, "the one-man power." We therefore insist that Congress shall in no manner whatever evade the present question before them, but meet it firmly, and thereby forever secure us from all future attempts at a "dictatorship."

The Democratic State Convention met on the 3d of June, and, after an interesting discussion of the political questions involved in the coming presidential campaign, appointed delegates to the New York Convention, and nominated a list of electors for the State. The following resolution was offered by William Pinckney Whyte, and adopted by a unanimous vote:

Resolved, That this convention, actuated by a desire to cultivate a spirit of harmony and conciliation among the members of the national Democratic party, and to secure the nomination of such candidates for the presidency and the vice-presidency as shall command the largest number of the suffrages of those opposed to the present ruinous radical rule, and therefore unwilling to discriminate at this time, in advance, between the eminent statesmen and distinguished soldiers who may be presented for nomination, pledges itself to accept and support the nominees of the New York Convention of the 4th of July next; and, to the end that the delegates to be chosen by this convention to represent this State in New York, looking to the interests of the entire country, and to the integrity and success of the Democratic party, may exercise their discretion and best judgment, it is hereby declared that said delegates are left free and uninstructed as to the candidates for whom they shall cast the vote of this State.

William Pinckney was appointed by Governor Swann to succeed Mr. Reverdy Johnson in the Senate of the United States, when that gentleman was sent by the Federal Government to represent the country at the court of St. James.

The election in Maryland occurred on the Tuesday immediately following the first Monday in November. No State officers were chosen this year. The whole vote for presidential electors numbered 92,795, of which 62,357 were in favor of Seymour, and 30,438 in favor of Grant, giving the former candidate a majority of 31,919. Five members of Congress were chosen, all of whom were members of the Democratic party. Both branches of the State Legislature are unanimously Democratic.

The receipts into the State Treasury from all

sources during the fiscal year ending September 30, 1868, amounted to \$4,135,405.75, while a surplus of \$156,838 was on hand at the beginning of the year. The public expenditures for the same period reached the sum of \$3,809,692.74, leaving an unappropriated surplus in the Treasury of \$482,551.01. The receipts for the next fiscal year, which ends September 30, 1869, are estimated at \$2,000,000, while the disbursements will not be less than \$2,267,000. The school fund, on the 30th of September, amounted to \$79,678. The public debt of Maryland is \$11,712,190.45.

The following shows the assessed value of property in the State and the amount of the tax levy:

COUNTIES.	Assessed Value of Prop'y in 1866 & 1867.	Amount of Levy in 1868.
Allegany.....	\$16,000,000	\$30,400.00
Anne Arundel.....	10,576,265	20,094.90
Baltimore City.....	227,569,156	452,381.40
Baltimore County.....	40,070,873	76,134.66
Calvert.....	2,190,529	4,162.00
Caroline.....	4,147,759	7,880.72
Carroll.....	16,818,166	31,954.49
Cecil.....	14,235,523	27,047.50
Charles.....	3,112,371	5,913.49
Dorchester.....	6,198,577	11,776.35
Frederick.....	26,295,629	49,961.69
Harford.....	12,613,572	23,965.78
Howard.....	7,294,988	13,860.47
Kent.....	8,111,236	15,411.34
Montgomery.....	7,668,504	14,570.15
Prince George.....	8,947,910	17,001.03
Queen Anne.....	8,496,131	16,142.64
St. Mary's.....	3,112,755	5,914.23
Somerset.....	3,797,316	7,214.30
Talbot.....	7,711,384	14,651.63
Washington.....	20,206,872	38,393.06
Wicomico.....	4,391,932	8,344.69
Worcester.....	4,580,616	8,703.17
Total.....	\$464,148,064	\$881,880.29
Amount of levy for direct tax at 3 cents on each \$100.....		\$139,244.26
Amount of levy for school tax at 10 cents on each \$100.....		464,147.53
Amount of levy for bounty tax at 5½ cents on each \$100.....		255,281.13
Amount of levy for Southern relief tax at ½ cent on each \$100.....		23,207.37
Total.....		\$881,880.29

The property belonging to the Commonwealth is exhibited in the following schedule:

Productive.

Stock in the Farmers' National Bank of Annapolis.....	\$46,470.00
Stock in the Main stem of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co.....	500,000.00
Stock in the Washington Branch of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co.....	550,000.00
Stock in the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal Company.....	62,500.00
Bonds of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Co., on which they provide the interest paid by the State.....	1,900,000.00
Bonds of the Susquehanna and Tidewater Canal Company.....	1,000,000.00
Mortgage of the Northern Central Railway Company.....	1,500,000.00
Due from Incorporated Institutions, Collectors of State Taxes, Sheriffs, Inspectors, Registrars of Wills, Clerks of Courts, Auctioneers, etc.....	1,513,706.36
	\$7,072,676.36

Unproductive.

Due from the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company—Interest.....	\$11,122,578.37
Bonds of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company.....	2,000,000.00
Stock of the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company.....	5,000,000.00
Stock of the Annapolis and Elkridge Railroad Company.....	299,873.41
Stock of the Maryland and Delaware Railroad Company, per chap. 303 of 1860.....	140,350.00
Stock of the Eastern Shore Railroad Company, chap. 203 of 1860.....	112,700.00
Stock of the Philadelphia and Baltimore Central Railroad Company, per chap. 303 of 1860.....	35,000.00
Stock of the Wicomico and Pocomoke Railroad Company, per chap. 303 of 1860.....	64,101.00
Stock of the Bohemia Bridge Company, per chap. 303 of 1860.....	15,876.99
Stock of the Dorchester and Delaware Railroad Company, chap. 303 of 1860.....	60,000.00
Stock of the Kent and Queen Anne Railroad Company, chap. 303 of 1860.....	20,000.00
Loan to the President and Directors of the Potomac Company.....	30,000.00
Interest thereon to May 16, 1825.....	13,280.00
Stock of the Potomac Company.....	120,444.44
Nanticoke Bridge Company.....	4,393.33
Chesapeake Steam Towing Company.....	25,000.00
Bonds installed and not installed, exclusive of interest.....	10,000.00
Due from the Penitentiary, for premium and interest.....	5,097.36
Stock of the Elkton Bank.....	10,000.00
Dividend Bond No. 53, of Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company.....	80.00
Total Unproductive.....	\$19,088,219.90
Total Productive.....	7,072,676.36
Grand total.....	\$26,160,896.26

The valley of the Patapsco River, in Maryland, was visited, on the 24th of July, by a terrific flood, which so much swelled the volume of that stream, that great damage was done by the overflow in the city of Baltimore and other towns farther up the river. Ellicott City was almost destroyed, and several lives were lost. The water filled several of the streets of Baltimore, and produced great confusion. The damage to property in and about the city is said to have been about \$3,000,000.

MASSACHUSETTS. The Legislature of this State was in session from the first Wednesday in January until the 12th of June. The number of days occupied by its sittings was 165, which constitutes the longest term ever known in the State. During that time 352 acts were passed and 67 resolves approved by the Governor.

The subject of regulating the sale of liquor was the prominent topic under consideration. The Governor, in his message at the beginning of the session, informed the members that the people had expressed themselves in favor of a change in the existing law, but it was well known that Mr. Bullock was himself opposed to a license system. A law was framed early in the session, providing for the sale of intoxicating drinks on licenses to be issued by county commissioners. The classes of persons to whom licenses might be granted "to sell to be drunk on the premises," were "licensed innholders," "licensed common victuallers," and "liquor-dealers engaged in no other business connected therewith." Liquor-dealers, grocers,

apothecaries, and brewers may also be allowed "to sell not to be drunk on the premises." It is left to cities and towns by a vote of their citizens to determine, if they see fit, that no license shall be granted to persons within their limits. The county commissioners, or the mayors and aldermen of cities, have authority at any time to enter upon the premises of these licensed dealers, to ascertain the manner in which their business is conducted, and to take samples of their liquors for analysis; and any one selling liquors of bad quality is liable to forfeiture of his license. All dealers are required to keep a strict account of all liquors sold by them, and to make a return thereof once in two months to the treasurer of the city or town in which they carry on the business; and a tax varying from one to two per cent. is imposed upon the value of liquors sold under license.

This act did not meet the approval of Governor Bullock, but as he recognized the fact that the judgment of the people had been expressed in favor of some system of licenses in place of the prohibitory measures of former years, he saw fit to allow the bill to become a law by withholding his assent beyond the period of five days allowed by the constitution for the approval or disapproval of the Governor. He was not, however, willing that the withholding of his formal assent should be construed as a tacit approval of the new law, or attributed to indifference on the subject. He accordingly sent a message to the House of Representatives, where the measure originated, in which he sought "to place on record" his "earnest conviction that the restrictions it provides are not in accordance with the measure of regulation demanded by the people of the Commonwealth." He uses the following language regarding this matter: "The fourth section of the bill throws open public bars and tippling-houses in every quarter of the State. It leads into temptation the young and the weak; it spreads a snare for the stranger and the unwary. It replaces thrift with waste; and the peace and quiet of neighborhoods with boisterous and reckless disorder. It is destructive to the influences of the family and the fireside; adverse to good morals, and repugnant to the religious sentiment of the community.

"To a measure like this, which as a citizen I could not support, as the Chief Magistrate of the Commonwealth I cannot affix my signature in approval; and declining to return it with my objections for the reasons I have given, I refer it to the judgment and the conscience of all the people of Massachusetts."

The course of the Governor, in allowing this bill to become a law before giving his reason for withholding his approval of it, received some severe comment in the House of Representatives, and his message having been referred to the Judiciary Committee, they reported in favor of returning that document with

an expression of disapprobation at the course pursued by the Governor. He had, the report says, "sent the bill out to the public, whose obedience to it, he, as executive, is required to enforce, with the stigma, not only of his declared disapproval, but of his severest official and personal denunciations." To this communication the Governor made a reply, defending his own action as strictly constitutional as well as justifiable, and characterizing the course of the House of Representatives in returning his message as without precedent and "destructive of the courtesy which ought to prevail between the different departments of the government." The chairman of the committee which had waited on the Governor, to communicate the action of the House, declined to carry back any reply, saying that the committee had been charged with the "single duty of returning to your Excellency your message, with the document accompanying the same," and could make no other report than that they had performed that duty.

Very soon after the passage of the license law and the occurrences narrated above, a Temperance Convention was held in Boston, in response to a call addressed to "the citizens of Massachusetts who are legal voters, and are opposed to the sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage under the authority and sanction of the Commonwealth." The sentiments of the body of citizens represented in this convention were expressed in a series of resolutions, in which they oppose the principle and policy of licensing a traffic in liquors in any way, which has, they say, "always and everywhere proved disastrous." With regard to the political aspect of the question, the convention resolved, "that the relation of the State to the liquor-traffic is eminently a political question; that it is inseparable from the ordinary objects of government, the security of person and property, and the suppression of pauperism and crime. It touches the foundations of government, the character of the citizen, and the purity of the ballot, and that, from its relation to all these objects, the issue between license and prohibition becomes greatly more important than ordinary party issues."

The subject was entirely ignored as a political issue by the Republicans in the canvass of the year, but the Democrats incorporated a resolution into their party platform, in which, while they "deny all responsibility for the form of the present license law," they say they are "fully persuaded of the wisdom of some system of regulating the sale of liquors, as distinguished from the principle of total prohibition."

With regard to the practical working of the law, Governor Claflin, in his message to the Legislature of 1869, says: "The increase of drunkenness and crime during the last six months, as compared with the same period in 1867, is very marked and decisive as to the operation of the law. The State prison, jails,

and houses of correction are being rapidly filled, and will soon require enlarged accommodations, if the commitments continue to increase as they have done since the present law went into force." The conclusion at which the new State Executive arrives is that it is "essential for the public good that the present system should be abandoned and that one should be adopted more in accordance with the habits and experience of the people."

In 1865 a law had been passed, establishing a State police, providing that a constable of the Commonwealth should be appointed by the Governor with power to name as many deputies as the Governor and Council should direct. This law had come into considerable odium throughout the State, owing in great measure to the vigor with which the constabulary force had been used in 1867 to enforce the obnoxious prohibitory liquor law. In the reaction against these rigid enactments in the last Legislature, a bill was introduced providing for the repeal of the constabulary act. This passed both Houses of the General Court, but was arrested by the veto of the Governor. In giving his reasons for not approving of this repeal, Governor Bullock declared his belief in the increasing need of efficient police regulations, and his conviction of the superiority of a State constabulary over any local arrangements which could be made for the preservation of public order. This repeal failing, another bill was framed later in the session, which was intended to supersede the constabulary law by provisions entirely different. Admitting the necessity of a stronger force to carry the laws into effect and to prevent disorders, than was provided by the police authorities of towns and cities, this new act proposed to give the sheriffs the authority to appoint additional officers in each county, the number only to be designated by the Governor and Council, which was in no case to exceed ten for a single county. No provision was made for any officer corresponding to the State constable, to be at the head of this new force, and the only control over it given to the Chief Magistrate was, the power to "assume command of the whole or any of the municipal force of any place, and to authorize the sheriffs of the Commonwealth to command their assistance in the execution of criminal process, in the suppressing of riots and preserving the peace." This measure met with the same fate as the act to repeal the State constabulary law, and an attempt to make it a law notwithstanding the Governor's objection failed to receive the sanction of a two-thirds vote.

The question of suffrage for women was brought before the Legislature by a petition from several prominent female agitators of that subject, and a motion in the House to refer the petition to the Judiciary Committee, with instructions to report a bill granting the right asked for, failed by a vote of 119 nays to 74 yeas.

Resolutions were introduced, condemning

any use of coercive party influences, intended to affect the vote of Senators in Congress on the impeachment of the President, then pending before that tribunal. On the general subject of Federal relations, the following were adopted:

Resolved, That Massachusetts, foregoing, as a Christian Commonwealth should, all desire for vindictive measures toward those who waged against the nation a long, bloody, and cruel rebellion, does yet insist, with an emphasis which her costly sacrifice of the life of her heroes and the lavish expenditures of her means entitle her to use, that every thing shall now be done to secure in peace the fruits of war; and that it is both the right and duty of Congress to insist on suitable conditions upon which power may be restored to the States, lately in rebellion, as members of the national Union.

Resolved, That we approve the general policy of Congress in regard to the measures of reconstruction; and that we deplore that the President has thwarted and embarrassed that policy and retarded a just settlement of all matters necessary for the permanence of peace throughout our land.

Resolved, That we recognize impartial suffrage in the rebel States as an indispensable condition of permanent pacification; that it is alike demanded as a measure of justice to our loyal allies, who should be allowed the ballot to defend what the bullet has won, and as a measure guaranteeing the perpetual loyalty of the Southern States.

Resolved, That disclaiming all right to interfere with the local laws of the loyal States, we do earnestly appeal to our sister Commonwealths to sweep from their constitutions and their statute-books all those distinctions between man and man which are founded upon color, as relics of slavery, as opposed in spirit to the fundamental charter of our own liberties, and as a reproach to our civilization.

Resolved, That the observance of the greatest good faith is the highest interest as well as the noblest fame of a nation; and that the people of our Commonwealth with one voice demand that every national obligation to pay money shall be discharged in what the whole world recognizes as money, and in nothing else, unless otherwise specially stipulated in the bond.

Resolved, That the aims of Massachusetts find a fitting summary in the security of liberty and loyalty, justice and public safety, throughout our whole country.

Nearly \$9,000,000 were appropriated during the session. Among the appropriations were the following: \$75,000 to the Museum of Comparative Zoology in Cambridge, \$75,000 to Williams College, \$50,000 to the State Agricultural College, \$40,000 to the Mount Holyoke Female College, and \$25,000 to the Asylum for the Blind.

The great enterprise of constructing a railroad from Greenfield to Troy, through the Hoosac Mountains, has assumed a more definite shape than heretofore, and it is confidently expected that the work will be completed in the course of the next five years. The Legislature, just before its adjournment, passed a law, authorizing the Governor and Executive Council to contract for the whole work of constructing the Hoosac tunnel, limiting the cost to \$5,000,000, and the time within which it must be completed to seven years. A supplemental act authorized the use of \$250,000, to be taken from the \$5,000,000, to continue op-

erations until the proposed contract should be made. Proposals were advertised and negotiations conducted, which resulted in a contract for the construction of the tunnel, executed on the 24th of December, by the Governor and Council with Walter Shanly, of Montreal, and Francis Shanly, of Toronto, for the sum of \$4,594,268, to be paid in United States Treasury notes, or other current funds. The contractors are men of large experience in constructing railroads and prosecuting mining operations, and have great financial resources at their command. In the contract it is agreed that no sum whatever shall be paid until work has been performed to the amount of \$500,000 and approved by the Governor and Council, and the full sum of \$1,000,000 is to be kept back until the completion of the whole work. The contract limits the time to March, 1874, with power, on the part of the Governor and Council, to grant an extension of six months; and furthermore these authorities may at any time terminate the entire contract on three months' notice to the contractors. The entire cost of this work, with the railroads which are to be accommodated by it, may be stated follows:

Cost of railroad thus far.....	\$1,666,250
Money already laid out on the tunnel....	3,002,176
Am't to be paid on the present contract.	4,594,268
Total.....	\$9,262,694

This would make the entire cost of the railroad from Boston to Troy, with its immediate connections, about \$16,000,000.

The conditional loan of \$3,000,000 to the Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railroad Company, authorized by the Legislature, in 1867, was consummated this year, after a careful investigation into the condition of the corporation, and the probability of its completing its line from Boston to Fishkill before May 27, 1872, which investigation was made by commissioners appointed by the Governor under the act of 1867, authorizing the loan. The condition of this loan was, that it should be made to appear, satisfactorily to the Governor and Council, that the company would be able to complete this line of railroad in five years from the passage of the act.

Work has been continued at Cape Cod for the protection of the harbor at Provincetown. A survey was made, and it was found necessary to close up the inlet of East Harbor to prevent the tide from cutting entirely through the neck of land at that point, and destroying the harbor. This was accomplished by means of a strong dike built across the mouth of the inlet, at an expense of about \$150,000. This is regarded as an important public work.

All the institutions of reform and of charity in Massachusetts have been in successful and efficient operation through the year. At the State Prison, in Charlestown, \$27,646.49 were earned beyond the entire expenses of the institution. The number of commitments, prior to

the 1st of October, was 136, while during the same months, in 1867, there were only 65. There are three schools for the correction and reformation of juvenile delinquents, viz.: the State Reform School at Westboro'; the Nautical School, partly on a vessel lying in Boston harbor, and partly on board another vessel at New Bedford; and the State Industrial School for girls, at Lancaster. On the 1st of October, there were 321 inmates at Westboro', 134 at Lancaster, and 281 in the Nautical School, making 736 in all: 115 were committed; 50 returned, and 163 discharged at the first-named institution. At Lancaster there were 56 commitments, 66 returns, and 145 discharges. Those discharged are apprenticed or furnished with situations, unless otherwise provided for by their own friends. Besides these State institutions, Boston has a House of Reformation on Deer Island, and there are several private institutions of a similar character. The whole cost of the three State reformatories, for the year, was \$115,000 above their earnings.

The amount of money granted for the support of common schools during the year was \$2,635,774.06, or about \$280,000 more than the amount devoted to that purpose in the preceding year. Besides these, \$1,495,573 were paid for the erection of new school-houses. The average monthly pay for teachers in Massachusetts is \$72.93 for male, and \$27.84 for female teachers.

The public debt of the State on the first of January, 1869, was \$27,735,870.05, which may be classified as follows:

Railroad debt.....	\$9,142,176
Ante-war debt.....	1,092,000
War debt.....	16,573,244

Of the funded liabilities, the payment of all but \$352,000 is fully secured by sinking funds. The estimated expenses of the government for the year 1869 are \$5,000,000. The estimated receipts from all sources, so far as provided, are \$3,000,000, leaving \$2,928,450, including the temporary debt, to be provided for by taxation. The city of Boston has a debt of \$14,146,900.65.

The conventions of the two political parties were held in September. The following is the platform of the Democratic Convention:

Resolved, That the people of the United States have sufficiently proved by experience the lesson of history, that the caprice of majorities is intolerable tyranny; we therefore invoke the protection, and demand an immediate return to the limitations and requirements of the Constitution of the United States.

Resolved, That the leaders of the Republican party in Congress having shown a consistent and persistent purpose to usurp all the powers and functions of all other departments of the Government; to trample on the Constitution in order to organize a squad of negro colonies dependent on themselves, by whose aid to perpetuate their own political power, and neutralize the white voters of the South; to disregard and debase the high office of President by deposing its incumbent for difference of political opinion, in order to satisfy their lust for power, thereby inevitably destroying the balance of our government, and throwing down that great constitutional department

to be the mere football of furious faction; and to deprive the Supreme Court, which is the best defence of an oppressed minority, of all power to inquire into the constitutionality of certain congressional enactments; thus planting the heel of party even upon the neck of the judiciary itself, lest their revolutionary measures should be put to the test of the organic laws and be declared void; the time has come when every man must choose between the sovereignty of a party majority in Congress or the supremacy of the Constitution of the fathers.

Resolved, That congressional reconstruction, while it is unstatesmanlike in its attempt to rule communities by their least able classes, ridiculous in its pretension, that a government can be truly republican which a majority of the government tolerate only from intimidation, contemptible for its preposterous pretence that States which never got out of the Union can be restored by allowing seats in both Houses of Congress to be occupied by vagrant squatters who misrepresent the districts to which they do not belong, and whose pretended elections pollute the very fountain of congressional representation; dangerous, as establishing a policy the logical results of which, as shown in Ireland and Poland, are incompatible with peace and liberty, is above all unconstitutional and revolutionary.

Resolved, That we would earnestly recall the people to the tried and proved wisdom of the ancient doctrines which require from our lawgivers a strict construction of the letter of the Constitution of the United States, and demand scrupulous observance by Congress of the reserved rights of States.

Resolved, That gold and silver coin is the only constitutional legal tender, and while we would have but one currency for all, the Democracy of Massachusetts now, as in the past, are true to their old faith in hard money, and demand that it be restored at the earliest possible moment, consistent with the interest of the business and labor of the country.

Resolved, That, while we recognize the present necessity of a tax on imports, we renew our adhesion to the doctrine of a tariff solely for revenue.

Resolved, That in the nomination of John Quincy Adams, a name renowned wherever the history of our country is known, as the standard-bearer for the approaching contest, as also the gentlemen associated upon the State ticket, we have presented to the Democrats and Conservatives of Massachusetts a ticket worthy of their full confidence and cordial support at the polls.

Resolved, That while we deprecate all attempts to detract from the military fame, or blacken the private character of General Grant, we feel that when arms exert an undue and abnormal power in a free government in a time of peace, and its constitutional functions are greatly deranged and partially suspended by partisan violence, a people jealous of their liberties should not lift higher yet the hand which holds the sword. The nation needs now not the successful soldier, skilled only in the art of war, and prone to rule by the swift methods of the camp, but the wise and thoughtful statesman, trained in the patient processes of conciliation and kindness, and relying alone upon the mild, firm sway of law and justice.

Resolved, That we heartily agree with the declaration of principles put forth by the convention which met in New York City on the 4th day of July last, that we cordially approve of the candidates selected, and confidently ask the suffrages of all those who value the Constitution higher than a platform, and love their country better than any party, for Horatio Seymour and Frank P. Blair.

Resolved, That if the lavish and reckless extravagance of Republican rule in national and State affairs is to be accepted, as our opponents claim, for a judicious economy, then we insist upon a rigid parsimony in the expenditure of the public money. Every dollar received by taxation from the people, not absolutely necessary for the economical and legitimate

expenses of the Government to be applied to the payment of the public debt.

Resolved, That while we deny any responsibility for the form of the present license law, we are fully persuaded of the wisdom of some system of regulating the sale of liquors as distinguished from the principle of total prohibition.

Resolved, That the memory of the services of our soldiers and sailors, who carried the flag of our country to victory during the late rebellion, should ever be borne in the hearts of a grateful people, and all guarantees given in their favor must be faithfully carried out.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the United States to protect all citizens, whether native born or naturalized, in every right at home and abroad, regardless of any claim of foreign nations to the doctrine of perpetual allegiance.

Resolved, That labor is the true source of all wealth, and the men of labor are not only the real authors of the material well-being, but the best defenders of the honor and interests of the country; it is, therefore, not less the dictate of wise policy than of sound principles, that the rights of labor be fully maintained, and every possible opportunity of individual improvement secured by just laws to the workmen of the country.

The following is the platform of the Republican Convention:

Resolved, That the Republicans of Massachusetts heartily approve the platform adopted by the Republican party of the nation at Chicago, and pledge their earnest support to the election of Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax, as essential to the peace, safety, and honor of the country.

Resolved, That the rights of the loyal citizens of the South, won in war and secured by national legislation, shall be maintained.

Resolved, That we heartily approve the system of reconstruction as wise and humane, and as demanding no more than the security and good faith of the country require.

Resolved, That we reprobate the position of the Democratic party, recently and authoritatively taken, which has resuscitated the rebellion, and purposes to overthrow by force, if necessary, the already effected reconstruction.

Resolved, That the success of the Democratic party tends directly to revolution and civil war.

Resolved, That the success of the Republican party is essential to the public credit, as this party alone can be relied upon to make the actual and honest payment of the public debt, in gold and silver, a matter of sacred honor; while the Democratic proposition is an evasion of our duty, and a fraud upon those who have trusted the nation.

Resolved, That we offer to the suffrages of the people William Claflin for Governor, and Joseph Tucker, for Lieutenant-Governor, and the other candidates for State offices nominated by this convention, as persons true to our great national cause, and deserving the confidence of the people.

Resolved, That the public life of the Honorable Charles Sumner during three terms of service in the Senate of the United States has fully justified the confidence which has been successively reposed in him—that his eloquent, fearless, and persistent devotion to the sacred cause of human rights, as well in its early struggles as in its later triumphs; his beneficent efforts, after the abolition of slavery, in extirpating all the incidents thereof; his constant solicitude for the material interests of the country; his diligence and success, as chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs, in vindicating the policy of maintaining the just rights of the Government against foreign powers, and at the same time preserving peace with the nations—all present a public record of rare usefulness and honor—and that his fidelity, experience, and honorable identification with our national his-

tory, call for his reelection to the high office in which he has rendered such illustrious service to his country and to mankind.

The election in November resulted as follows: Whole vote for Governor, 195,471: for William Claflin, the Republican candidate, 132,121; for John Quincy Adams, candidate of the Democrats, 63,266—Claflin's majority 68,855. The other State officers elected, all Republicans, were: Lieutenant-Governor, Captain Joseph Tucker; Secretary of State, Oliver Warner; Attorney-General, Charles Allen; Treasurer, Jacob H. Lord; Auditor-General, H. S. Briggs.

The vote cast for presidential electors was 195,911; of these, 136,477 were in favor of the election of Grant; 59,408 for Seymour—Grant's majority, 77,069. Ten Representatives of the State in Congress were chosen, all of whom were Republicans. The composition of the State Legislature of 1869 is 38 Republicans and 2 Democrats in the Senate, and 224 Republicans and 16 Democrats in the House of Representatives.

MATTISON, REV. HIRAM, D. D., a Methodist clergyman and author, born in Oswego, N. Y., in 1811; died in Jersey City, N. J., November 24, 1868. He was, we believe, a graduate of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa., and, though he commenced preaching, soon after his graduation, in the limits of the Black River Conference, he was for many years a professor in the Black River Institute, having for his department mathematics and physics. He was very fond of astronomy, and prepared an elementary text-book on that subject, as well as an edition, thoroughly remodelled and revised, of Burritt's *Geography of the Heavens*, with an atlas of the starry heavens, on a different plan from Burritt's. In 1850 he abandoned teaching and entered the itineracy, being assigned to one of the prominent Methodist churches in New York City. From that time he made his home in that city or its vicinity. On the establishment of the *National Magazine*, a literary and religious periodical published by the Methodist Book Concern, he became a leading contributor, and his articles were noticeable for their intellectual vigor. His disposition, however, led him into polemics, and there was hardly a prominent question in theology, ethics, or reform, into which he did not plunge with all the ardor of his nature. He was a determined foe to the theories and manifestations of the Spiritualists, and combated their system with great zeal and pugnacity. He lectured on this subject many times, and published a small treatise "to show up," as he said, "the humbug of their pretensions." He was a zealous antislavery advocate, and partly because the Methodist Episcopal Church did not take as advanced ground as he thought right, and partly from dissatisfaction with their mode of representation, he withdrew, in 1860, from that Church, and founded a body to whom he gave the name of "Independent Methodists." He had been from

1856 corresponding editor of the *Northern Independent*, an antislavery Methodist journal published at Auburn, and this paper became the mouth-piece of the new denomination. He had a large church, holding his own views, in Sixth avenue, New York; called the Trinity Methodist Church. He was at the same time engaged, almost constantly, in literary labor, and published a very able treatise in defence of the doctrine of the Trinity. After the Quadrennial Conference of 1864, finding that the Methodist Episcopal Church occupied substantially the same ground with himself, on the slavery question, Dr. Mattison regarded any further distinctive and independent action as unwise, and made overtures for a return to that Church. He was very cordially welcomed, and assigned to the charge of the Trinity Methodist Episcopal Church in Jersey City, in the spring of 1865. In 1867 he resigned his charge to accept the position of secretary of the American and Foreign Christian Union. His first public appearances in connection with this society were made in the way of a most forcible onslaught upon Roman Catholicism and its benign influences on the hearts and lives of men. The case of Marianne Smith, a young girl of Roman Catholic parentage, who had united with a Methodist church, and whose father had caused her arrest and detention in the "House of the Good Shepherd," a Roman Catholic reformatory and Magdalen Asylum in New York, roused his indignation, and he interested himself in her behalf, preached about the case, in vain appealed to the courts and to the public, and, finally, published a little volume in regard to it. While in the midst of his manifold religious and intellectual activities, he was seized with pneumonia, and died after a very few days' illness.

McCALL, GEORGE ARCHIBALD, Major-General of Pennsylvania Volunteers, Brigadier-General U. S. Volunteers, and formerly Colonel of Cavalry, U. S. A., a meritorious officer in the late war, born in Philadelphia, March 16, 1802; died at Westchester, Pa., February 25, 1868. After receiving his early education in the schools of his native city, young McCall entered the Military Academy at West Point in 1818, and graduated in 1822, ranking twenty-sixth in a class of forty. He was immediately appointed second-lieutenant in the First regiment of Infantry, and in December of the same year transferred to the same rank in the Fourth Infantry. He served for nine years in Florida and Louisiana, being promoted to a first-lieutenancy in January, 1829, was selected by General Gaines as aide-de-camp, in April, 1831, and remained on his staff till March, 1836, when he was ordered on recruiting service, having been promoted to be captain in September, 1836, and in 1838 was sent to the northern frontier, during the Canada troubles. His next assignment to duty was in the Indian Territory, where he remained till 1841. He was

actively engaged in the Florida War, in 1841-'42, and distinguished himself in one of the severest battles of that war (that of the Big Hammock of Pilaklikaha, April 19, 1842). He was thenceforth on the frontier in Kansas and Texas till the Mexican War, and distinguished himself for his gallantry in the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, winning brevets of major and lieutenant-colonel. In July, 1846, he again received a staff appointment as assistant adjutant-general, and chief of staff to Major-General Patterson's Division. In December, 1847, he was promoted to be major of the Third Infantry. At the close of the war he visited Europe on leave of absence, and on his return, after being in actual command of his regiment for some months at Santa Fé, was appointed by President Taylor Inspector-General of the Army of the United States with staff rank of colonel of cavalry. After nearly three years of service in this important office, he resigned his connection with the army, April 29, 1853, and retired to his residence in Chester County, Pa., where he remained till 1861. At the commencement of the late civil war, he organized, at Governor Curtin's request, the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps, 15,000 strong, which he commanded with the State rank of Major-General of Pennsylvania Volunteers, from July, 1861, to June, 1862. He was also appointed by the President Brigadier-General, U. S. Volunteers, May 17, 1861. He was engaged in the action of Drainsville, December 20, 1861, in the battle of Mechanicsville (commanding the engaged troops), June 26, 1862, where he distinguished himself for his bravery and tenacity in holding his position; at the battle of Gaines's Mill, June 27, 1862, his conduct was again highly creditable; and at the battle of New Market Cross Roads, June 30, 1862, at the close of which, while reconnoitring, he was taken prisoner, and confined in Libby Prison for nearly seven weeks. When exchanged, he went home on sick-leave of absence, his health having been much impaired by his imprisonment, and did not again take any active part in the war, but resigned his commissions March 31, 1863. On the 26th of August, 1862, he was presented by the citizens of Chester County with a superb sword. In October following he was the candidate of the Democratic party for Congress, but was defeated. His health continued infirm, and, though able to oversee the business of his estate for some time, he gradually failed in health and strength to his death. A volume written by Gen. McCall, entitled "Letters from the Frontier, written during thirty years' service in the U. S. Army," has been published since his death.

McRAE, JOHN J., a Southern politician and political leader, born in Wayne County, Mississippi about 1810; died at Balize, British Honduras, May 30, 1868. Mr. McRae was educated at the University of Mississippi, and, soon after graduating, entered upon the study of law, rather from a desire to make it the stepping-stone to a political career than from any in-

tention to devote himself very assiduously to its practice. He, however, for a time engaged in his profession, but very soon was elected to the State Legislature, and was for a number of years State Senator from his district. In 1851 he was appointed by the Governor United States Senator, and served for a few months. In 1853 he was elected Governor of Mississippi, and held that position from 1854 to 1858. At the expiration of his gubernatorial term, he was elected to Congress to serve out the remainder of General Quitman's term, the general having died in July, 1858. In 1859 he was reelected to the Thirty-sixth Congress, and throughout that Congress was a member of the Committee on Military Affairs. At the commencement of the war, in 1861, he avowed his sympathy with the Confederate leaders, but never became prominent. His health had begun to decline before the close of the war, and continuing to be infirm, he had sailed in May, 1868, for Balize, in the hope of benefit from the change, but died in less than a week after his arrival there.

MECKLENBURG, the name of two grand-duchies in the North-German Confederation. I. *Mecklenburg-Schwerin*. Grand-duke, Friedrich Franz II., born February 28, 1823; succeeded his father Paul Friedrich, on March 5, 1842; married on July 3, 1868, to Mary, Princess of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, his third wife. Area of the grand-duchy, 4,834 English square miles; population, according to the census returns, published on May 2, 1868, 560,123 inhabitants—an increase of 7,938 since the year 1864. The population of the largest cities in the grand-duchy, according to the same census returns, is as follows: Rostock, 29,211; Schwerin, 24,715; Wismar, 17,315; Güstrow, 9,414. There are, besides, three cities with a population of upward of 5,000 inhabitants, and twenty-two towns whose population exceeds 2,000 inhabitants. Annual expenditures of the grand-ducal government in 1867, 5,137,493 thalers. Public debt, in 1868, 8,150,600 thalers. The standing army, in 1868, consisted of 5,601 men. Mecklenburg-Schwerin possessed, in 1868, 445 merchant-vessels; among them, 11 steamers.—II. *Mecklenburg-Strelitz*. Grand-duke, Friedrich Wilhelm I., born October 17, 1819; succeeded his father September 6, 1860. Area, 997 English square miles. Population, according to the census of 1868, 98,255. New Strelitz, the capital, with 8,115 inhabitants, is the largest town in the grand-duchy. The army, when on a peace footing, consists of 982 men; on a war footing it is 1,912 strong. Public expenditures, in 1867, 1,591,312 thalers. Public debt, in 1868, 1,685,000 thalers.

The year 1868, in a political and economical point of view, was the most important and eventful in the history of the two grand-duchies of Mecklenburg, since the Revolution of 1848. The curious mediæval institutions, which the aristocracy of the two states, with the active coöperation of the governments, had

succeeded in reëstablishing after the overthrow of the liberal constitution adopted by the Constituent Assembly of 1848, were rudely shaken by the new laws of the North-German Confederation, which were promulgated and became valid in Mecklenburg in the course of 1868. The joint Diet (*Landtag*) of the two grand-duchies, composed of the so-called *Ritterschaft* (owners of the old feudal estates), the *Landschaft* (commoners), and the mayors and delegates of the cities and towns, held two sessions (in January and May), for the purpose of harmonizing the laws of Mecklenburg with the bills passed by the North-German Reichstag. While a majority of the members of the Diet readily consented to the heavy appropriations necessitated by the introduction of the Prussian landwehr system, and the virtual incorporation of the military forces of the two grand-duchies into the Prussian army, it tried, by a number of clauses attached to the enabling acts, to prevent other laws of the North-German Confederation from obtaining full validity in Mecklenburg. Especially was this the case with the important North-German *Freizügigkeitsgesetz*, by virtue of which every citizen of the North-German Confederation was to be at liberty to choose his domicile at any place in the Confederation, without needing to obtain the consent of the local and municipal authorities. This law was in conflict with the ancient statutes of Mecklenburg, by which no one was permitted to settle anywhere outside the parish where he was born, except with the consent of the authorities. Besides, the Jews of Mecklenburg, who, up to this time, had been excluded from several of the larger cities, were now, by virtue of the laws of the North-German Confederation, admitted to them; but the Mecklenburg Diet passed a bill depriving the Jews of Mecklenburg of the right to hold real estate in the rural districts. Appeals against the constitutionality of this act were made to the executive of the North-German Confederation, but have hitherto remained fruitless. The first Jews settled in Rostock and Wismar, on the 1st of July, 1868. Considerable dissatisfaction arose in the early part of summer from the disastrous effects which the new North-German tonnage law exercised upon the shipping interests of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. Still greater was the discontent caused in all parts of the two grand-duchies by the somewhat abrupt manner in which they were incorporated, in August, into the Zollverein, after being governed for several centuries by a sort of free-trade policy. Both the Government and the Diet were severely censured for having neglected to render more gradual the transition from the old economical system to the new one. The effects of this sudden transition were felt the more sensibly, as it took place at the very time when both the agricultural and mercantile interests of the country, owing to a number of accidental causes, were greatly

prostrated. Many merchants failed, and the rents of farms, owing to the insolvency of most of the so-called *Erbzins paechter*, were very generally reduced. Emigration, especially from the rural districts of Mecklenburg, continued on a very large scale. The Minister of the Interior of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, in a report, addressed to the Federal Council of the North-German Confederation, states that upward of nine thousand persons emigrated from that grand-duchy in the first six months of 1868. Owing to this heavy drain upon the population, the supply of farm hands has become so scarce in some of the rural districts of Mecklenburg that not a few of the large estates in the southeastern part of the state were only partially cultivated in 1868; and in September and October, 1868, nearly three thousand farm-laborers and working-women were imported from Sweden to fill up the gaps caused by the emigration of the native population. Petitions, addressed to the North-German Reichstag, praying for the restoration of the liberal Mecklenburg Constitution of 1849, were signed in March and April by nine-tenths of the voters of the cities and towns, and a great number of persons in the rural districts; and applications to the same effect were made to the grand-dukes and the Mecklenburg Diet; but all efforts in this direction have hitherto remained fruitless, owing to the obstinacy of the landed aristocracy still controlling the destinies of Mecklenburg.

MELODEON, THE SILENT. In 1868, M. Daguin, a French physician, in the course of some acoustic experiments, invented an instrument called the analyzing cornet, by the use of which, out of a confused body of sound, composed of many different notes, he could separate, and make audible by itself alone, any particular note, at pleasure. This instrument consists of several tubes, opening and shutting together, like the tubes of a telescope. By varying in this manner the length of the instrument, it is obvious the length and volume of the column of enclosed air will also be changed to an equal extent. In this way—by lengthening and shortening the cornet, certain notes are marked or emphasized with a force of tone, which makes them heard separate and apart from any other notes which may be sounded with them. In the course of his acoustic studies, M. Daguin was led to the invention of a curious instrument, by the use of which he has developed most astonishing results.

In this last instrument, the volume of the column of air is not changed as in the first, but remains constantly the same; and the sound is modulated through holes in the side of the tube, which are played on with the fingers—that is, opened and shut, after the fashion of a flute or other wind instrument. The cornet is a tube of convenient length, bell-mouthed at one end, and closed at the other with a perforated button, which in use is to be pressed against the concave of the ear. By

varying the order of opening the holes, the desired note is selected and separated from the confused mingling of sounds, and can be distinctly heard in the column of air, by itself alone. The condition of the reverberation of sound in the column of air, and the musical force or emphasis by which certain notes are heard separate from other sounds, are changed in the manner described.

With this instrument, all the notes of the gamut can be made audible; with no other base than the confused body of mingling sounds from which these notes are separated. In this way a tune can be played, which shall be heard by no one but the person using the instrument; and, strange to say, he will hear a melody, audible only to him, and played with an instrument which makes no sound. In fact, he does nothing more than pick out the notes from among the other sounds with which it is mingled. On this account M. Daguin has named his instrument the Silent Melodeon, because it plays a tune without a sound.

One of these, a three-holed instrument, on which a perfect major chord can be sounded, has been presented by M. Daguin to the Academy. The inventor has suggested that this instrument may, in a certain way (by illustration perhaps) be of use in solving the problem of double vision. He has experimented with it, for the purpose of ascertaining the result of impressions made by two different musical sounds, nearly symphonious in pitch, and heard separately by the two ears. For this purpose he makes use of two of the silent melodeons, one at each ear, and each melodeon fingered or played on in the way proper to bring out the tones, the effect of which, in combination, he is studying. Then, the separate notes, diverse in sound, but equal in vibrations, seem one, like the notes of a melody heard by both ears at once. There is in this something singularly analogous to the double vision of the stereoscope, where two separate pictures blend into one.

MERVINE, Rear-Admiral WILLIAM, U. S. N., a naval officer of high character and long and meritorious service, born in Pennsylvania in 1790; died at Utica, N. Y., September 15, 1868. He entered the naval service from Pennsylvania as midshipman January 16, 1809, and hence lacked but four months of sixty years of service. He had spent twenty-five years in active duty afloat, visiting in succession every sea on which our flag floats. Four years of duty on shore had occupied him, and the remainder had been spent either in furloughs or waiting orders. At the commencement of the late war, though seventy years of age, he reported promptly for duty, and did good service during the first year of the war, but his health was inadequate to the great labors of such a period, and, reluctantly, he submitted to be put upon the retired list in November, 1861, from which time he had been waiting orders at his home in Utica. He

was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral in 1866.

METALS (see also **CERIUM**, **HYDROGENIUM**, and **THALLIUM**). *Rhodium*.—Professor R. Bunsen has conducted an elaborate series of experiments on the separation of rhodium from the platinum ores with which it is associated. For the purposes of his investigations, the Imperial Mint at St. Petersburg supplied him with large quantities of the products obtained in working platinum ores on the large scale. These residues were: 1. Those which remain after the application of aqua regia, and which are specially rich in osmium and iridium; 2. Osmium-iridium, which is separated from the first residues by lixiviation, and which serves best for the preparation of ruthenium; 3. The residues of the mother liquors, which have been reduced by iron from the aqua regia solution from which the platinum has been removed. The latter residues, being rich in palladium and rhodium, are most conveniently used as a source of those metals. Professor Bunsen's labors having been directed principally to the reduction of rhodium, a detailed account of his separation of the other metals in the residues may properly be omitted. By a succession of ingenious processes he at last obtained a solution in which only iridium and rhodium were present. To separate these metals from each other, the liquid was evaporated with hydrochloric acid, filtered, mixed with a great excess of bisulphite of soda, and left to stand in the cold for several days. Rhodium was slowly deposited as an amorphous lemon-yellow soda double sulphite, while the solution became yellow, and finally decolorized. With this change of color, the rhodium precipitate also became brighter. The precipitate, well washed out with water, contained the rhodium almost entirely free from impurities. The solution being warmed in the water-bath in a loosely-stoppered flask, a fresh precipitate was formed, which was yellowish white, and consisted mainly of the before-mentioned rhodium salt, mixed with a greater or less quantity of the corresponding iridium salt. The complete separation of iridium from rhodium was readily effected merely by treating the yellow precipitates with concentrated sulphuric acid. The precipitate was added in small portions to the sulphuric acid, heated in a platinum crucible until sulphuric acid was disengaged, and the crucible heated in a sand-bath until all free sulphuric acid was volatilized, and bisulphate of soda formed. On boiling out the contents with water, iridium was dissolved out as a sulphate with a deep chrome-green color, while sulphate of rhodium was left in combination with sulphate of soda as a flesh-colored double salt. It rapidly settled as a heavy powder, requiring to be boiled out with water and aqua regia, and washed by decantation. This double salt is insoluble in hydrochloric or nitric acid or in aqua regia, can be heated to 250° without change, and on igni-

tion decomposes into metallic rhodium and sulphate of soda. The total quantity of this double salt obtained from a kilogramme of material amounted to 33.2 grammes. The first precipitates obtained by sulphite of soda in the cold gave the rhodium almost entirely pure when treated in this way; the subsequent precipitates were very rich in iridium, and yielded rhodium far purer than that prepared by previous processes, but not quite free from iridium. Hence these products obtained by sulphuric acid, which were not yet quite pure, and were recognized by their brownish tint, were collected, the rhodium separated by ignition, and the metal obtained heated once more with chloride of barium in a current of chlorine to purify it a second time by the method already described. The green solution, free from rhodium, but containing all the iridium, was freed from sulphuric acid by heating it, first in a platinum dish over an open fire, then at a gradually increasing temperature in a sand-bath; the crucible with its contents was finally strongly heated in a charcoal fire, by which neutral sulphate of soda and sesquioxide of iridium were formed. The latter remained as a black powder after boiling out the fused mass, and was easily washed by decantation. According to these experiments there were obtained from a kilogramme of residues the following products:

	Grammes.
Chloride of potassium and platinum	117.5
Iodide of palladium	77.0
Chloride of potassium and palladium	19.0
Sulphate of rhodic oxide and soda	33.2
Sesquioxide of iridium	9.1
Iridium containing ruthenium	4.5

Vanadium.—This metal (so called) was the subject of a paper read by Mr. Henry R. Roscoe, before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, in February, 1868. It derives its name from Vanadis, a cognomen of the Scandinavian goddess Freia. Sefström first discovered it in 1830 in the celebrated Swedish bar iron made from the Taberg ore. From this source, when using many pounds of the iron, Sefström obtained only minute quantities of the new substance, but he found it in somewhat larger amount in the slag or cinder produced in the reduction of the iron ore. He ascertained some of the most peculiar characteristics of the substance, proved it to be a new element, and prepared some of its compounds in a pure state. Berzelius still further investigated vanadium in 1831. Since the time of Berzelius, vanadium has been discovered in many minerals, of which a lead ore containing lead vanadate, and called by the mineralogists vanadinite, is the most important. It has also been found in many iron ores, in clay, bricks, and even in caustic soda. Still, the quantity of the substance obtained from all these various sources has been extremely small; so much so, that the vanadium compounds must be reckoned amongst the chemical rarities, and they are quoted in the price list of dealers in chemicals

at 1s. 6d. per grain, or £35 per ounce. It is clear that our knowledge of the chemical properties of a substance so rare must necessarily be but incomplete, as the difficulties of obtaining exact or satisfactory results with small quantities of material are evident; and, in fact, the statements of the only person who has worked upon the subject recently (Schafarik Czudnowicz), instead of giving us any more reliable information respecting the character of vanadium, have only served to throw doubt upon some of the conclusions of Berzelius, and thus to render our knowledge even less complete than it appeared to be. Hence it was with much satisfaction that, in February, 1865, Mr. Roscoe came into possession of a plentiful source of vanadium in a by-product obtained in the preparation of cobalt from the copper-bearing beds of the lower Keuper-sandstone of the Trias at Alderly Edge, in Cheshire. The manager of the works was puzzled to know why a blue solution, supposed by him to contain copper, did not deposit the red metal upon a strip of zinc; the author recognized this reaction as due to the presence of vanadium, and secured the whole of the by-product, which he found to contain about two per cent. of the rare metal. The exact position of the vanadium mineral in the sandstone beds cannot now be stated, as the mine (at Mottram St. Andrews) from which the cobalt ore was obtained is now closed and cannot be entered. After a long series of experiments, Mr. Roscoe has proved to his own satisfaction that the substance supposed by Berzelius to be vanadium ($V=68.5$) is not the metal, but an oxide, and that the true atomic weight of the metal is $67.3-16=51.3$. The metal itself has not yet been obtained, but a compound of vanadium and nitrogen has been prepared, shown by direct analysis to contain 14 parts by weight of nitrogen to 51.3 parts by weight of vanadium, corresponding to the formula VN . The existence of this compound is proof positive of the true atomic weight of the metal, and the nitride serves as the point of departure from which to seek for the metal and the true chlorides of vanadium, one of which, VCl_3 , has already been prepared by the action of chlorine upon the nitride. It is a dark-brown liquid, which decomposes when thrown into water, forming a green solution containing V_2O_3 . The author demonstrated the fact that the oxychloride, $VOCl_3$, when thrown into water, decomposes with formation of a yellow solution of vanadium pentoxide, V_2O_5 , while the trichloride, VCl_3 , on being similarly treated, yields a green solution containing the metal in solution as trioxide, V_2O_3 . He then compared these reactions with the decomposition of the corresponding phosphorus compounds, $POCl_3$ and PCl_3 , forming P_2O_5 and P_2O_3 , obtaining a precipitate of yellow silver phosphate in the first case, and of black metallic silver in the second. The characters of the vanadites themselves bear out the analogy of the highest

oxide with the corresponding oxides of phosphorus and arsenic.

The author was of the opinion that vanadium, hitherto standing in no definite relation to other elements, must be regarded as a member of the well-known trivalent or triad class of elementary substances comprising nitrogen, phosphorus, boron, arsenic, antimony, and bismuth. In conclusion, he remarked that vanadium was the fourth substance supposed by its discoverer to be a metal, which had in recent years been shown to be a compound body. The list he gives as follows:

Titanium.	Uranium.	Niobium.
Wollaston, 1823.	Klaproth, 1789.	{ Hatchett, 1801.
Wöhler, 1849.	Peligt, 1849.	{ Rose, 1842-'64.
		Marignac, 1865.
	Vanadium.	
	Sefström and Berzelius, 1831.	

Molybdenum and Chromium.—J. Eneu Loughlin communicates to the *American Journal of Science* his experiments in the production of these two metals. The method adopted by Hjelm (in 1782) to procure molybdenum was to heat the trioxide of the metal in a porcelain crucible for two or three hours. Several other plans have been tried, such as heating the acid molybdate of potassium; also the reduction of molybdate of ammonium by heat, or the reduction of trioxide of molybdenum by carbonate of soda. Molybdenum is described as a silver-white metal, not altered by contact with air at ordinary temperature. Sp. gr. 8.5; not attacked by chlorohydric acid or dilute sulphuric acid. Strong sulphuric and nitric acid, on the contrary, act very powerfully upon it, with evolution of sulphurous acid and hyponitric acid. Having had occasion during June, 1867, to use some molybdenum, Mr. Loughlin tried the methods above stated; they were all very satisfactory as regards the yield of pure metal, but the time was rather long. He then had recourse to the reducing action of cyanide of potassium. Molybdic acid was prepared and tested according to Fresenius, pages 179 and 180, Qualitative Analysis. The result being satisfactory as regarded the purity of the molybdic acid, 10 grains of molybdic acid thus prepared were mixed with 15 grains of cyanide of potassium, placed in a porcelain crucible, which porcelain crucible, with the lid luted, was placed in another crucible, then surrounded by powdered animal charcoal and exposed to a white heat for twelve minutes. At that time the crucibles were removed, allowed to cool, and examined; the porcelain crucible was found lined with a brilliant silver-white metal of a sp. gr. 8.56, which was not attacked by chlorhydric acid, but violently attacked by nitric acid with evolution of hyponitric acid fumes; it reduced oxide of mercury and oxide of silver when triturated with these substances. An analysis of this showed it to consist of

Molybdenum,	98.7
Impurities SiO_2 , C,	1.3

100.0

By the same process, using sesquioxide of chromium in place of molybdic acid, chromium was obtained possessing a sp. gr. 6.2. The best results were procured by using a reducing mixture of cyanide of potassium and animal charcoal.

Niobium and Tantalum.—Professor St. Claire Deville has presented to the French Academy a paper by Marignac, giving an account of various attempts made by him to obtain niobium and tantalum (metals, so called) in a metallic state. These efforts, though unsuccessful, have resulted in the discovery of several new and interesting compounds. Fluoniobate of potassium is reduced without difficulty by sodium in a crucible of wrought iron, but the product of the action is an alloy of sodium and niobium, or niobide of sodium in the form of a black powder. Water decomposes this body and transforms it into a niobide of hydrogen containing about 1 per cent. of hydrogen, and having the formula NbH . The substance obtained by Rose was certainly a protoxide of niobium, Nb_2O_3 . The niobide of hydrogen is an extremely fine black powder of density 6.66. It is not attacked by chlorhydric, nitric, or dilute sulphuric acid, but may be attacked and dissolved by concentrated boiling sulphuric acid and by fused alkaline bisulphates by boiling with caustic alkalies and particularly by fluohydric acid even when dilute. When heated in the air, it ignites and is converted into niobic acid. The niobide of hydrogen is very stable and may be ignited for an hour in a current of hydrogen without change, except that its density increases to 7.37. Fluoniobate of potassium heated with magnesium produced a violent explosion. The reduction with aluminium, in a crucible of graphite, yields a niobide of aluminium, $NbAl_3$, which is a highly crystalline iron-gray powder, with a strong metallic lustre and with a density of 4.45 to 4.52. Fluotantalate of potassium yields with aluminium an alloy of similar constitution and properties. The density of this body is 7.02; it dissolves easily in fluohydric acid. Professor Deville described two new compounds of niobium obtained by himself, but not analyzed. When niobate of potash is heated to about 1,200 degrees, with a small excess of carbonate of potash, in a crucible of graphite surrounded by a mixture of rutile and carbon, very beautiful black cubes are obtained, which are converted by chlorine into a mixture of chloride and oxychloride of niobium. When the calcination takes place in a crucible of graphite heated to the highest possible temperature, but not surrounded by rutile and carbon, prismatic crystals are obtained of a magnificent dark bronze color, which are doubtless the nitro-carbide of niobium analogous to the well-known titanium compound analyzed by Wöhler.—(*Sci. Int. Am. Jour. of Science.*)

Aluminium Bronze.—This substance is gradually coming into use for table ware and various ornamental purposes. It is extensively

employed in the manufacture of cheap watch-cases, more nearly resembling gold than the "oreide" metal, and therefore well calculated to deceive the unwary. The production of aluminium bronze is achieved in different ways by different manufacturers. M. Evrard, one of those engaged in it, does not combine copper and aluminium directly together. He makes use of a pig-iron containing a certain proportion of aluminium. This is slowly heated to fusion, when copper is added to the melted mass. Aluminium, having more affinity for copper than for iron, abandons the latter and unites with the copper. The entire mass, having been well stirred, is then allowed to cool slowly, so that the aluminium bronze, which is denser than iron, may find its way to the bottom of the crucible. The same process may be employed, according to M. Evrard, to obtain a bronze of silicium. If silicium could be separated from pig-iron, by adding a quantity of copper, the process might be valuable to iron manufacturers.

It is proposed to protect the staircases of the ascent of the columns in the Place Vendôme, Paris, by thin plates of aluminium bronze. On account of the wearing away of the stairs by much usage, public access to them has been recently prohibited. M. Cazeau suggests the use of the new bronze, having determined its value for the purpose, by experimenting with it on the stairs of a very busy factory. Plates of bronze $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick were as good as new after eleven months of service on the factory stairs, when plates of common bronze $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick, had worn out in six weeks.

Magnesium.—There is no important step to record in the manufacture of this metal, or its adaptation to new purposes, in the year 1868. Its cost has precluded its employment, to any great extent, as a means of supplying light. A statement in the *English Builder*, from one claiming to know, expresses the hope and belief that magnesium, during the present year, will be manufactured in England by improved processes, so that it can be retailed at a shilling an ounce.

The Effect of Cold on Metals.—The *Mechanics' Magazine* has some remarks on the effect of cold on metals. The axles and springs of railway carriages are known to be much more liable to fracture during a severe winter than at other times. The lead pipes which burst with frost would undoubtedly bear a much greater strain at a higher temperature, when the metal would simply expand with the pressure. On tin, the effect of cold is much more marked. Some pigs of Banca tin, exposed during the winter at St. Petersburg, underwent a most remarkable change. The metal became fibrous, and deep fissures were produced in it in every direction. Fritzsche, who details the circumstances, says that the phenomenon had been observed before in Russia, once in the case of the pipes of a church organ; which shows that organs built for cold coun-

tries should be well cased. In the instance of mercury, it has been stated by M. Dumas, that the frozen metal, when brought to a much lower temperature than its freezing-point, undergoes a remarkable change in its molecular state. Cold means condensation, and no doubt produces some change in the form and arrangement of the ultimate particles of the metal, whereby its proportions are considerably modified.

The Science of Alloys.—Dr. Matthiessen, in a lecture before the Royal Institution, has given an interesting summary of the recent researches of physicists into the nature of alloys. He first demonstrated, by means of an ingeniously-contrived apparatus, that the electrical and heat-conducting powers of the alloys follow the same courses. He also showed that, when bars of alloys and their component metals are struck, a great difference will be found in the notes produced; as, in almost every case, the most sonorous alloy was found to correspond in composition approximately with that at the turning-point of the electric conducting-power curve. When wires, of the same diameter, of metals and alloys are broken by traction, those of the alloys will require a much greater force than their component metals; and it may be deduced from what is known, that those alloys, the composition of which corresponds to the turning-point of the conducting-power curve, are more tenacious than any other alloy composed of the same metals. When spirals of wires of metals and their alloys are weighted to an equal extent, the alloys will be found, on removing the weights, to possess the property of resuming their original form in a much higher degree than their component metals. Here, again, the alloys corresponding in composition to those of the turning-point of the conducting-power curve are the most elastic.

A New Mode of Toughening and Refining Gold.—Mr. F. B. Miller, of the Sydney Mint, has introduced a new mode of treating the Australian gold, which often contains a small amount of antimony, rendering it brittle. Mr. Miller removes the objectionable metal by the following process: He first saturates a clay pot with a solution of borax, to prevent any absorption and loss of chloride of silver. Having placed the gold in the pot, it is covered with a closely-fitting but unluted lid, having a hole bored in it. Through this, when the gold is melted, he passes a clay pipe down to the bottom of the pot. This pipe is in connection with a chlorine generator, and by a suitable arrangement a stream of the gas is driven through the metals; after continuing the process an hour or so, the crucible is allowed to cool for the gold to set, and the chlorides which remain liquid are poured out. A small amount of gold is removed with the chlorides, but is easily recovered. The plan of reducing the chloride of silver, adopted by the author, was to set the slab of chloride of silver between

two plates of wrought iron, and immerse the whole in dilute sulphuric acid, leaving it there about 24 hours, in which time its reduction is usually complete. The reduced silver is then dissolved in nitric acid, leaving any gold that is present undissolved. The loss of gold in these operations is said to be smaller than in the ordinary refining process.

Desilvering Lead by Zinc.—The process of desilvering lead by the use of zinc (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1867) is now in use in Wales, in Germany, and in France. Commonly, the zinc is driven off from the silver, after its extraction from the lead, by volatilization, but at Braubach they separate the metals by another and ingenious method. From lead drosses or chimney-fumes, they obtain chloride of lead by direct treatment with dilute hydrochloric acid, an educt of chemical works. This chloride of lead is agitated in a cast-iron pan with the rich silver zinc at a low red heat; chloride of zinc is formed, and the lead set free, which is then separated from the silver by cupellation. The pure lead again is deprived of its small contents of zinc, by treating it in like manner with chloride of lead. The chloride of zinc is treated in reverberatory furnaces in order to extract any remains of lead mechanically mixed with it. At the works of Baron Rothschild, at Havre, the zinc, in the form of a flat cylindrical ingot, is plunged into the silver-lead in fusion, and caused by a mechanical arrangement to revolve in it, until the zinc is thoroughly fused and mixed with other metals. The rich silver with the zinc now rises to the top, and is skimmed off, and the zinc volatilized, after which the poor lead is deprived of its zinc by steam oxidation. The steam oxidation process for expelling the zinc from the lead is preferred by Gruner to the treatment by chloride of lead, as being more efficacious, less unwholesome, and less expensive than the latter method.

Reduction of Oxide of Copper by Sugar.—M. A. Commaille communicates to the London *Chemical News* the following method of reducing oxide of copper to the metallic form by means of inverted sugar. He takes a very dilute solution of the oxide, and pours into it sufficient caustic potash to form a precipitate; adds to this liquid a solution of inverted sugar, when the precipitate will dissolve; then boils the solution, which should not be too acid; and after a short time a red deposit of protoxide is formed, which must be separated. The liquid is again boiled, and a fresh precipitate appears, which is proved to be formed of metallic copper and protoxide, which latter is removed by very weak chlorhydric acid; the undissolved precipitate is dried and polished with some hard body, when it presents the brilliant aspect of metal. On boiling the mother waters, by which the second precipitate was deposited, a third deposit is obtained, consisting only of metallic copper, and as red as galvanoplastic copper. This metal may also

be instantly obtained by the following method, without any mixture of protoxide: Before reducing the precipitate produced by the potash in the sulphate solution, by means of the inverted sugar, neutralize the acidity of the sugar solution, and, when the precipitate of the copper hydrate is almost entirely redissolved, filter it, and boil the limpid liquid thus obtained; the metallic copper will then be seen to fall, but its color is not quite so bright as in the former experiment.

Refining Copper.—Dr. Le Clerc, of Paris, has recently devised a new process for refining copper. He subjects black copper, in a more or less impure condition, to heat in a reverberatory furnace. After it has reached a sufficiently high temperature to begin to soften, water is projected on the heated metallic mass, in the form of very fine jets, until the complete fusion of the metal is obtained, when the supply of water is stayed. Supposing the copper to contain iron, sulphur, arsenic, antimony, lead, or tin, the water coming in contact with the mass is decomposed, and forms sulphuretted, arseniated, or antimoniated hydrogen, which disengages. The oxygen of the water then acts on the copper, iron, and other fixed metals, and forms oxides, which derive silica from the sides of the furnace, and pass into scoria. A small amount of sulphuric, arsenious, and antimonious acid is produced, which disengages in the form of vapor. When the copper is completely fused, a tube of refractory clay is placed in the metallic bath, the diameter of which tube is proportionate to the quantity of copper forming the bath. A large amount of atmospheric air is then projected through the tube, when a lively reaction takes place, and the refining is completed in a very short time, often in a few minutes, when the copper to be refined is not very impure. The best way to pass the air into the midst of the copper bath is through the tube at the centre of the roof of the furnace. It is essential that the treatment should extend beyond the period of oxidation, and, when the metal on examination is found to be of a deep or brick-red color, the refining is complete. By extending the oxidation, as directed, a large quantity of oxide of copper may be obtained, which has the property of giving up its oxygen to foreign matters, and in this manner conduces to the reduction of the copper. The production of the protoxide of copper in superabundant quantity causes a considerable loss of copper, unless the precaution is adopted of adding to the bath a mixture of from two to five per cent. of charcoal and lime, which should be well stirred in. By this means the complete reduction of the silicate is effected, and the loss of copper entirely prevented.

Tinning Copper Vessels.—In France, says the *Journal of the Society of Arts*, the police regulations require that nothing but pure tin shall be used in coating copper saucepans; but that metal is dear, while lead is cheap, and

therefore a mixture of the two metals is too often made use of. When the lead forms a considerable part of the mixture, the vessels become dangerous to use. In consequence of information obtained, the Minister of War recently ordered an inquiry to be made into the subject by the directors of the military hospitals. The result of the investigation has been read before the Academy of Medicine, and brings out the startling fact that some manufacturers of copper utensils and some tinner mix 25 and in some cases 50 per cent. of lead with the tin; and that, besides this, antimony, another dangerous metal, is added. From the facts thus presented, M. Gobley, a member of the Academy of Medicine, has recommended: 1, that the metal used to line copper drinking-vessels shall contain no more than 1 per cent. of lead; 2, that not more than 5 or 6 per cent. of lead be mixed with the tin used for saucepans or other cooking-vessels, that amount offering no serious danger; 3, that every maker shall be required to mark his productions with a special stamp; 4, that the travelling tinner shall be strictly watched.

Crystallized Tin-foil.—Tin-foil having a crystallized surface, and coated with transparent varnishes or gelatine of various colors, has lately come into large demand for the fancy-goods business in Paris and Germany. Puscher, of Nurnburg, publishes this process of getting the crystalline surface on the tin. A solution is made of two parts of chloride of tin in four parts of hot water, and to this are added one part of nitric acid and two parts of hydrochloric acid. The foil is dipped in this mixture and left until the crystals appear. As soon as they appear, the foil must be rinsed with cold water, and its surface well sponged. When the solution is applied to cold foil the crystals are small, but very brilliant. Large crystals can be obtained by heating the tin-foil before the solution is applied. This can best be done by placing the foil on a hot plate and brushing on the solution when the melting-point of the tin is nearly reached. After the rinsing the foil is attached to paper, and then the colored varnish or gelatine is applied. Some beautiful specimens of this manufacture are coated with varnishes colored with the aniline dyes. The solution mentioned may be used as a test for the purity of tin, inasmuch as tin containing only as little as one per cent. of lead or copper will not give a crystalline surface.

The Heaton (or Nitrate) Steel Process.—The merits and alleged defects of the Heaton process have undergone a searching examination at the hands of the iron-masters and chemists of Great Britain. So fierce has been the dispute over this subject, that it is impossible to determine, after much reading of the controversy, whether the process is or is not one of the great discoveries of the age. The chief opponents of Mr. Heaton's plan are the Bessemerites, who are rivals of his. Mr. Bessemer himself has taken a conspicuous part in the

contest. In a late letter to the *London Times*, he asserts that in the Heaton process so much heat is taken from the metal in generating oxygen gas by the decomposition of nitrate of soda, that the metal solidifies while in a state of mechanical mixture with the sand and soda, and, instead of obtaining fluid cast steel by his process, Mr. Heaton gets only spongy, porous metal, intermixed with slags and scoria, resembling common puddled iron or steel, obtained (on account of the sodic nitrate used) at about twice the cost of the ordinary puddling process. It is admitted that the Heaton crude metal, like every other kind of puddled iron, can be converted into cast steel by melting in crucibles, at a cost of £5 to £6 a ton. Though Mr. Heaton employs, to begin with, a pig-iron 20s. to 30s. cheaper per ton than that required for the Bessemer process, he nevertheless employs for each ton of iron converted (according to Professor Miller's report) about 270 pounds of nitrate of soda, worth, say, 36s., thus making the cost of materials several shillings per ton higher than that of the high-grade iron employed in the Bessemer process. Professor Miller's report declares that an analysis of the samples of the Heaton metal, taken direct from Mr. Heaton's converters and rolling-mill, discovers numerous and extensive impurities. In one sample of crude steel, almost 3 per cent. of impurities were found, of which 1.8 per cent were carbon. Another sample of this steel, after it had been cut, piled, heated, and rolled, had nearly 2 per cent. of impurities with 1 per cent. of carbon.

The *Engineering Magazine*, of London, after criticising the process severely, says: "Mr. Heaton may be quite sure that his experiments in making steel from common brands of iron are watched with the greatest interest, and, so far as the iron-trade is concerned, with all the hope that is possible in the face of so much conflicting evidence. If his assertions are true, he will, by another year, have added at least ten millions to the value of the iron now made in Great Britain, taking the value of his professed improvement at £2 10s. a ton only on 4,000,000 tons. His mode of treating melted pig-iron is much more expeditious than puddling, his plant is inexpensive, and the alleged increase of value of iron treated by his process is even greater than we have just estimated."

Mr. Frederic Kohn, in his report to the Austrian Government, does not praise the Heaton process. He remarks, that the difference between pig-iron having phosphorus in it (such as Mr. Heaton can employ) and pig-iron quite free from phosphorus, is about the same as the price of sodic nitrate; and he therefore thinks it better to buy the dearer kind of pig-iron and make good steel from it, than to purify poor pig-iron incompletely at a cost which would bring it up to the price of the superior iron.

The further progress of this interesting dis-

cussion is thus summed up by *Van Nostrand's Eng. Magazine*:

In Mr. Heaton's reply the points are: 1. His plant is very cheap compared with Bessemer's. 2. The cooling effect Mr. Bessemer refers to is far outbalanced in his own process by the cooling effected in his converter by the prodigious volume of cold air forced through it for from twenty to forty minutes. Which will carry off most heat, such a volume of air, or the oxygen evolved from 224 pounds of crude nitrate to the ton of steel? 3. Mr. Bessemer says his steel is a solid homogeneous mass, entirely free from scoria or other impurities, whereas mine is not, owing, he says, to the "mechanical admixture with the sand and soda." This is not the case. The slag, owing to its small specific gravity and to its extreme fluidity, rises to the surface of the molten metal, leaving the subjacent steel free from slag or scoria. It is not the fact that sand is necessarily employed; but, were it so, the proportion of alkali is so great that the slag formed would be, and is, perfectly liquid, and is not mixed in any sensible quantity with the mass of steel in the converter, upon which it floats, as I have already observed. 4. As to the statement that "Heaton obtains only a lump of spongy porous metal, intermixed throughout with slag and scoria," he says: Steel from my converters passes at once either into my patent reverberatory furnace, or into a furnace of Mr. Siemens, and is kept in a molten state and thence run into ingots, as homogeneous and to the full as good as Mr. Bessemer's. Mr. Bessemer knows that his own steel has been proved by Mr. Siemens to be greatly improved by being thus kept for some time in fusion after it has been poured out of his converter as Bessemer crude steel. It is, therefore, not a fact that my "crude metal can be made into cast steel only by resorting to the old and costly Sheffield process of melting in crucibles." 5. With reference to the nitrate employed: But the circumstances under which the experiments of Dr. Miller were carried on were purely exceptional, and the proportion of nitrate usually employed is not, as Mr. Bessemer states, 270 pounds, at a cost of 36s., but 224 pounds, at a cost of 28s. 6d., taking the extraordinary high prices of nitrate that at present prevail. Ten per cent. of nitrates is all that I have found necessary for the production of a ton of steel from inferior brands, and considerably less than 10 per cent. for superior brands. 6. As to quality, Mr. Heaton says: I have but just turned out 40 tons of steel rails direct from my converter, without any remelting, rails of a fine fracture, neither "fibrous" nor "laminated," but quite as homogeneous as Mr. Bessemer's, resisting the ordinary mechanical tests for steel rails, and produced at a cost with which no Bessemer steel can compete. Further, such orders are in course of execution.

To which Mr. Bessemer replies in another long letter to the *Times*, substantially this: Heaton's apparatus is less perfectly developed, and therefore less costly, but 10 per cent. on the cost of the Bessemer apparatus does not amount to over 2s. per ton on the steel produced. As to the cooling action of the air, the heat actually produced in the Bessemer vessel is the most intense known in metallurgical operations. That the Heaton metal is not produced in a liquid state, and has therefore to be melted by another operation, in order to be as sound and valuable as Bessemer's, viz., steel, is officially stated by Dr. Miller in his report, and by Mr. Heaton. The former says, the product of the converter was poured on the floor in a pasty state, and then broken up and melted in pots. Mr. Heaton mentions, in his cost sheet, £5 10s. per ton for remelting in crucibles. He also told Mr. Bessemer, as a reason why he should not be proceeded against as an infringer of the Bessemer patents, that he did not produce ingots of fluid steel by his (Heaton's) pro-

cess. Mr. Bessemer admits that his own process could not make good steel from Cleveland iron, but states that the 65s. and 70s. pig, that he does use, makes cheaper steel than the cheapest Cleveland pig + 28s. per ton for nitrates.

As to the invalidity of the Heaton patents for the use of nitrates, Mr. Bessemer replies at great length, citing some old patents; and stating that he was himself the first to make steel by purely chemical means, by simply passing oxygen through the molten iron without the use of fuel, and that his patents claim the use, for this purpose, of any oxygen-bearing substance. Mr. Bessemer says he has recently obtained patents for means of using the nitrates, in order to protect himself from further inroads by Mr. Heaton.

Some tests have recently been made by Mr. Kirkaldy on a steel said to be Heaton's, the result being very uniform, and showing 23 tons tensile strength and 20 to 28 per cent. elongation in breaking. Mr. Heaton states that a remelted tool steel in one-half inch bars, from very impure Cleveland pig, stood above 53 tons.

The Siemens-Martin Steel Process.—Mr. F. Kohn, at the meeting of the British Association, explained this new process which has been introduced from France into England with considerable success. The steel is manufactured on the open hearth of a Siemens' furnace, by the mutual reaction of pig-iron and decarbonized iron, or wrought iron, on each other. The process realizes the old and repeatedly-proposed idea of melting wrought iron in a bath of liquid pig-iron, thereby converting the whole mass into steel. The principal elements of its successful operation, those which distinguish it from all previous abortive attempts, are: 1. The high temperature and the neutral or non-oxidizing flame produced by the regenerative gas-furnace of Mr. Siemens; 2. The method of charging the decarbonized iron into the bath of pig iron in measured quantities or doses. These doses of wrought iron are added to the bath at regular intervals, so that each following charge in melting increases the quantity of the liquid mass, and adds to the dissolving power of the bath until complete decarbonization is reached. The charge is then completed by adding to the decarbonized mass a certain percentage of pig-iron or of the well-known alloys of iron and manganese, and the degree of hardness or temper of the steel produced depends on the proportion of the final addition. Mr. Kohn said that the prime cost of the Siemens-Martin steel would be about £7 10s. a ton, precisely the same as the cost of the Bessemer steel. As the two processes are worked with different classes of raw material, he thought they would never come into direct rivalry. By working up the waste of the Bessemer steel-works, the crop end of steel rails and similar material, the Siemens-Martin process would assist in cheapening the prime cost of Bessemer steel, in which the waste plays an important part. Some discussion followed the reading of Mr. Kohn's paper. Professor Cooper stated that the process would be found valuable in altering the quality of steel, which was not of uniform quality when produced by

the Bessemer process, and could not be altered by that process; whereas, by the Siemens-Martin method, the quality of any part could be regulated at pleasure.

Other New Steel Processes.—Two new steel processes have recently been added to the multitude. One is that of Park and Love. They use a furnace consisting of two fire-chambers, separated by a fire-bridge; one chamber receiving a crucible, and the other being a reverberatory fire-chamber. The crucible, which is provided with discharge-holes, is surrounded by fuel. Both fires having been raised to a white heat, melted cast iron is poured into the crucible; vitreous fluxes are added, and wrought-iron scraps, already brought to a white heat in an adjoining furnace, are introduced. The cast and wrought irons, having been thoroughly melted and mixed, the contents of the crucible are drawn off through the discharge-holes. Puddling can be easily conducted in this furnace through a hole at the top instead of at the side.

Messrs. James and Jones claim the practical application of carbonizing and nitrogenizing gases under pressure to wrought iron in a gas-tight receiver. The two gases are produced in separate generators, and forced into the receiver through an accumulator or otherwise, or the gases, wholly or partly, may be formed in the receiver. Cyanogen gas is preferred for nitrogenizing. The same firm claim the use, under compression, of blast-furnace waste gases, containing carbonic oxide, ammonia, and nitrogen, and other waste gases, for converting wrought iron into steel.

Mr. G. W. Nasarow, of St. Petersburg, proposes to make steel directly from the ore, by treating it with a solution of sodic carbonate in water, allowing the ore to remain for some time in the solution. The proportions are 1 part of carbonate of soda to 40 parts of ore. Thus prepared, the ore is placed in a reverberatory furnace, supplied with a hot blast, and melted down. The same treatment may be applied to scrap-iron, adding more carbon where that is necessary.

The Bessemer Process and Spectrum Analysis.—Professor Liellegg, of Gratz, who has for a long time been engaged in spectroscopic observations of the Bessemer flame, has succeeded in pointing out a sufficiency of marked changes in the spectrum to enable the managers of steel-works, where the Bessemer process is employed, to watch and conduct the charges intelligently and with great practical success, by the use of the spectroscope. By adopting the method of Professor Liellegg, the steel in the Gratz works has been considerably improved with regard to that exact uniformity of hardness which formerly was more difficult to insure under all circumstances. The spectrum pointed out by Professor Liellegg belongs to the flame of carbonic oxide. It can be seen in the flame escaping from the mouth of the converter during the preliminary operation of

heating this vessel with coke only; and in that case the lines referred to are very faint, and, it requires some practice or knowledge of the precise spots in the spectrum where these bright lines should be looked for, to discover them. During the first period of the Bessemer process the spectrum is very faint. The yellow portion is almost invisible, and even the sodium line is missing; the blue and purple portions are extremely faint. The absence of the sodium line can be accounted for only by the consideration that there is no real flame formed by incandescent gases escaping from the converter at that early stage, but only a mass of sparks carried by the nitrogen from the blast, the oxygen of which remains in the converter, combining with silicium. As the flame gradually appears in the centre of a volley of sparks, the spectrum widens and shows yellow light, until suddenly the sodium line in the yellow field becomes visible, first only for moments as a flashing bright streak, and after less than one minute as a constant and clearly-defined line. The appearance of the sodium line marks the commencement of the decarburization, although this line does not belong to the charge of iron at all, but rather to the accidental presence of sodium compounds in very minute quantities. It is therefore only indirectly connected with the combustion of carbon; i. e., the appearance of the sodium line is a signal of the completion of the continuous spectrum, and this continuous spectrum belongs to the combustion of carbon. As soon as the sodium line has taken a steady and permanent appearance, the characteristic lines of the carbonic oxide may be looked for in the greenish-yellow, in the green, and in the purple field. In each of these three fields one bright line becomes clearly visible at that time. As the flame increases in size and brilliancy, the spectrum comes out more and more clearly. Bright lines increase in number in each of the first-named three fields, and ultimately, at the height of the process, some bright lines show themselves in the red and, occasionally, also in the blue field. The green field in the spectrum, however, is the real point of observation in practice, as in this the lines are most clearly visible, and in it they appear first and disappear last. The spectrum, as a whole, is by no means steady or constant, but its fluctuations do not displace any of the bright lines; they only alter the background or the continuous spectrum upon which they appear. After the "boil," the maximum intensity is reached; and at that stage, and only with very hot charges, a bundle of bright lines appears in the bluish-purple portion of the spectrum. About four or five minutes before the end of the charge of three tons, the lines begin to disappear in rapid succession, and in the inverted order of their appearance—first, the bluish-purple, then the blue lines, after these the red, etc. When the last green line disappears, the vessel is turned, and the charge completed by

the addition of spiegel-eisen. The yellow sodium line does not disappear to the end of the operation. Sometimes the vessel is turned when all lines in the green field, with the exception of two, have disappeared. This depends upon the special experience of the case, and it is clear that it is of less importance whether the one or the other mark be taken, if it is only regularly adhered to, and the charge of spiegel-eisen regulated accordingly. The practical results are highly satisfactory, since they make the regularity of the "temper" of Bessemer steel practically independent of the skill and experience of the charge-manager, the changes of the spectrum being made more marked and unmistakable than those of the appearance of the flame itself. The *Engineering Magazine*, presenting these facts to the British public, adds the remark that no experience with the British hæmatite irons has been gained, and that the use of the spectroscope in England must be preceded by some careful trials and observations to fix the character of the changes. The *Engineering* thinks that those changes will prove very similar to, if not absolutely the same as, those observed with Styrian charcoal-iron.

The Ellershausen Wrought-Iron Process.—This process, according to the *New York Times*, consists in the conversion of crude cast iron, as it runs from the smelting-furnace, into wrought iron, by the simple admixture of granulated iron ore. It is conducted at the works of Messrs. Shonberger, of Pittsburg, in the following manner: On the casting-floor of the smelting-furnace, a cast-iron turn-table, about 18 feet in diameter, is made to revolve on rollers by a small steam-engine. On the outside edge of the table stands a row of cast-iron partitions, forming boxes, say 20 inches wide and 10 inches high, open at the top. Just above the circle of boxes stands a stationary, wide-mouthed spout, terminating in the tap-hole of the furnace. When the furnace is tapped, the liquid iron runs down this spout and falls out of it in a thin stream into the boxes as they slowly revolve under it, depositing in each a film of iron, say one-eighth of an inch thick. But, before the fall of melted iron reaches the boxes, it is intercepted, or rather crossed, at right angles, by a thin fall of pulverized iron ore, which also runs out of a wide spout from a reservoir above. These two streams or falls are of about equal volume, say one-quarter of an inch deep and 20 inches wide. A workman, with a bar in the tap-hole, regulates the stream of iron, and the iron spout from which the liquid metal falls into the boxes is removable; other spouts, previously coated with loam and dried, being attached to a common revolving frame, so as to be ready for use when the loam covering of the first becomes cracked or removed.

The thin layers of iron and ore soon chill and solidify, so that, by taking away the outer partition of the boxes (which form the rim of

the turn-table), they may be removed in cakes of the size of the boxes, and weighing 200 lbs. each. Four of these cakes or blooms are put into a reverberatory puddling or heating furnace, and raised to a bright-yellow heat. They will not melt at this heat, but become softened so as to be easily broken up with a bar. The four blooms are formed, in the furnace, by the rabble of the workman, as in ordinary puddling operations, into eight balls. The balls are brought out, one after another, squeezed in the ordinary squeezers to expel the cinder and superfluous ore, and then rolled into wrought-iron bars, which are now ready for market, or for further reduction into smaller finished forms.

The chemistry of the operation is as follows: The crude cast iron contains say 5 per cent. of carbon and 2 per cent. of silicon, and more or less sulphur, phosphorus, and other impurities. The oxygen of the ore or oxide of iron (magnetic oxide is preferred) combines with the carbon and impurities, eliminating them as in the puddling process, and the iron of the ore increases the product. The chemical combination of the ore and the liquid crude iron appears to take place partly at the time of their contact when falling and lying upon the turn-table, and partly when the reheating occurs in the furnace. The proportion of ore mixed is intended to be about 30 per cent.; but, if too much is added, it is readily squeezed out with the slag, and seems to do no harm. The subsequent heating occupies about half an hour. "Puddle bar," the product obtained from the first rolling of the product of the puddling-furnace, is never marketable or finished iron. It is usually very ragged and unsound, and requires subsequent piling, reheating, and rerolling, to expel the impurities and to give it soundness and solidity. The new process appears to produce merchantable iron at the first rolling, and, at Pittsburg, from a very inferior pig-iron, made of one-half sulphurous Canada ores, and one-quarter Lake Superior and one-quarter Iron Mountain ores.

Coating Iron with Copper.—A simple process of coating iron with copper has lately come into use in England. The surfaces of the objects to be coated, having been well cleaned with a brush and with diluted muriatic acid, are steeped in water slightly acidulated. The articles are then placed in a bath composed of 25 grammes of oxide of copper, 176 grammes of muriatic acid, half a litre of alcohol, and a quarter of a litre of water. The copper is equally deposited over the surface, the alcohol reducing the rapidity of deposition, and thus giving greater density to the copper film. These coppered objects may be zinc-coated by placing them in a bath composed of 10 grammes of chloride of iron, and one litre and a half of alcohol, and in contact with pieces of metallic zinc. A coating of antimony may be imparted by mixing chloride of antimony with alcohol, and adding muriatic acid until the

mixture becomes clear. In this bath the objects may be left for three-quarters of an hour.

Purification of Iron.—Mr. J. F. Bennett, of Pittsburg, Pa., has discovered a mode of purifying iron, especially from sulphur and phosphorus. After the molten iron has been treated by Bessemer's process for elimination of the carbon, it is further subjected to the action of carbonic acid, which, it is said, becomes decomposed, the carbon remaining with the iron while the oxygen unites with the sulphur to form sulphurous acid gas, which escapes. In like manner the phosphorus unites with the oxygen of another portion of the carbonic acid, to form phosphoric acid, and its carbon remains with the iron. Should it be desired to get rid of this carbon, it can be burnt out by the introduction of air, as in the Bessemer process. There will also be a decomposition of the carbonic acid by the iron with deposition of carbon. While the blast of carbonic acid is passing through the molten iron, the temperature of the metal will fall somewhat, losing about one-fourth of the additional heat gained by the passage of the atmospheric blast. This is considered to be an advantage, as it is found that, by the atmospheric process, the iron is rendered almost too fluid by extreme heat. If preferred, the carbonic acid may be heated before entering the converter or vessel where the molten iron is acted upon. Carbonic acid gas may also be used with advantage in removing sulphur and other impurities from sulphides of copper, zinc, nickel, and other metals, by passing it as a blast-current through the metals when in a molten state. This process may be modified by allowing a small portion of carbonic acid to enter the blast-cylinder together with the air, thus subjecting the molten crude iron to a combined blast of atmospheric air and carbonic acid gas; by this means the impurities are removed during the decarbonization.

Messrs. A. Matthiessen and S. P. Szezepanowski have presented to the British Association further results of the experiments to desulphurize iron, a preliminary report of which they made to the same body in 1866. In the endeavor to prepare pure iron, they always found sulphuretted hydrogen on dissolving the metal in dilute hydrochloric acid. The small quantity of sulphur contained in the iron, did not proceed from the hydrogen or from the platinum tube in which the oxide was reduced. The authors say:

The first series of experiments were made by precipitating the hot, concentrated, clear solution of protosulphate of iron by oxalate of ammonium, washing the precipitate till the wash-waters no longer indicated sulphuric acid with chloride of barium, heating the dried oxalate of iron to redness in a platinum dish, and reducing the oxide thus obtained in a platinum tube. The reduced iron contained sulphur. In all the experiments we describe, sulphur was tested in the following manner: The iron was placed in a test-tube with some dilute pure hydrochloric acid, and the gases were allowed to pass through a small tube fitted into a cork in the test-tube, and to

impinge on a paper moistened with acetate of lead. The evolution of sulphuretted hydrogen, after a very little experience, moreover, is just as easily detected by the smell. Experiments were also made with the oxalate of iron, by redissolving it in hydrochloric acid and reprecipitating with ammonia, or by dissolving the oxide obtained, by heating the oxalate of iron in hydrochloric acid, and reprecipitating again by oxalate of ammonium. In all these cases the reduced iron contained sulphur. The second series of experiments were made with the iron obtained from the crystalline oxide of iron. It is well known that, when protosulphate of iron is fused with chloride of sodium, a crystalline oxide is obtained. For our experiments it was of course necessary to perform this operation in a platinum crucible, but it was found that the iron thus obtained contained a small quantity of platinum. We therefore employed, instead of chloride of sodium, the sulphate of sodium, and obtained an oxide which, after having been thoroughly washed and reduced, gave an iron containing sulphur. Experiments were then made by dissolving the crystalline oxide in pure hydrochloric acid and precipitating the solution by ammonia, washing the oxide, and reducing it. The iron thus prepared contained sulphur. The next experiments were made by dissolving the crystalline oxide in hydrochloric acid, digesting with chloride of barium for several days, decanting and filtering through paper (previously digested with dilute nitric acid), precipitating by ammonia (distilled from ammonia to which chloride of barium had been added), washing, and reducing the oxide. The iron thus prepared still contained sulphur. The third series of experiments were made with sublimed proto- or sesqui-chloride of iron, by dissolving it in water, precipitating with pure ammonia, washing, and reducing in hydrogen. All the specimens thus prepared contained sulphur. The sublimed chloride was obtained sometimes from the red oxide, prepared by heating the oxalate of iron obtained as above described, or from the crystalline oxide by dissolving it in hydrochloric acid, digesting with chloride of barium, evaporating to dryness, and subliming either in platinum vessels or in porcelain tubes, or in clay retorts, either alone or in a current of chlorine or of hydrochloric acid. In the fourth series of experiments, the metal produced by either of the above methods was submitted in the platinum tube, while red hot, alternately to the influence of hydrogen and oxygen or hydrogen and steam, or of vapors of nitric acid and hydrogen, or of ammonia vapors, oxygen, and hydrogen. In all the cases the operation was repeated several times, and, although sulphuretted hydrogen was given off during these operations, yet the iron always contained sulphur. Further experiments were made by dissolving the purest iron in dilute acetic acid, and evaporating to dryness, and heating. The metal obtained still contained sulphur. Also the iron obtained from ferrocyanide of potassium was found to contain sulphur. In fact, we have never made or found a specimen of iron which did not contain sulphur. Even electrotype iron, said to be prepared from chloride of iron, evolved, by dissolving in dilute hydrochloric acid, a very appreciable quantity of sulphuretted hydrogen.

The authors have made upward of seventy experiments, and, although they have not yet been able to devise a method for preparing iron free from sulphur, they do not despair of accomplishing that result.

Decarbonizing Cast Iron.—Mr. Richardson, of Glasgow, has patented a process for burning out the carbon from crude iron, which may be described as follows: When the ore is reduced in the blast-furnace, it is run off into a proper vessel; a blast of air, at a pressure of four pounds on the square inch or upward, is intro-

duced into the melted mass, through a hollow rabble or stirring-rod. The effect is, that the impurities are rapidly driven off, and the metal obtained is specially adapted to produce castings of high quality. It may be run into moulds immediately after purification, or may be cooled and afterward melted for casting, and for this purpose it may be used alone, or with a portion of pig-iron, or spiegel-eisen, or with any other compound of carbon and iron, which may be mixed with it in the molten or solid state, according to the temperature of the liquid metal in the receptacle. Crude steel may also be produced by the same process; and, to get a finer steel after the metal has been purified in the manner described, it may be run off into a chamber of a puddling-furnace, where unmelted spiegel-eisen or other compound of carbon and iron is added to recarbonize the metal, and so convert it into steel, which may be run off into ingot-moulds. To insure a thorough mixture of the carbonized compound with the purified melted metal, the charge is stirred up in the puddling-chamber with an ordinary rabble, and, if desired, powdered manganese or other oxidizing compound may be added through a tubular rabble previous to the addition of the carbonized compound of iron. Steam may be used as the oxidizing agent.

Alloy of Tungsten and Iron.—A correspondent of the *London Chemical News* gives an account of the composition of some masses of pig-iron, which, having been thrown into a furnace in Dublin, could not be brought to a sufficiently liquid state for casting. Fragments of the iron were analyzed, to ascertain the cause of the difficulty, and the result of the investigation is thus reported: The pieces had a metallic lustre, or color, similar to gray iron, were brittle, very hard, and possessed in several parts a vesicular structure. Their specific gravity was as high as 10.125; they were attracted by the magnet, but in a considerably less degree than pig-iron. In muriatic acid they were partially dissolved, with evolution of hydrogen. The solution, however, was incomplete, and there remained undissolved more than half the weight of the metal subjected to the action of the acid. A second portion of this metallic material from the foundry was acted upon by aqua regia, when a yellow insoluble substance made its appearance, which was found to be tungstic acid, as it exhibited the following properties: It was insoluble in water or acids, and after ignition acquired a straw-yellow color; but, when placed upon a filter and washed with water, it became white and then gradually passed through the filter. In water of ammonia it readily dissolved, and the solution, when placed in contact with zinc and supersaturated by muriatic acid, gave a white gelatinous precipitate, which rapidly acquired a blue color. A drop of the ammoniacal solution dried on a platinum wire, and, fused in the reducing flame of a blowpipe with

salt of phosphorus, gave a blue bead, and then, when heated in the same flame with a minute particle of green vitriol, became blood-red. From these experiments it appeared that the heavy metal from the foundry was an alloy including a considerable quantity of tungsten. A number of experiments were now made for the purpose of determining its exact composition, and the following final results were obtained:

Tungsten.....	38.23
Iron.....	61.77
	<hr/> 100.00

Of the 61.77 grains of iron, 41.46 were taken up by hydrochloric acid. The residue, amounting to 20.31 grains, had to be removed by fluxing the undissolved portion of the alloy with a mixture of nitre, carbonate of soda, and common salt, by which the iron was oxidized and the tungsten converted into tungstic acid.

METEORIC IRON. Professor Charles Upham Shepard, of Amherst College, gives to the *American Journal of Science* a description of a fine specimen of meteoric iron, ploughed up in April, 1868, on the farm of Mr. Michael Sullivan, two and a half miles southwest of Lost-town, Cherokee County, Ga. It weighs 6 lbs. 10 oz., and has very strikingly the form of a human foot. Its color is almost perfectly black, and is wholly free from stains of iron-rust. It evinces no tendency to exfoliation; nor is it uniformly covered by a fused coating. Widmannstättian figures are visible directly in one portion of the surface. The indentations are broad and shallow, though, on the whole, well pronounced. A thin slice, weighing twenty-seven grammes, was sawn from the heel end of the mass. The hardness proved uniform, no pyrites having been encountered in the section. The specific gravity of the fragment is 7.52. On being etched with a dilute nitric acid, very beautiful Widmannstättian figures were presented, not quite identical with any with which Professor Shepard is acquainted, but most nearly resembling those of the Seneca Lake iron—the difference between the two consisting mainly in a less breadth to the bars by about one-third, in the former of these irons. At the date of his communication, he had found time only to examine the filings (or, rather, sawings) of this iron for sulphur and nickel. The first is wholly wanting, while the latter is abundantly present.

M. Stanislaus Mennier, of the Museum at Paris, has been analyzing varieties of meteoric iron. A quantitative analysis of the specimen discovered in 1784, in the valley of Toluca, Mexico, gave the following results:

Nickeliferous iron.....	96.301
Graphite.....	1.176
Troilite.....	1.482
Schreibersite.....	1.222
	<hr/> 100.191

The external crust of the Toluca iron had the following composition:

Sesquioxide of iron.....	68.93
Protoxide of iron.....	28.12
Protoxide of nickel.....	2.00
Protoxide of cobalt.....	trace
Total.....	<hr/> 99.05

These numbers (for the crust) agree with the formula $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3(\text{FeNi})\text{O}$, which does not differ from that of magnetite, except by the substitution of a small portion of nickel for a corresponding quantity of the iron of the protoxide.

M. Mennier finds that gases do not exist in appreciable quantity in the meteoric irons which he examined. One mass, from Siberia, gave him a small bubble of gas, having the composition of atmospheric air; but it should be remarked that the iron was cracked. Among the rare substances discovered by him in meteoric iron are chromite and proto-chloride of iron. Their separation was easy, and their character identical with that of analogous terrestrial compounds.

A meteorite, weighing 2 pounds 5 ounces, which fell, March 20, 1868, in Griqua territory, South Africa, was brought to England by Mr. J. K. Gregory, and a portion analyzed by Prof. Church. Its composition was:

Nickel iron.....	29.72
Troilite.....	6.02
Schreibersite.....	1.59
Silica and silicates.....	61.53
Oxygen, other substances, and loss.....	1.14

Total 100.00

METEORS. A meteoric shower hardly less remarkable than that of November 14, 1867, occurred on the same date in 1868. People generally either did not know that a shower was due, or did not take sufficient interest in it to sit up and watch for it. But in various parts of the country scientific men were on the alert, and a larger number of accurate observations were probably taken than on any previous similar occasion. The editor would express his obligations to the *American Journal of Science*, from which, and other less important sources, were derived the data of the following account.

Professor H. A. Newton, with a corps of assistants, conducted the observations at New Haven. They commenced counting at 12, midnight. The party then consisted of seven or eight persons, but was enlarged to twelve, and toward morning fell off to seven or eight again. To each person was assigned a direction to which he was to look. To avoid duplication, the counting was done aloud; each meteor, whether seen by one or by several persons, was counted once, and once only. Such, at least, was the aim of the party; and probably few meteors were lost at first. But, after a time, as the meteors became more abundant, it was evident that many were lost in the counting. Afterward, therefore, Professor Newton directed the members of the party to count silently during intervals which he carefully limited by the watch. Immediately

upon the close of an interval, the counting in concert was resumed. In the tables prepared by Professor Newton are given, in separate columns, the intervals of observation during which the party were counting in concert; the lengths of those intervals; the numbers actually counted in the intervals; the average number of meteors per minute; the number of observers; the total number per hour. In computing the hourly numbers allowance was made for the omitted intervals, by assuming, for the rate per minute, the half sum of the rates of the periods just preceding and following. In the four hours and forty-two minutes of counting aloud the number was 5,573. For the omitted intervals (when the counting was silent) the rule adopted gave 1,786, making a total of 7,359 in the six hours. Professor Newton says that the short duration of the shower seems to imply that the radiant is very narrow perpendicularly to the ecliptic. Early in the morning hours it seemed that this area must extend parallel to the ecliptic nearly up to ϵ Leonis. But its length in that direction had then to be determined by flights that were nearly parallel to the horizon. The eye cannot easily make allowance for the curvature of the arc of a great circle in carrying backward the line of such a track. He felt sure that the tendency to make such tracks parallel to the horizon is so strong that, in a careful location of the radiant, nearly all those must be rejected in which the meteor first appears several degrees from the sickle. Yet, after all allowances, he believes that some paths in these early hours would, when traced backward, pass near ϵ Leonis. After the radiant had reached an altitude of 30 or 40 degrees, there were very few tracks, if any, which, traced back, would not cut across the line joining γ Leonis with the sixth magnitude star (230 Piazz, 3423 B. A. C.) in the centre of the bend of the sickle, and between these stars. But there were many tracks which, when extended backward, cut this line at large angles and near either extremity of it. This implies that the radiant was not much shorter than the distance between them. The latitude of the radiant he estimated at about γ Leonis, or $8\frac{1}{2}^\circ$. To determine this latitude, only meteors starting from near the radiant and moving parallel to the ecliptic were noticed. If the radiant was a point, any two well-observed flights would determine its place. But, in consequence of its considerable length, any flights nearly parallel to, or nearly perpendicular to, the ecliptic are convenient for determining its latitude and its limits in longitude. The prevailing tint of the trains was green, or bluish-green. Mr. Harger (in the New Haven observations) counted 60 unconformable meteors during the six hours. These were strikingly unlike the conformable ones, usually giving the impression of a harder nucleus and leaving no train. Many trains were visible for several minutes, and one remained for forty-four minutes. They usually floated to the northward.

Throughout the showers the proportion of faint meteors was very small.

At Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine, Professor E. G. Rockwood, Jr., conducted the observations, assisted by Mr. J. P. Gross, and a number of students. The formal counting commenced at 51 minutes after midnight. The whole number counted in $4^h 24^m$ was 5,670, of which 121 were reported as not conformable to the radiant of Leo. But as the observers were all without previous experience in such work, but little reliance can be placed on the number of unconformable meteors recorded. Almost all the brighter meteors left trains of various lengths, and frequently several trains would be visible upon the sky at one time. These usually presented the appearance of clouds of luminous smoke, which gradually changed their form, and floated toward the north. Many meteors were so brilliant as to cast a light on surrounding objects, which was plainly visible even when the meteor itself was hidden from view by some intervening object. Many were brighter than Venus, which was visible in the east during the latter part of the watch.

At Boston, Massachusetts, Mr. T. W. Tuttle, from a window looking north, counted 455 meteors in $2^h 2^m$.

Mr. R. Taber, at New Bedford, Massachusetts, reports that the flights were in general unusually bright, leaving in many cases long trails, which remained visible sometimes two, and four, and in one instance eight minutes; gathering apparently in knots and waves, with a seeming motion of their parts and curving like a trail of smoke in a light wind. One of these trails, examined by the telescope, showed plainly a difference in the intensity of its light, being much more luminous on the knots, so to speak; yet not enough to dim the intensity of the third-magnitude star which shone through it.

Mr. E. A. Fuertes, at Stamford, Connecticut, was occupied principally in locating the tracks of the meteors upon the chart. He estimates the number seen by him at more than a thousand. The sky was magnificent, the belts of Jupiter appearing with a brownish-red color which he has only seen on remarkably fine nights with his glass, of six feet focus and $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches aperture. He thinks that in the earlier part of the evening the meteors were green, and gradually changed to blue as the night advanced.

Miss Mitchell, at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., reports from five observers 3,766 meteors. The most remarkable hour was that from two to three o'clock, in which 900 were counted. The most fruitful minute was from $2^h 24^m$ to $2^h 25^m$. The other hours from 12^h to $5\frac{1}{2}^h$ were much alike. Flashes of light, for which they could not account by any meteor above the horizon, were frequent, and Miss Mitchell was confident that the evening of November 13th was lighter than common for a moonless night without aurora.

Mr. W. S. Gilman, at Palisades, N. Y., took careful notice of the peculiarities of the more remarkable meteors, and mapped their paths upon the chart. A few meteors of great beauty were seen before 11½ o'clock. Mr. Gilman says he could see distinctly, and with the utmost ease, the little companion of Sirius in his 4-inch glass with a power of only 40, at 3^h A. M., which fact shows remarkable clearness and steadiness of atmosphere. He noticed blue trains at first; afterward more greenish ones. The radiant point seemed to him to be near γ Leonis, say R.A. 152°, N. Dec. 18°.

At Haverford, Pa., observations were made by Professor S. J. Gummere, assisted by Mr. E. B. Taylor and others; counting commenced at 11^h 34^m, and the number seen, up to 5^h 40^m, was 5,005. It is said that several hundreds more were counted, but the times were not observed.

Mr. G. T. Kingston, of the Magnetic Observatory, Canada, reports that nearly 3,000 were counted between 10^h 45^m and 18^h 0^m of November 13th, Toronto astronomical time. With the exception of about one per cent., their courses were from the constellation Leo. Owing partly to the remarkably favorable state of the sky during most of the night, many of the meteors appeared very large and brilliant, some exceeding Sirius in apparent magnitude, and often exhibiting a variety of colors. Most of them were followed by trains, which often left tracks that continued visible from two to four minutes. Two observers were constantly watching excepting from 10^h 45^m to 11^h 0^m and from 11^h 50^m to 12^h 10^m, when only one was engaged. From 12^h 10^m to 17^h 0^m a third observer was frequently though not constantly engaged.

A single observer, Mr. Lewis Swift, at Marathon, N. Y., after half-past one o'clock counted 896 meteors, all but five from Leo. At a little after three o'clock, a train in Cancer was visible for several minutes, which floated to the north.

Professor Kirkwood and Mr. Maxwell, at Bloomington, Ind., thought they saw one meteor in the forenoon of the 13th, and suspected two or three others. They were looking from a shaded place in the direction of the radiant. Professor Kirkwood, however, in view of the fact that no considerable fall seems to have commenced until several hours later, thinks it quite probable that there was some ocular deception in this.

Mr. J. E. Hendricks, at Des Moines, Iowa, counted in an hour and a quarter, from four o'clock, 250 meteors, only one being non-conformable.

At Manhattan, Kan., Professor B. F. Mudge with one assistant counted 833 from half-past four to half-past five o'clock. The time per hundred varied from seven to nine minutes, the last hundred being counted in eight minutes.

The preceding abstract of observations from

the *American Journal of Science* is confined principally to the numbers seen on the morning of November 14th. The most striking peculiarities of the display are its uniform intensity through several hours, and its appearance twelve or eighteen hours later than might have been expected.

Professor Henry, Commodore Sands, Professor Rockwood, Mr. W. S. Gilman, Miss Mitchell, Mr. Fuertes, Mr. Tuttle, Professor Gummere, Mr. Swift, Mr. Wm. C. Taylor, of Philadelphia, and Professor Twining, have furnished to the same publication valuable observations upon particular meteors remarkable for brilliancy or duration of train.

The most remarkable meteor of the night was one which passed about eighty miles north of Philadelphia, and disappeared at an altitude of about fifty miles, at a point over Schuylkill County, Pa., at 1^h 16^m, New Haven time. The portions of its train floated in different directions, and continued visible nearly or quite three-quarters of an hour. It was seen and its place noticed at Williamstown, New Haven, Poughkeepsie, Palisades, Haverford, and other places.

Another brilliant meteor was described by Professor Newton as appearing at 4^h 57^m, and "going down to the left of the Pleiades with a flash that made every one look around." Professor Twining, of Yale College, saw this meteor at New York City, and by a comparison of the two observations, Professor Newton calculated that it fell from a height of eighty-five miles to within sixty miles of the earth's surface.

Director Hough, of the Dudley Observatory, at Albany, N. Y., made the following report:

DUDLEY OBSERVATORY, November 14, 1863.

The display of shooting stars on the night of the 13th and morning of the 14th instant was very fine. They appeared in much greater numbers than we had reason to expect. The great mass of the meteors were more brilliant than those observed during the great shower of last year. Many surpassed Jupiter in splendor, and a few gave out light sufficient to cast a perceptible shadow. The largest number emanated from the constellation Leo, passing to the north or south, in a line nearly parallel with the horizon. Quite a number, however, emanated from other parts of the heavens, and moved in various directions. A few of the most brilliant ones left a train visible long after the meteor had disappeared. Advantage was taken of this circumstance to examine them with a telescope.

As seen through the comet-seeker, the train appeared as a brilliant gray band of light, which gradually changed its form, assuming, before its disappearance, a great variety of shapes. One resembled a spear and another doubled on itself, forming a coil. In general the train first became bent, appearing like a piece of serpentine braid, after which it gradually separated in different pieces. Through the telescope the train of one remained visible for more than ten minutes. During the examination of the train, in a number of instances, other meteors were seen to shoot across the field of view, appearing, in the telescope, of great brilliancy.

The observations at the Dudley Observatory were continued from 11 hours 30 minutes P. M. of the 13th to 5.30 A. M. of the 14th instant. Our efforts were

mainly directed to the determination of the rate of fall and the time of flight.

The following table shows the rate of fall per minute during the night, taken at the Dudley Observatory:

H. M.	Rate of Fall.
11.30 P. M.	1
12.00 M.	2
12.30 A. M.	2.5
1.00 A. M.	3
1.30 A. M.	3.5
2.00 A. M.	4
2.30 A. M.	4.5
3.00 A. M.	5
3.30 A. M.	6
4.00 A. M.	8
4.30 A. M.	10
5.00 A. M.	12
5.30 A. M.	10

An inspection of this table shows that the shower gradually increased, attaining its maximum at 5 o'clock A. M., being half an hour later than last year. The whole number of meteors noted from 11.30 P. M. to 5.30 A. M. was 1,850. As there were intervals during the night when no count was made, we estimate the whole number visible considerably above 2,000. The shower probably continued, with a gradual diminution, until 10 o'clock A. M., during which time at least 2,000 more must have appeared.

Although the greatest rate of fall was only one-fourth of that last year, yet as the shower continued over so much longer an interval of time, the number of meteors could not have been much less.

The time of flight of more than one hundred was recorded by electricity on the chronograph, in the manner we adopted in 1863. The maximum of appearance was nine-tenths of a second, and the minimum three-tenths, the mean being sixty-five hundredths of a second; not differing materially from the same quantities deduced in 1863.

The recurrence of this phenomenon with such marked regularity during the past three years fully demonstrates the truth of the theory that there exists a ring of *débris* circulating around the sun, in which the earth plunges to a greater or less depth at every revolution.

G. W. HOUGH.

Commodore Sands, Superintendent of the Naval Observatory, Washington, reports that, during the evening of the 13th, no extraordinary number of meteors was seen until 11 P. M., when there seemed to be an increase in the number and brilliancy, though not sufficient to indicate the beginning of a shower. At 12^h 35^m, the observers began to count the meteors, and to plot the tracks of the principal ones in that portion of the heavens covered by the star chart constructed at the Observatory in 1866. At 1.35 A. M., three hundred had been counted, most of them quite brilliant, and nearly all of them leaving green, blue, or red trains. Thus far the display had not been confined to any portion of the sky, but most of them were in the northern and southern heavens, and scarcely any were in a position to be placed in a star chart. Many of the trains were visible several minutes. One lasted ten minutes, and traces of one near B. Ursa Minoris were seen thirty minutes after the appearance of the meteor. After 1.50 A. M. Professor Eastman succeeded in sketching the tracks of about ninety meteors. During one hour and forty-three minutes, four hundred had been counted. The observations were continued until 6 A. M., at which time five thousand and seventy-eight had been counted. During the whole display there were many

meteors seen in the west. From 4 to 5 A. M. the number was about equal in the east and west. The time of maximum frequency was about five hours, when they fell at the rate of about twenty-five hundred per hour. The radiant point was quite well defined during the latter part of the shower, and was found, by estimation, to be about forty-nine degrees right ascension and twenty-two minutes thirty seconds in declination. The display was also brilliant at Philadelphia, Charleston, Memphis, New Orleans, and other places in the United States.

Mr. Henry Tutwiler communicates to the *ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA* the following account of the shower as seen from the Greene Springs School, Alabama:

I regret that I am not able to say at what hour the storm began. I retired at 11^h P. M. on the 13th, and very few meteors were visible at that time. I arose at 4 on the morning of the 14th, and they were then falling quite rapidly; five hundred were counted in forty minutes by four of the students appointed for this purpose. Our point of view was so obstructed by trees and buildings, that I am sure we did not see half of those that were visible. They were remarkable for the length of train, which, in some cases, remained visible, like a thin, white cloud, several minutes after the apparent explosion of the main body. While disappearing, this train assumed a curved form, the concavity being always in the same direction. They fell toward every point of the compass, but when traced back seemed to come from the same point of the heavens, *Gamma Leonis*. Not more than four or five were seen by all the observers which did not seem to come from this point. When they appeared in pairs, as they sometimes did, their directions seemed to be very nearly parallel. There appeared to be no abatement during the two hours or more of our observations. The meteors ceased to be visible only from the increasing light of the day.

At San Francisco the shower began about 10^h 30^m, lasting until early on the morning of the 14th. The display, at 2 A. M., was regarded as rivalling that of November 14, 1867. Several meteors left a trail distinguishable for many seconds.

Owing to the cloudy state of the weather, no meteors were seen at London, England, where extensive preparations had been made to observe them scientifically, but a fine display was witnessed at Oxford.

An Extraordinary Meteor in Brazil.—A meteor, or aërolite, was observed early on the morning of July 30, 1868, passing in a south-west direction from Rezende, in the south of the province of Rio Janeiro, into San Paulo. Dr. Franklin Massena, a scientific gentleman, chanced to be looking at the horizon from the observatory at Italayá, and obtained a fine view of the phenomenon. He reports that, suddenly toward the east, at almost thirty degrees of the meridian, he saw an immense and beautiful aërolite crossing to the southwest. He called two other gentlemen in the observatory, Messrs. Arsenio and Veja, and together they watched the passage and disappearance of this luminous body, and its form and motion. Its form was that of a globe, having an apparent diameter of about forty-three minutes, and

a tail of nine degrees, in an elliptical curve, extending into space with an inclination of about thirty degrees. The tail was of an oval form, and very divergent toward the part away from the nucleus. The motion was made by the nucleus, the tail following its track. Both the tail and the nucleus were as brilliant as electrical light, and emitted some luminous drop or tearlike particles, which threw out silvery sparkles with incredible rapidity. Six minutes after its meridian passage, the body exploded toward the southwest. Such was the rapidity with which it moved, that in seventeen seconds it traversed a celestial area of seventy-seven degrees, forty-one minutes, losing itself behind a hill at five hours, fifty-five minutes, fifty seconds, or seventeen hours, fifty-five minutes, fifty seconds, of true solar time. This aërolite so disturbed the magnetic instruments that the declinometer turned its pole from the north toward the west, and stuck itself in the box, where it found resistance; the horizontal magnometer turned toward the west eight divisions of the scale; the vertical magnometer fell in its centre of gravity; and, finally, the compass oscillated fifteen degrees from north to west. It is, therefore, demonstrated that an aërolite has an intense action on the North Pole of magnets, powerfully attracting them. The following are some mathematical elements of the orb of this body: Meridian passage, five hours, fifty-five minutes, thirty-three seconds on July 30, 1868; declination, sixty-five degrees south; vertical distance, forty-two degrees, thirty-two minutes; setting, fifty degrees, fifteen minutes, west by south. With these data the orbit of the aërolite is found to have seventeen degrees, forty minutes, of inclination upon the line of the earth's rotation, with its movement contrary to that of the earth. At six o'clock, at the moment of detonation, the state of the atmosphere to be taken into account for the calculation of distance was: Barometer, 584.3; Thermometer C., eight degrees, three minutes; Hyg., of relative humidity, 76.5; sky, clear and cold; wind, northwest, weak. The motion of the aërolite was followed by a noise like that of silk dragged over the ground.

Explosion of a Meteoric Body in Kansas, June 6, 1868.—Professor B. F. Mudge, of the State Agricultural College, furnished to the *American Journal of Science*, for November, the following account:

At twenty minutes before noon, June 6th, a most brilliant meteorite was seen in our western sky. It exhibited a pink flame, shining with so vivid a light that, had it occurred in the night, it would have obscured the full moon. It descended at an angle of 75° with the horizon, leaving a streak or sharply-defined line of its track, which continued nearly a minute. When first seen by me, it had an elevation of 55°, though others saw it still higher. The diameter of the nucleus was about 15', or nearly half the diameter of the moon. It descended with great velocity (in less time than one second), and when 12° above the horizon, bearing 10° N. of W., exploded, sending two streams of fire toward the earth. The

report of the explosion followed in about four minutes and a half (owing to inadvertence the time was not exactly noted). The detonation was double—the reports following each other in quick succession, nearly simultaneous. Here it sounded as loud as a twelve-pounder a mile distant. Those west of us, who heard it, described it as more like sharp thunder. A farmer in the Republican Valley, fifty miles from this place, supposed it was the steam-boiler of a mill, and hurried to the spot to learn the damage done. On exploding, it produced a light-blue cloud one and a half degrees long and two-thirds as wide, which floated in sight seventeen minutes without much diminution in size, when a passing cirro-cumulus cloud obscured it. The report was heard over an area of 120 miles in diameter, and the meteorite was seen much farther, viz., at Topeka, Marysville, Fort Harker, Fort Zarah, and intermediate points. Its flight was apparently from south to north, though its motion was so rapid and nearly perpendicular, that it was difficult to determine.

The following are its elements, very nearly:

Height when first seen	81 miles.
" it exploded	12.5 "
Length of the cloud caused by the explosion..	1.44 "
Breadth	96 "
Size of the nucleus or head	1,890 feet.
Distance from this place when it exploded, about	58 miles.

It must have exploded over the country about midway between the Republican and Solomon Rivers, which has few inhabitants. An aërolite must have fallen, and I have spent some time in endeavoring to find it, but thus far without success.

METHODISTS. I.—METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH. The number of Annual Conferences given below is 67, but the Quadrennial General Conference, held in 1868, increased the number to 71. Of the travelling preachers, 491 are "super-numerary," 860 are "superannuated," and 8,481 are "effective." Of the members, 1,060,265 are "in full connection," and 194,850 are "probationers." The number of churches is 11,692, and of parsonages, 3,810½. The total value of church property is \$47,970,501.

The statistics of the principal societies of the Church during the year 1868 (according to the *Methodist Almanac* for 1869) were as follows: *Tract Society.* Receipts, \$13,102.13; expenditures, \$11,280.12. Its grants to the foreign work were nearly \$5,000, and its circulation of tracts, etc., is immense. It publishes one periodical, *Good News*, which has a circulation of over 70,000. *The Freedmen's Aid Society.* Organized in 1866, employs about 75 teachers, and has 12,000 pupils in its schools. *Church Extension Society:* Receipts for the year ending November 15, 1868, \$80,607.42. The Society, with a comparatively small income, assisted, by donations, 80 churches in 26 different States and Territories. *Sunday-School Union:* Schools, 15,885; officers and teachers, 182,566; scholars, 1,152,825; collections, \$21,926.70. A *Board of Education* was organized by the General Conference of 1868: its duties are declared to be, "to receive and securely invest the principal of the Centenary Educational Fund (now amounting to \$24,325.44), and to appropriate the interest only, from time to time (1) to aid young men preparing for the foreign missionary work of the Methodist Episcopal Church; (2) to aid young men pre-

paring for the ministry of the Church; (3) to aid our theological institutions; (4) to aid our universities, seminaries, and academies," and to receive and separately invest and "augment the Sunday-school Children's Fund commenced during the centenary year (now amounting to \$56,674.40), appropriating the interest only to assist meritorious Sunday-school scholars in obtaining a more advanced education."

At the close of 1868, the statistics of the Methodist Episcopal Church were:

CONFERENCES.	Travelling Preachers.	Local Preachers.	Members.
Alabama.....	55	167	11,554
Baltimore.....	112	110	17,735
Black River.....	207	151	22,197
California.....	73	98	6,185
Central German.....	93	93	9,801
Central Illinois.....	171	248	22,335
Central Ohio.....	130	148	19,094
Cincinnati.....	171	201	30,025
Colorado.....	8	11	561
Delaware.....	39	117	9,801
Des Moines.....	100	196	14,771
Detroit.....	177	225	20,596
East Baltimore.....	246	173	42,312
East Genesee.....	198	142	24,232
East German.....	35	24	2,805
East Maine.....	89	74	11,717
Erie.....	263	270	32,831
Genesee.....	124	92	9,679
Georgia.....	46	84	15,134
Germany and Switzerland.....	41	30	6,334
Holston.....	96	183	25,723
Illinois.....	232	342	34,675
India Mission.....	23	21	550
Indiana.....	126	210	28,276
Iowa.....	115	220	20,522
Kansas.....	97	142	9,184
Kentucky.....	93	155	17,350
Liberia Mission.....	20	32	1,830
Maine.....	123	84	13,124
Michigan.....	130	223	21,048
Minnesota.....	111	144	10,160
Mississippi Mission.....	49	127	16,164
Missouri and Arkansas.....	181	382	25,746
Nebraska.....	35	28	2,286
Nevada.....	13	9	443
Newark.....	172	127	29,308
New England.....	212	126	23,173
New Hampshire.....	130	80	12,650
New Jersey.....	161	183	30,272
New York.....	263	161	39,895
New York (East).....	212	199	37,372
North Indiana.....	146	261	32,830
North Ohio.....	139	130	18,923
Northwest German.....	96	64	7,071
Northwest Indiana.....	118	165	20,063
Ohio.....	161	211	33,814
Oneida.....	191	119	19,348
Oregon.....	66	63	4,505
Philadelphia.....	238	376	59,760
Pittsburg.....	244	233	48,473
Providence.....	141	95	18,054
Rock River.....	201	262	21,143
South Carolina Mission.....	40	132	18,200
Southeast Indiana.....	108	145	22,839
Southern Illinois.....	173	361	24,733
Southwest German.....	91	129	7,729
Tennessee.....	71	141	9,474
Texas Mission.....	30	45	3,391
Troy.....	226	122	28,610
Upper Iowa.....	146	197	18,061
Vermont.....	133	77	13,909
Virginia and North Carolina.....	21	22	2,756
Washington Mission.....	77	131	21,036
West Virginia.....	112	252	27,959
West Wisconsin.....	118	209	12,167
Wisconsin.....	162	144	12,703
Wyoming.....	124	153	17,844
Total.....	8,451	9,899	1,253,115
Last year.....	8,004	9,469	1,146,061
Increase.....	477	430	109,054

The appropriations made by the Missionary Society for 1869 amounted to \$850,000, namely: foreign missions, \$275,866.78; domestic missions, \$52,150; Indian missions, \$5,800; American domestic missions, \$297,250.00; missions in the Territories of the United States, to be administered as foreign missions, \$14,000. The statistics of the missions were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Missionaries.	Assistants.	Members.
Liberia.....	18	5	1,830
South America.....	2	2	177
China.....	7	64	454
India.....	25	53	550
Bulgaria.....	3
Scandinavia.....	17	8	769
Germany and Switzerland.....	6,339
Indians in United States.....	11	..	1,394
Scandinavians in United States.....	37	..	2,490
Germans in United States.....
Chinese in United States.....
American Populations in Annual Conferences.....	1,783

There are 135 school-teachers connected with foreign missions.

The fifteenth Quadrennial General Conference of the Church began its session at Chicago on the 1st of May. One of the first questions which engaged attention was that regarding the position to be accorded to the new conferences which had been formed in the Southern States since the last session. These were the Washington and Delaware Conferences, in the border States, composed entirely of colored ministers, and the Alabama, Georgia, Holston, Mississippi, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and North Carolina Conferences, composed of white and colored preachers, all of which had been organized under provisions made by the previous General Conference, which did not seem, however, to contemplate their recognition as regular conferences and admission to representation in the General Conference without further action. The differences of opinion on the subject were mostly upon technical construction. The bodies were declared Annual Conferences, vested with all the rights, privileges, and immunities usual to annual conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The mission conferences of Liberia, Germany, and India, were placed on a similar footing, the administration of their missionary interests remaining unchanged, and the bishops were requested to provide each with at least one episcopal visitation during the next four years.

In anticipation of a large growth of the Church in the South and West, the bishops were authorized to form new conferences in the South, and in territories not now included in annual conferences, and to divide conferences, with the consent of the bodies affected.

Provision was made for the organization of a third conference of colored ministers, if deemed necessary by the bishops.

The present number of annual conferences

is seventy-one, being an increase of twelve from the previous General Conference of 1864.

The report presented to the General Conference, on the subject of lay delegations, showed that eleven of the annual conferences had declared in favor of lay representation without qualification, and twenty "if it is desired by the people," and that 25,519 members of the church had signed petitions in favor of it, and 1,223 had signed remonstrances against it. After discussing several schemes, the General Conference adopted a plan of lay representation in the General Conference, subject to approval by the Church, by which the General Conference is to consist of one ministerial delegate for every thirty members of each annual conference, and two lay delegates from each annual conference, except from those entitled to but one ministerial delegate, which shall send also but one lay delegate each. The lay delegates are to be chosen by an electoral conference of laymen, which is to assemble for the purpose on the third day of the session of the annual conference, at its place of meeting, at its session immediately preceding the General Conference. Lay delegates to the electoral and General Conference must be twenty-five years of age, and have been five years in full connection in the Church. Two-thirds of the whole number of ministers and lay delegates shall be required to constitute a quorum of the General Conference. When demanded by one third of either order, the two bodies shall meet separately, in which case the concurrent vote of both shall be required to make action valid. This plan is to be submitted to the vote of the laymen in their Quarterly Conferences in June, 1869, when all members in full connection, of suitable age, shall be entitled to vote upon it. Upon being approved by a majority of the votes cast by the laity, and by three-fourths of all the members of the annual conferences voting upon it, and its indorsement by the next General Conference, the plan will become a part of the constitution of the Church.

The subject of a union with the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church was favorably considered, and a committee of conference on the subject was appointed. Bishop Jones, of this body, in an address he delivered, demanded exact equality as the condition of union. A committee was also appointed to confer with a committee of the Evangelical Association, on the subject of a closer union with that body, and a general committee was appointed to confer with the Methodist branches in relation to union. Communications looking to union were received from members of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and referred to a special committee.

As the year 1869 will be the semi-centennial of the establishment of the Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and the hundredth anniversary of the arrival of Richard Boardman and Joseph Pillmore—the first Methodist preachers in the United States—

in America, a missionary jubilee was determined upon, with services and memorials to be held in honor of those ministers.

A remarkable feature of the proceedings was the repeal of the resolutions of the General Conference of 1836, censuring certain of its members for participating in antislavery meetings.

II. METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH SOUTH.—The statistics of this Church, in 1867, were as follows:

CONFERENCES.	Travelling Preachers.	Local Preachers.	Total Members and Probationers.
Baltimore.....	143	78	17,155
Virginia.....	165	155	37,497
West Virginia.....	46	69	6,731
North Carolina.....	119	176	35,104
South Carolina.....	155	180	47,078
North Georgia.....	128	363	45,387
South Georgia.....	110	216	26,869
Florida.....	46	74	6,386
Montgomery.....	119	312	31,223
Mobile.....	108	183	22,577
Louisiana.....	71	71	9,978
Mississippi.....	119	69	19,043
Memphis.....	178	399	39,085
Tennessee.....	179	398	40,800
Holston.....	103	194	25,965
Kentucky.....	78	103	15,583
Louisville.....	99	149	29,689
St. Louis.....	83	84	12,688
Missouri.....	93	105	14,300
Arkansas.....	65	123	13,951
Little Rock.....	64	83	9,073
Indian Mission.....	12	..	1,788
Texas.....	48	50	4,543
Trinity.....	46	123	8,257
East Texas.....	32	..	7,107
Northwest Texas.....	36	89	4,731
West Texas.....	36	36	3,486
Columbia.....	16	10	753
Pacific.....	50	39	2,642
Illinois.....	11	16	2,561
Total in 1867.....	2,581	3,932	535,040
Total in 1866.....	2,485	3,799	505,101
Increase.....	96	183	29,980

The collections made for the Home Missionary Society amounted to \$44,672. The Church supports a foreign mission in China.

III. THE METHODIST PROTESTANT AND THE METHODIST CHURCHES.*—The former has a membership of about 72,000; the Maryland Conference has 10,500 members, the North Carolina, from 9,000 to 10,000. The Methodist Church has about 50,000 members, 624 itinerant, and 444 local ministers.

IV. THE WESLEYAN CONNECTION AND PRIMITIVE METHODISTS.—The former has 11 annual conferences, and (November, 1868) about 15,000 members. The latter, an offshoot of an English Methodist denomination, has about 2,000 members.

V. FREE METHODIST CHURCHES.—This body reported, in 1868, 94 preachers, about 6,000 members, 49 church edifices, and church property to the value of \$170,000.

VI. EVANGELICAL ASSOCIATION.—The al-

* See ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867, for an account of the historical relation of these two Churches to each other.

manac of this Church for the year 1869 reports the following statistics :

CONFERENCES.	Itinerant Preachers.	Members and Probationers.	Sunday-school Scholars.
East Pennsylvania.....	77	10,611	8,677
Central Pennsylvania.....	52	7,514	4,957
Ohio.....	43	6,327	4,420
Illinois.....	54	6,843	4,757
New York.....	27	3,052	2,174
Pittsburg.....	35	5,406	4,200
Indiana.....	45	4,791	3,971
Wisconsin.....	41	6,406	3,414
Iowa.....	25	2,687	1,775
Canada.....	26	2,971	2,389
Michigan.....	23	3,229	982
Kansas.....	12	607	305
Germany.....	19	3,701	2,145
Minnesota.....	18	1,539	1,006
California and Oregon.....	8	150	120
Total.....	500	64,814	45,175

There are 798 churches and 863 Sunday-schools. The missionary contributions were \$90,616.62, and the contributions to the Sunday-school and Tract Union were \$1,666.36. The number of local preachers is given at 377.

The Church has two bishops; the Missionary Society supports 167 missions in America and Europe. The high-schools of the Church are the Northern College, at Plainfield, Ill., the Union Seminary, at New Berlin, Pa., and the Ebenezer Orphan Institution, at Flat Rock, Ohio. The Church sustains the following periodicals: The *Evangelical Messenger* and the *Sunday-school Messenger*; *Der Christliche Botschafter*, and *Der Christliche Kinderfreund*, published at Cleveland, Ohio; and *Der Evangelische Botschafter*, published in Wurttemberg, Germany.

VII. THE AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH AND THE AFRICAN METHODIST EPISCOPAL ZION CHURCH.—The statistics of the former body, in 1868, were: Travelling preachers, 600; churches, 586; members, 200,000; Sunday-school scholars, 60,000. The *Christian Recorder*, Philadelphia, is the organ of this denomination. It has a college, Wilberforce University, near Xenia, Ohio. The last-named Church reported, at the last General Conference, 694 preachers and 164,000 members.

Both these Churches held, in May, 1868, their Quadrennial General Conferences at Washington. At the General Conference of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, a delegation was received from the American Unitarian Association, who stated that they desired to assist the Church by appropriating some \$3,000 to \$4,000 to help the cause of missions and education, but in doing this did not want to interfere with their religious belief. The General Conference adopted a basis of action. It was reported with regard to the basis of union with the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, which was agreed upon at a convention of representatives of the two bodies in 1864, that the congregations which had voted upon it had expressed a willingness

for union, but had not approved the plan of the convention. The Conference, therefore, declined to consolidate the union, and asked for a new conference with the Zion Church to agree upon another plan. Three additional bishops were elected, making the total number seven. The bishops of this Church are ordained for life.

At the General Conference of the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, the bishops in their address recommended the establishment of an institution to be called the Rush Institute. A plan of consolidation between this Church and the African Methodist Episcopal Church, which had been agreed upon by committees of the two bodies in 1864, was reported ratified by a majority of the churches and conferences of the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church, and a committee was delegated to report the fact to the General Conference of the other body. As, however, the churches and conferences of the latter Church had failed to ratify the union on the basis proposed, the Zion General Conference declined to take further action on the subject at present. A committee on correspondence with the American Colonization Society reported against the aims and operations of the society as adverse to the true interests of the colored race in the United States. The Conference expressed its satisfaction at the origin and success of the freedmen's schools. A committee was appointed to confer with a committee of the Methodist Episcopal Church on a plan of union; and, in view of the probability of union, the ministers were advised to study the discipline of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Zion Church has six bishops or general superintendents, who are elected for four years, and are not ordained.

VIII. THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH IN CANADA.—The Methodist Episcopal Church in Canada embraces three Conferences—the Niagara, Ontario, and the Bay Quirite—with 2 bishops, 216 travelling preachers, and 58,457 members.

IX. WESLEYAN CONNECTION IN GREAT BRITAIN.—The *Wesleyan Methodist Calendar* for 1869 reports the following statistics:

	Travelling Preachers.	Total Members.
I. British Conference:		
Great Britain.....	1,565	367,206
Ireland and Irish Missions...	175	20,299
Foreign Missions.....	284	62,741
II. French Conference.....	30	2,125
III. Australasian Conference.....	302	58,416
IV. Canada Conference.....	545	60,444
V. Conference of Eastern British America.....	190	17,204
Total.....	3,061	594,535
Total in 1867.....	3,172	582,668

Of the members, 550,055 are "in full connection," and 44,480 are "probationers." Increase of members in Great Britain during the last year, 5,310; decrease in Ireland, 66; increase of foreign stations, 680.

The British Wesleyan Conference met in Liverpool, July 30th. The receipts of the Auxiliary Fund were reported at £15,000. The Chapel Committee reported collections of over £3,000, and a similar amount given to the Theological Institute. During the year, 126 new chapels, with 22,137 sittings, were authorized to be built, at an estimated cost of £216,515. Two hundred and sixty new buildings were completed during the year. The Home Mission Committee reported 68 missionaries, with 11 chaplains in the army. Seventeen chapels are being built in connection with Home Mission stations, to hold 8,375 persons, at a cost of £34,310. One hundred and forty-three students have attended the two theological schools at Richmond and Didsbury. The preaching of the students was said to make them in much request in the places which they were in the habit of visiting on Sundays, and the whole retrospect of the year was encouraging.

A remarkable letter was received from Dr. Pusey, proposing to the Conference an alliance against the reforms which the Liberal party endeavored to introduce into the ecclesiastical legislation of the United Kingdom. The Conference agreed to take no action on the subject for the present, but directed the ex-president to acknowledge the receipt of the letter on behalf of the Conference, stating that it had been laid before it, but no decision had been arrived at on the question.

X. (BRITISH) PRIMITIVE METHODISTS.—The minutes of the Forty-ninth Annual Conference report the following statistics: members, 159,798—increase, 4,848; travelling preachers, 916—increase, 25; local preachers, 14,020—increase, 155; class-leaders, 9,543—increase, 219; connectional chapels, 3,235—increase, 117; rented chapels, rooms, etc., 3,034—decrease, 48; Sabbath-schools, 3,053—increase, 119; Sabbath scholars, 247,969; increase, 13,175; Sabbath-school teachers, 43,642—increase, 2,451; reported deaths of members, 2,367—decrease, 51. At the Annual Conference held at Sunderland, on the 3d of June, it was reported that premises had been purchased and nearly paid for, for the Theological Institution at Sunderland. Thirteen new chapels have been built, valued at £3,350.

XI. UNITED METHODIST FREE CHURCHES OF ENGLAND.—The members of these bodies for 1868 were reported at 68,241, being an increase of 769 from the previous year. The number of chapels was 1,188; itinerant preachers, 296; local preachers, 3,373; Sunday scholars, 146,910. At the Annual Assembly of this body, held on the 29th of June, a resolution was unanimously passed that the Assembly declared its most unqualified disapprobation of any scheme of general endowment, however modified its form, or by whatever party in the state it may be proposed; that it regarded the endowment and establishment (by the state) of a sect, whatever its creed and polity, as a

political injustice—and therefore a real grievance—and an injury to the cause of Christ; declared its approval of Mr. Gladstone's resolution to disendow the Irish establishment, as a simple act of justice, and urged upon the churches the thoughtful consideration and support of this movement, "not only for itself, but because its successful issue will be the presage of the universal emancipation of religion from all civil interference," and expressed its decided opposition to the continuance of the Maynooth grant and *Regium Donum*. The missionary receipts were £1,052 8s. 2d. The society has missionaries throughout the whole of Australasia, except South Australia, in New Zealand, Jamaica, East and West Africa, and China.

XII. THE METHODIST NEW CONNECTION (GREAT BRITAIN).—At the last Conference, held at Layton, June 16, 1868, there were in England 11 districts, 59 circuits, and 10 missions, 151 preachers and 24,757 members; in Ireland, 7 circuits and stations, 7 missionaries, and 656 members; and in Canada, 87 circuit preachers, and 7,926 members. There has been a total increase of 941 members. The total number of chapels is 650; local preachers, 1,286; schools, 559; teachers, 11,253; scholars, 72,230. The Annual Conference declined to reopen the question of reunion. It voted in favor of "the disestablishment and disendowment of the Episcopal Church in Ireland, the withdrawal of the grant to Maynooth College, and the discontinuance of the *Regium Donum*." It pronounced against the traffic in intoxicating drinks on the Sabbath, and framed a petition to Parliament for its total stoppage on that day.

XIII. THE BIBLE CHRISTIANS.—This denomination reported, in 1868, 37 circuits and 41 home missions in England, and 55 abroad; with 253 itinerant preachers, 1,734 local preachers, 26,327 members, 1,080 on trial, 42,455 scholars, and 8,713 teachers.

XIV. CHURCH METHODISTS (PRIMITIVE WESLEYAN METHODISTS OF IRELAND).—The Conference of this body was held at Dublin on the 24th of June. It is exclusively Irish. It claims to be identical in the character of its constitution and doctrines with the societies as they were originally established by the Rev. John Wesley. It declines to administer the Sacraments, acknowledging the supremacy of the Established Church in that matter, and observes the rule neither to buy, sell, nor drink spirituous liquors except in cases of extreme necessity. The Conference were persuaded that a wide and effectual door of usefulness has opened to them. Contributions in the churches to the Superannuation Fund, £535 7s. 7d.; to the Chapel Fund, £40 4s. 4d. The members in this Church have been decreasing within a few years past. In 1845 they had risen to 15,414, but had fallen off in 1859 to 9,805, and in 1868 to 9,320. The decrease is principally owing to emigration.

MEXICO. The Republic of Mexico contains less than half the territory comprised in the old Spanish province of New Spain. The area of the Spanish vicerealty, according to the best estimates, was 1,690,317 square miles, but the successful attempt of Texas, in 1836, to achieve her independence, reduced it 257,504 square miles; the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, at the termination of the war with the United States, took off about 650,000 square miles more; and the Mesilla or Gadsden Treaty, which finally settled the boundary, left Mexico a territorial extent of 766,482 square miles. The entire northern frontier at present is 1,792 miles long, running between Mexico on the one hand, and the State of California, Territories of Arizona and New Mexico, and the State of Texas, on the other. The greatest length of the country on one direct line is 2,000 miles, the greatest width 1,100. The width of the isthmus of Tehuantepec is reduced to 130 miles, and the southern frontier, on the borders of Balize and Central America, measures 532 miles. The entire coast-line on the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea has an extent of 1,600 miles, that on the Pacific Ocean and Gulf of California is not less than 4,200 miles.

The Constitution adopted in 1857 divides the country into 23 States, one Federal District, and one Territory. The Territory comprises the peninsula of Lower California, which has an extent of 58,620 square miles, with only 9,000 inhabitants. Its capital is the little town of La Paz, which contains about 1,000 people. The Federal District comprises 87 square miles of territory, over which the Government has exclusive authority, lying within and about the city of Mexico. The States are the following, arranged in their order, proceeding from the northern frontier:

STATES.	Area, sq. m.	Pop'nation, 1858.	Capital.	Pop. of Cap'l.
Sonora.....	96,855	147,133	Ures.....	7,000
Chihuahua.....	80,701	160,000	Chihuahua.....	12,000
Coahuila.....	56,572	67,590	Saltillo.....	19,398
Sinaloa.....	32,586	160,000	Duracan.....	10,000
Durango.....	46,857	156,519	Durango.....	12,449
Nuevo Leon.....	16,688	145,779	Monterey.....	15,000
Tamaulipas.....	39,314	108,514	Ciudad Victoria.....	6,164
San Luis Potosi.....	37,194	390,360	San Luis Potosi.....	33,581
Zacatecas.....	26,823	329,141	Zacatecas.....	15,427
Aguascalientes.....	2,647	83,243	Aguascalientes.....	20,000
Jalisco.....	46,945	804,058	Guadalajara.....	65,000
Guanajuato.....	14,035	929,431	Guanajuato.....	63,398
Colima.....	2,918	61,243	Colima.....	31,774
Michoacan.....	22,220	491,679	Morelia.....	25,000
Queretaro.....	1,820	180,000	Queretaro.....	47,570
Vera Cruz.....	26,493	338,850	Vera Cruz.....	9,647
Mexico.....	18,881	1,012,554	Toluca.....	12,000
Tlascala.....	1,918	80,171	Tlascala.....	2,463
Puebla.....	8,581	655,622	Puebla.....	75,000
Guerrero.....	90,926	270,000	Tixtla.....	6,500
Oaxaca.....	23,642	500,000	Oaxaca.....	25,000
Tehuantepec.....	12,526	82,395	Minatitlan.....	500
Chiapas.....	18,051	161,914	Ciudad Real.....	8,000
Tabasco.....	12,359	70,628	San Juan Bautista.....	5,500
Yucatan.....	47,253	690,325	Merida.....	23,575

In the above enumeration, exhibiting the States as they now are, it will be observed that they are twenty-five in number. This

arises from the division of the original State of Nuevo Leon y Coahuila into its two constituent parts, and the formation of Tehuantepec from portions of the neighboring States. The total population of the Republic is about 8,400,000. There has never been an accurate census made, and the above figures are based on careful estimates. The surface of Mexico is extremely varied, and to this circumstance, together with its great extent from north to south, is owing the remarkable diversity of climate and vegetation. The great Cordillera enters Mexico from the south, and presently divides into two branches, which follow the general direction of the coast on either side. The eastern branch gradually subsides until it finally sinks to the general level, and spreads out upon the broad plains of Texas; but the western ridge, running parallel with the Pacific shore, continues in the great chain of the Rocky Mountains in the United States. The vast extent of territory lying between these two Cordilleras consists of a lofty table-land with an elevation of 6,000 to 8,000 feet, generally called the plateau of Anahuac. This comprises more than one-half of the whole country. Over this vast surface are scattered some very high mountain-peaks, with here and there a continuous ridge of considerable length. The most remarkable portion of this lofty region is the plain of Tenochtitlan, in which the capital of the country is situated. It has an oval form, 55 miles long by 37 broad, and is surrounded by ridges of basaltic rock. Towering aloft on the southeast of this plain are the great volcanoes of Popocatepetl, 17,716 feet high; Iztaccihuatl, 15,700 feet; Citlalpetl, or Orizaba, 17,380 feet; and Nanhcampapetl, or Cope de Perote, 13,416 feet above the sea-level. Within the plain of Tenochtitlan nearly one-tenth of the surface is occupied by small lakes. The largest of these is Tezcuco, which covers an area of 70 square miles. They are situated at different levels, are fed by several small streams, but have no natural outlet. Owing to this latter circumstance, destructive inundations were quite common until 1789, when the immense undertaking of cutting a canal to the Gulf of Mexico was completed. This is cut through the rock, 150 feet deep and 300 feet wide, for a distance of twelve miles, and cost the sum of £1,292,000. Besides the volcanoes mentioned as overlooking the plain of Tenochtitlan, there are several others in different parts of the table-land, some of which are in a state of activity. Earthquakes are frequent, but are not usually of a violent character.

The rivers of Mexico, compared with the extent of territory, are few and insignificant, and the country suffers from lack of water. Lakes of moderate size are, however, quite numerous, and much might be done in the way of artificial irrigation. The largest of the Mexican rivers is the Rio Grande del Norte, or Great River of the North, which forms the

boundary on the northeast and has a course of more than 1,300 miles. The Rio de Santiago rises in the centre of the country, near the capital, and makes its way through the mountains to the Pacific Ocean. The other rivers of importance are the Tula, Tampico, and Tobasco, flowing into the Gulf of Mexico, and the Balsas or Zacatula, and the Yopez, on the western slope. The largest lake in the country is the Chapala, in Jalisco, which covers an area of 1,300 square miles. The Poscuara, Mexititlan, Cayman, and Parras, are other considerable bodies of water.

A peculiarity of the geological formation of the mountains of Mexico is, that granite very rarely comes to the surface, but is covered over with porphyry, basalt, and other igneous rocks. The central plateau is for the most part a mass of porphyry containing large deposits of gold and silver. Rich veins of silver are also found in sienite and clay slate. Quartz is rarely met with in the porphyritic rocks, but hornblend is the predominating element.

In respect to climate, it is common to divide the country horizontally, so to speak, into the hot regions, *tierras calientes*; temperate regions, *tierras templadas*; and cold regions, *tierras frias*. The hot regions include the lowlands of the coast wherever the surface is lower than two thousand feet above the sea-level. These, on the eastern coast, include the greater part of the States of Tamaulipas, Vera Cruz, Tabasco, and Yucatan, and the northern parts of Tehuantepec. On the western coast the *tierras calientes* are confined to detached localities and narrow strips of sea-coast. The mean temperature in this region is about 77° Fahrenheit. On the eastern shore violent storms prevail throughout the winter, and in summer it is excessively unhealthy. The same may be said of certain localities on the Pacific shore. This is a great disadvantage to the country in a commercial point of view, for during the season when it is healthy on shore it is exceedingly dangerous navigating the adjacent seas; and when the winds and waters of the Gulf are favorable to ships and merchandise, the foreigner is almost certain to be carried away by the yellow fever if he steps on shore.

The temperate regions are for the most part on the slopes of mountains between the lower plains and the elevated table-lands. They have a fine, healthy climate, and great beauty and richness of vegetation, but are in general somewhat subject to fogs and mists. Within this region are the cities of Jalapa, on the east, and Chilpanzingo, on the Pacific slope. The mean temperature of the year is about 68° Fahr.

The cold regions include all the elevated table-lands five thousand feet above the sea, and upward. The mean temperature of the great plateau is about 62°, and it rarely rises above 75° or sinks below 55°. The mean temperature of the city of Mexico is about the

same as that of Rome. The climate of the plateau is, on the whole, favorable to human life. At a higher level than eight thousand feet, the climate becomes rude and disagreeable. The snow-line is reached at about fifteen thousand feet above the level of the sea.

Below the 28th parallel of latitude there are only two seasons in Mexico, the rainy season, from June or July to September or October, and the dry season, filling up the interval. In the most northerly States an abundance of snow falls in the months of January and February.

The vegetation of Mexico exhibits quite as great a variety as its climate. "Indeed," says Humboldt, "there is scarcely a plant in the rest of the world which is not susceptible of cultivation in one or other part of Mexico." The soil has extraordinary fertility, and irrigation is almost the only process required to bring forth its latent wealth in a luxuriant vegetation. The plants especially adapted to the hot regions are indigo, sugar, cotton, bananas, cassava, maguey, etc. The farinaceous part of cassava yields an excellent material for bread. Maguey is a plant peculiar to Mexico, and very highly prized by the people. It is a large, fleshy plant, which sometimes attains a height of twenty or thirty feet, and has leaves from five to eight feet long. It does not flower oftener than once in about ten years, but when the flowering period approaches it produces an extraordinary amount of sap, which is secured by cutting off the top of the plant, just before the flowering stem shoots up, and making a hollow cavity therein. From this six or eight quarts of liquor may be drawn off daily for four or five months. After a slight fermentation this produces a drink somewhat resembling cider, which is in common use as a beverage among all classes of people. A sort of brandy called *pulque* is obtained from this by distillation.

In the temperate regions, maize and European fruits and vegetables grow in abundance. These are also common on the table-lands, especially the more hardy of the grains and fruits. Among the productions of the country, not already mentioned, are tobacco, vanilla, yams, coffee, olives, grapes, etc., which are not confined to any particular locality, but thrive best in the lower regions. There are some forests among the mountains of Mexico, producing the oak, pine, and other useful trees.

Little is known of the animals which are native here, but at present there are few ferocious wild beasts to be found. Buffaloes come from the plains of the Arkansas and Red Rivers in winter in quest of pasturage. The domestic animals were introduced by the Spaniards, and since that time have greatly multiplied and roam wild over the uninhabited districts. The wool produced is of an inferior quality. In the low country about the peninsula of Yucatan there is a great abundance of bees, and mosquitoes and tormenting flies are

everywhere too plentiful for human comfort. Humming-birds of many species flit among the luxuriant herbage of the plains.

The present population of Mexico, somewhere between eight and nine millions in number, may be conveniently divided into four classes: 1. The pure Spaniards, who number at the present time not more than 24,000, and are politically the most degraded class. These are called, in the country, Chapetones. In the palmy days of the Spanish domination they never numbered more than 80,000. 2. The Creoles, or native whites of European descent. They are about 1,500,000 in number, and form the wealthiest and most influential portion of the people in social life. 3. The Indians or native Mexicans, who constitute the great mass of the laboring population, especially in the rural districts. There are probably about 4,000,000 of this class. 4. The mixed races, mulattoes, mestizoes, zamboes, quadroons, etc. Persons of all colors, pure and mixed, are admitted on a footing of equality to all political rights. The whites chiefly inhabit the table-lands, and the mulattoes and mestizoes dwell in the lowlands.

The aboriginal inhabitants, or Indians, of Mexico, comprise many distinct tribes, among which twenty different languages are spoken. Grammars and dictionaries of fourteen of these languages have been published. These Mexicans constitute two quite distinct classes of people, the Mansos, who mix with the other portions of the population on more or less amicable terms, have fixed abodes and regular occupation, and have in a measure adopted the habits and customs of civilized life; and the Bravos, who are wild hunters and warriors, like most of the other North American Indians, keeping aloof from all intercourse with the white inhabitants. The Bravos are found chiefly in the States on the Gila and upper Rio Grande. Some of them are constantly in a state of warfare, and they form several bold and independent tribes. One tribe, the Mayas, inhabit the region about the isthmus of Tehuantepec and the borders of Central America. The Mansos have adopted the Roman Catholic religion to a great extent and take a delight in the ceremonies of that Church. They are in general quite superstitious, and very submissive to the authority of those who are placed over them in any capacity. They are scattered over the country as farm-laborers and artisans, and in a few cases have acquired property and a position of comparative respectability; but for the most part they are indolent and ignorant, and take no interest in any of the higher affairs of life.

The natives of Mexico dwell mostly in huts of light trellis-work, and live in the most primitive style. Their dress consists of a pair of drawers or a petticoat, and a single outer garment, called a *serape*, which serves for a cloak by day and a coverlet by night, under which they sleep on a rough mat or the bare ground.

A sorry jade of a horse is generally seen feeding near each hut, and a scanty garden of maize and bananas furnishes the family supplies. Here the Indian lolls in the sunshine and sleeps, or drinks *pulque* and sings to his mandolin the hymns of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe.

Mexico is a lazy country, but the leading pursuit of the people is cultivating the soil, or rather obtaining crops from the land with very little genuine cultivation. Bananas are raised in immense quantities, and form an important article of food, especially among the poor sort of people. The banana is propagated by cuttings, and a very slight degree of labor suffices to obtain vast crops. According to the statement of Humboldt, one acre of land planted with bananas will produce enough for the sustenance of fifty persons, while the same extent sown with wheat would not afford subsistence for two individuals. The only labor required is a little digging of the earth about the roots of the plants twice a year, and the harvesting of the fruit. Beside a little patch of cultivated ground, oftentimes a cabin may be seen, swarming with children, while the parents take no thought of the morrow, but put the most implicit faith in the bananas. Next to these, the most important crop is manioc, or cassava, a plant somewhat resembling the potato, the farina of which is used in making a very nutritious article of bread. In the more elevated regions the staple article of food is maize, which flourishes here in great vigor, and in favorable seasons yields an abundant crop. It is no rare occurrence, however, for a year of drought to produce a severe famine, and in all such cases the general improvidence of the people causes the most wide-spread suffering. Systematic means of irrigating the soil would effectually guard against these terrible visitations of famine, but no system or order is observed, and no enterprise displayed in cultivating the land. The vine and olive might be made to flourish where now the fields appear barren. The only process required is irrigation.

No country in the world is richer in mineral resources than Mexico, but little is done at the present time toward utilizing this means of national wealth. Before the war of independence, according to Humboldt, there were in New Spain over three thousand mines, producing \$21,000,000 in silver and \$2,000,000 in gold every year, but many of the old mines have been abandoned, and the rest have greatly declined since that time in productiveness. It is not in the least probable that the supply of valuable metals is exhausted, but the methods of working the mines are the most crude and awkward imaginable, and little enterprise is shown in the management of this great interest. The machinery and processes employed are the same which were in use a century ago, and there is little doubt that modern improvements applied to those old and apparently ex-

hausted mines would develop new masses of treasure now lying neglected. There is a school of mines in the country, but, though in possession of a building, which alone cost £120,000, it is not provided with means of affording the most rudimentary instruction. It has a vast chemical laboratory, wholly unprovided with the apparatus which alone could give it any value. In fact, those actually engaged in mining pursuits belong for the most part to the native tribes, and are totally ignorant of mining as a science, as well as of every other worthy object of human knowledge. They move about from place to place, with their families, and are invariably paid for their labor by a share in the proceeds. There have been mines of iron and tin, but they are now wholly neglected, and those of silver are of the greatest importance. They still produce more in amount than all the silver-mines of Europe.

Manufactures in Mexico are in a low state, like every other branch of industry. It was the policy of Spain to make her colonies, as far as possible, dependent on herself for all supplies of manufactured articles, while she proceeded to drain off the natural resources of the country. With this view, the raising of silkworms, and the cultivation of flax, and the vine and olive, were strictly prohibited; and yet, since the revolution, there has been still less done in the manufacture of woven fabrics than before. Coarse woollen and cotton goods were produced in former times, but scarcely any are made now.

"One might have supposed," says M. Chevalier, "that when the ports were thrown open to the commerce of Europe, manufactories would soon have been established in a country where manual labor is cheap, where the workmen are submissive and skilful at imitation, where the soil produces the raw cotton, where the Spaniards had multiplied their flocks of sheep to a great extent, and where the rearing of the silkworm might be carried on with astonishing facility. The native Mexicans are, however, destitute of all spirit of enterprise, and strangers seldom attempt any permanent establishment. A more than ordinary display of industry would excite the jealousy of the natives; for nothing exasperates a Mexican more than to see Europeans and North Americans growing rich before his face."

The articles actually produced by the Mexicans are those of common use, and are of a very indifferent quality. Leather, hats, glass, and earthen ware, and some utensils of iron and copper, are the principal objects of manufacture. Cigars are made to a large extent, and coarse paper is produced. All tools and machinery in use are old and clumsy, and the people obstinately refuse to adopt the inventions of more enterprising nations.

For commerce, Mexico has an admirable situation, but aside from the fact that energy as well as capital has to be supplied by foreign merchants, the country suffers from several

disadvantages. For a considerable portion of the year her coasts are inaccessible, on account of the violent storms which prevail, there are very few good harbors when the coast is reached, and on shore it is exceedingly unhealthy along nearly the entire seaboard. Moreover, the ascent from the coasts to the elevated lands of the interior is so abrupt that the construction of roads is difficult, and all transportation is expensive.

Under the Spanish *régime* a rigorous prohibition system was kept up, and all European imports were brought from Cadiz by vessels chartered by the Government. In 1788, however, this system was relaxed, and private capitalists were allowed to take part in the commerce of the country. At this time the annual exports amounted to about \$19,000,000. After the revolution the ports were opened to the traffic of the world, and the Spanish merchants for the most part retired to Cuba or their native country, before the enterprise of British and American capitalists. The two leading ports at the present time are Vera Cruz and Tampico. The imports at Vera Cruz in 1860 amounted in value to £2,639,680; the exports for the same year were £1,376,720. The value of imports at the port of Tampico in 1863 was £559,692; the exports were valued at £888,829. The ports which are of less importance are Matamoros, Coatzacoalecos, and Tabasco, on the Gulf of Mexico; and Guayamas, Mazatlan, San Blas, Manzanillo, Acapulco, and La Paz, on the Pacific. The annual imports at the present time are probably about \$25,000,000 in value, and the exports not far from the same amount.

Education under the old Spanish administration was placed entirely in the hands of the clergy of the Catholic Church, and no other means of instruction has been furnished by the Government since. The old Government made some efforts to encourage the study of botany, chemistry, and mineralogy; but the unsettled state of the country since, together with the unenterprising character of the people, has prevented any considerable progress in science or the arts. There was once a school of fine arts in the country, but no trace of it is to be found at the present time. There is an institution called a Museum, but it contains little of interest, except the portraits of the Spanish viceroys from the days of Cortez, and a few Aztec manuscripts. There are no seminaries of superior education, and nothing deserving the name of a school of law or medicine. Education is on the whole more poorly provided for thus far under the republic than it was under the selfish policy of Spain. This is owing in a great measure to the constant unsettled state of the country, the Government having in fact hardly as yet passed its infancy.

The original settlers introduced the Catholic religion, which has ever since been the ordinary form of worship of the people. It has no very strong hold on the sentiments of the white

population, and the most submissive votaries of the Church are the converted Indians. There is an archbishop at the capital, and nine bishops in different parts of the country. There are 10 cathedrals, 156 convents, and one collegiate church. The annual income of the ecclesiastics is valued at about \$12,000,000.

The past year has been a period of continued insurrections in Mexico; and, where the civil government has remained uninterrupted, the laws have been enforced with little effect for the protection of life and property. The outbreak which occurred in Yucatan at the close of the year 1867 was speedily suppressed by the vigorous measures of the Government under the congressional plan mentioned in the last volume of this CYCLOPÆDIA. Porfirio Diaz remained in Vera Cruz to reorganize the local government and to prevent any uprising in that vicinity, and General Altorré was sent at the head of the expedition to Yucatan to crush the rebellion. General Escobedo, on first hearing of the outbreak of hostilities, threw 1,000 men into Tampico, and the neighboring States of Campeche and Tabasco furnished a considerable force of militia to aid the Government troops. A decisive battle was fought on the 2d of February at Merida, between the Federal forces under Altorré and the revolutionists, under their leader Vilefana. The rebels were utterly routed, Vilefana was killed, and a large number of prisoners taken. This engagement put an end to revolutionary movements in Yucatan.

A plot to assassinate President Juarez, in the Iturbide Theatre, was discovered and frustrated in the early part of the year by the interception of a letter passing from the conspirators to one of the officers of a body of soldiers which was in their service. The plot was conducted by Colonel Adalid, who had been an imperialist officer under Maximilian, and the object was to seize the citadel, secure the persons of the leading upholders of Juarez's government, and proclaim Carlotta Empress of Mexico.

Revolutionary movements and lawless disturbances continued in various parts of the country, but the most formidable outbreak of the year was perhaps that in Sinaloa in the months of February and March. An election for Governor occurred in that State in the month of December, which was attended with some disorder and much alleged fraudulent voting. Each party claimed that its own candidate would have been duly elected if a fair vote had been taken, but the election as conducted resulted in the choice of Domingo Rubi, of the Juarez or constitutional party. Much dissatisfaction was expressed, and General Angel Martinez, who held the military command at Mazatlan, declared the election of Rubi void and proclaimed himself Provisional Governor of Sinaloa, while, on the other hand, the Legislature of the State pronounced in favor of the validity of Rubi's election. This at once caused

a disturbance, and the Federal Government was called upon to uphold the regularly constituted authorities against the military pretensions of General Martinez. General Corona was sent from the capital to examine into the state of affairs in Sinaloa, and made a report very adverse to the claims of the revolutionary leaders, in which he charged Martinez, General Jesus Toledo, Lawyer Paz, Colonels Granados and Palacio, the principal officers of the rebellious forces, with evil designs against the tranquillity of the Republic, and accused them of using the public funds to aid in carrying on the civil disturbances which their ambition and recklessness had set on foot. On the 29th of January Martinez sent a communication to the President of the Republic, protesting against the course of Corona, and defending his own conduct in interfering with the result of the election in favor of what he declared to be the wishes of the people.

A reply was issued from the office of the Mexican Secretary of State in the form of official instructions to Martinez as an officer of the Republic, severely rebuking his assumption of authority in the name of the people "against the authorities which the people themselves have just established." The "instructions" continue in the following terms:

The legislative powers of the State have had to suspend the exercise of their functions before the violence of arms, and the constitutional Governor has asked the protection of the General Government, whose duty it is to give it. The Government feels very sensibly, as must all good citizens, the necessity of seeing this repetition of military *pronunciamientos* condemned energetically by the national will. You, being a chief of a force of the Government of the Union, ought to have observed the most strict impartiality during the election of the State, and, once verified, to give all the aid which might be necessary to the elected authorities. In place of this, you have lent your active coöperation for the purpose of obstructing the laws and subverting the authorities; you, believing it useful, for that object, to appear as separated from the command of the force, have said that you left it, without having previous authority from the Government, thus also violating your military obligations. For the same the President of the Republic has seen fit, in reply, to inform you that by no means can he recognize you in the character which you have assumed to take as Governor and Military Commander of Sinaloa, but that, on the contrary, he can but give you notice that at once you deliver up the command of the forces to the military commander of the port of Mazatlan, named by the Minister of War, and order that you no longer exercise any political authority, in order that the constitutional Governor may resume the exercise of his functions.

In case you are disposed to obey these instructions, the President also orders that you present yourself to the Government in this city, and that the other chiefs in rebellion may come with you; besides, that no obstacles be placed in their march, according as will be communicated by the Secretary of War. In such case the Government would allow every consideration which may be possible to you and your chiefs, in view of the fact that you submit to its orders, and in consideration of the services which you have already rendered.

At the same time the Government has determined that, through the Minister of War, respective orders be delivered to the end that the necessary forces

march without delay to Sinaloa to resist you and the other chiefs in rebellion, that peace be established by giving the necessary aid to the constituted authorities of the State.

Independence and liberty!

Instead of obeying this mandate from the central Government, Martinez published a long reply, in which he reviewed the events which followed the election of December, and entered into an elaborate defence of his own conduct, closing with a request for the withdrawal of the orders of February 11th, coupled with a pretty clear intimation that he had no intention of obeying them. Vehement *pronunciamientos* were published by the other revolutionary leaders in Sinaloa, intended to rouse up the people to a determined resistance, and the military forces stationed in the State were mostly combined against Governor Rubi, who with a small force waited in the mountain fastnesses of Copalá for the relief promised by the Federal authorities. Martinez attempted to induce Lozada, a rebellious Indian general in the State of Jalisco, to prohibit the Government troops from passing through that region on their way to Sinaloa. This request was not complied with, and vigorous efforts were made to suppress the revolution. Collisions occasionally took place between bodies of revolutionists and the forces of Rubi, but the decisive battle was fought on the 8th of April, when the army of the Republic, under the command of General Corona, met the collected force of the leaders of the insurrection, on the Presidio, and utterly defeated them. The State and national forces engaged numbered about 1,500 men, while the revolutionists had an army of 3,000, but the leaders of the rebellion were not thoroughly united in action, and many of the soldiers had no heart for the service in which they were enlisted. After a fierce struggle, the revolutionary army was cut in pieces and its leaders fled. Rubi was immediately installed in the office of Governor, and Martinez took to the mountains at the head of 150 men, and declared his intention to carry on a guerilla warfare against the State of Sinaloa. This revolution was supported throughout by forced loans and a rigorous conscription of unwilling citizens, and was characterized by a disregard, on the part of the leaders in Sinaloa, of the real wishes and interests of the people, and it became in the end absolutely unpopular. The spirit of the rebellion was not thoroughly crushed by the battle of the Presidio; the leaders frequently discharged fiery *pronunciamientos* from their retreats among the mountains, and endeavored to excite the people to a new uprising. The Government, on the other hand, dealt with the utmost severity with any sympathizers with rebellion who fell into its hands; and no opportunity was found during the year to renew any active operations against the authority of the State or nation in the neighborhood of Sinaloa.

The rebellion in Sinaloa sprang altogether

from local causes, and the principal actors in it were formerly earnest supporters of Juarez; but, after the disastrous failure of their attempts at revolution, they turned against the Government and joined with the numerous malcontents of other parts, in embarrassing the Federal authorities by constant hostile outbreaks, and annoying *pronunciamientos*, or appeals to the people to throw off all allegiance to the citizen-president, Don Benito Juarez. These discontented leaders, at the head of their wild bands of marauding soldiery, acted in no well-concerted plan and with no definite object. The principal grounds of complaint against the existing administration were the *convocatoria* of August, 1867, an alleged interference of the President in the elections which followed, and the assumption by Juarez of powers not delegated to him by the Constitution of 1857. If the opponents of the Government had been organized under one efficient head, they might have become truly formidable, but Ortega, who claimed to be the constitutional President by virtue of his office of Chief Justice when the term of Juarez expired, was confined in prison at Monterey, and no one appeared in the field of action with influence or prestige enough to gather up the elements of discontent and direct them with vigor against the obnoxious administration. A few visionaries still cherished the name of Santa Anna, and in more than one instance proclamations were issued in the hope that his name without his presence would serve to head a revolution. The strongest combination effected against Juarez was formed in May, under the leadership of Aureliano Rivera, in the immediate vicinity of the capital. Rivera was a man of good natural abilities, but totally uneducated, and with no training but that of a soldier, in which capacity he had won great distinction in the Liberal army during the late war. He published an address to the nation on the 5th of May, which was signed also by several other officers of distinction. As this document sets forth very fully the grievances of the malcontents, a very accurate translation of it is here given.

MEXICO, May 5, 1868.

To the Nation:

When, a few months since, the heroic Mexican people were struggling against the French invasion in order to assert their independence, and against the mad pretences of the criminal empire, to secure those republican principles proclaimed since the war of our first emancipation, in 1810; when, a few months since, blood was shed in torrents upon the altar of the country in order to reconquer in that manner those precious rights which an insolent foreigner had usurped, we believed in the triumph and had firm faith in the victory of the people.

But later we have seen with grief that it was necessary to continue the struggle against those domestic oppressors who made a show of repelling the European invaders in order to occupy their places. With grief we saw the Constitution and the laws appealed to, though wounded to the death, by those very persons who owed to them their title, their consideration, and their entire authority.

Don Benito Juarez, who through unutterable misfortune came to the exercise of power in a time of turbulence and revolt, who has governed nearly always with dictatorial powers, and who for a long series of years has held the supreme power in his hands, without counterpoise, without giving account of its exercise, and without other limitation than his will or his ambition—Don Benito Juarez was the best man for the purpose of depriving the worthy Mexican people of their rights and of those faculties which politicians call “inalienable” and “imperishable.” Juarez was the man for the purpose of destroying the Constitution, which has always been our hope and our salvation, and to sink us in a sea of evils and calamities infinite. Thus has it been in effect. Who does not know the history of events in Mexico within the past two years? Juarez usurped the authority which had terminated in his hands, and declared that he continued to be President. At times he styled himself “provisional,” at others “national,” and at others simply the depository of the powers of the republic. He was not able to determine his position, for in reality he was nothing, or, if any thing, he was a usurper.

Juarez abused power which he had not, and with which he invested himself, and continued in command of the people without the authority of the people, without legality, without election—the fountain of all legitimate power—making the Republic his patrimony and Mexicans slaves.

Juarez, already the enemy of the Constitution which he had destroyed, put in play whatever means his ambition suggested to him in order to continue in the presidential chair. With a disregard of the other constitutional powers and to the humiliation of the free men of this land, Juarez issued the election *convocatoria*—prophetic *convocatoria*!—when he had no right to issue it, when he was not constitutional President of Mexico, when he had oppressed and deprived of their liberty those to whom by the law this function pertained, and when his premeditated frauds, violences, and the full exercise of a tyrannical power to accomplish his reelection, and to weigh for fifteen years upon the patience of the Mexican people. Juarez intervened directly and criminally in the elections, and corrupted them to his own profit. He deprived the people of their suffrages and their choice, and has formed a Congress or a vicious character, in order that a majority would support and pardon his outrages against the national sovereignty.

Therefore many States find themselves to-day without Governors; more, through bargain, have those imposed by Don Benito. The people do not see in the seats of Congress men of their sympathies, but those whom he who usurped the political power commanded to be chosen. The Constitution is violated, justice feels itself aggrieved, and the sanctity of the rights of the people is outraged. We are not free Mexicans, for a dictator commands us; we do not constitute a republic, for the fundamental law does not exist, but the caprice of a man who has made himself a despot to our shame. Such grave considerations, whose truth is potent, and whose importance those least accustomed to consider them comprehend, compel us to take arms with a view of vindicating justice, and redeeming our rights. We covet nothing for ourselves; we do not wish to be presidents, nor ministers, nor deputies, nor governors. Sons of the people, having shed our blood for liberty, we only wish that the law may command and its decrees be obeyed; that there may come to the palace the Magistrate called by the Constitution, whoever he may be; that it may be one who will call on the people to confirm the choice; that in all the circuit of the Republic the elections may be free; that through his authority he will not mix himself with them; that he will not control them by violence; that he will not corrupt them, nor pervert them in his own favor; that the votes may be sacred, and

that public order shall result with the President which the people may give themselves, be he who he may.

We protest that if the choice of the people is the Señor Don Benito Juarez, that we will sincerely obey him; that we will support him as the man invested with the legal power, that we will sustain him as the first magistrate of the nation, and the arms which to-day we grasp to overthrow him, we will then employ to defend him.

The question in our minds is not one of persons, as has been, it is one of principle. And if we oppose Juarez it is because law, judgment, and right oppose him.

We are certain that our faith is the faith of the people. Our support is for all in all sections, and the brave ones who have shed their blood, in order to establish in this dear country the empire of law and of political morality, will array themselves, we do not doubt, upon our side and hasten to increase our files, making one last effort in favor of liberty and peace.

Viva the Constitution of 1857! *Viva* the sacred respect to the law! *Viva* the people who are the only sovereign!

Generals—E. Huerta, M. Negrete, J. N. Cortina, J. N. Mendez, B. Tellez, P. Vega, A. Martinez, V. Jimenez, I. Zepeda, S. Canales, F. Chavaria, S. Escandon, P. Noriega, G. de la Cadena, J. Toledo.

Colonels—Catarino Fragoso, Leon Ugalde, R. Flores, A. Santarre, M. Rivera, Juan Tognio, José Inclan, C. Sotomayor, R. Ros.

Lieutenant-Colonels—C. Arena, J. Leon.

Captain Miguel Romero.

And thousands of other signatures which will be published hereafter, as it is not proper that they should appear now.

Responds with his signature to those preceding,
AURELIANO RIVERA.

This was not, however, followed by effective action, and the Government found no necessity for organized operations against the insurgents. Among the revolutionists who put forward the name of Santa Anna as a watchword of rebellion, were those of Sierra Gorda, who published a *pronunciamiento*, laying down the following basis of operations as “solemnly determined upon”:

ARTICLE 1. We do not recognize the sanguinary government of Don Benito Juarez, nor the general or particular authority emanating from the last election, resulting from the *convocatoria* of the 14th of August of the past year.

ART. 2. The political Government shall be of that system which prevails in the nation and its chief, the well-deserving patriot his Excellency the General of Division, Don Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna.

ART. 3. Colonel Don José Velasquez is recognized as chief of the forces of the Sierra Gorda.

ART. 4. Copies of the present act shall be drawn up, to be forwarded wherever it is desirable.

Viva his Excellency Señor General Don Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna! *Viva* the people and the army!

In Queretaro the revolutionists first pronounced in favor of Marquez, and afterward proclaimed Santa Anna dictator for five years, and adopted the war-cry of “Religion and Force.” Organized insurrections broke out also in Matamoras and Puebla, and various other parts of the country, but the steady and vigorous policy of the Government, exercised through the agency of such famous generals as Escobedo, Diaz, Corona, and Altórré, frustrated the spasmodic efforts of the rebel

leaders, and, in the course of the summer, several of them were driven from the country, and others confined in the prisons of the Republic.

One prolific cause of dissatisfaction in Mexico is, the mode of electing members of Congress. The Constitution provides that "the election of deputies shall be indirect and by ballot, according to the regulations of the electoral law," that is to say, the people, or such of them as choose to exercise their right of suffrage in this indirect manner, cast their votes for certain electors, and these choose such deputies to represent the people in Congress as they see fit. This affords great facilities to the administration to influence the choice of members, besides taking away a large share of the interest which the people would feel in the elections if they had a direct voice in declaring who should represent them in the national Legislature. The first Congress, elected under the Constitution of 1857, was that which assembled in December, 1867, after the disorderly elections which followed the close of the war. The session continued until the 1st of June, but during that time little was done in the way of general legislation. In the language of the Speaker in reply to the address of Juarez at the close of the session: "This national body has met, after having endured the calamities of war with a foreign enemy, and where the intervention of the so-called empire left, everywhere, as odious vestiges, blood, ruin, and disorganization. The labors of Congress, in such a state of things, have been necessarily directed to the reconstruction, tranquillization, and reorganization of society, which has been deeply disturbed, and which has refused no sacrifice to preserve its integrity." A large share of attention was, in fact, given to the disturbances going on throughout the country. One of the most significant measures of Congress was the express retention in force of the law of January 25, 1862, with some modifications. The original law gave the President complete power over the lives and liberties of citizens guilty of political offences, but it is now so modified that the President cannot inflict the punishment of death. A measure was adopted securing the freedom of the press, and causing that institution to be, in the language of the Speaker, "the guardian of all rights and the custodian of all our liberties." Among the precautionary enactments, was one establishing military colonies on the frontiers. On the important financial questions claiming the attention of the Government and numerous measures for the benefit of commerce which are greatly needed, little or nothing was done. Two State Governors were impeached and removed from office during the session.

On the 5th of June, Señor Lerdo de Tejada took the oath of office as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court in place of Ortega, who had been for some time in prison in consequence

of his claims to the presidency; the Chief Justice being *ex officio* Vice-President, and Juarez's term of office having expired during the war with Maximilian. Lerdo de Tejada already held the position of Secretary of State and member of Congress, and could not retain his position in the Cabinet, and accept his new dignity without the sanction of a majority of the Bench of Justice. This sanction was refused, but the President insisted upon retaining Tejada in the Cabinet, and considerable party feeling was excited over the "Cabinet crisis," as it was called. Several ministers threatened to resign, but the matter was allowed to stand until the assembling of Congress in September, and Juarez then prevailed upon the judges to give their sanction to the double honors of Señor de Tejada. That gentleman accordingly retains the position of Secretary of State as well as Chief Justice, and Señor Romero, formerly minister to the United States, holds the important place of Secretary of the Treasury. The rest of the Cabinet is as follows: Iglesias, Secretary of Home Department; Mariscal, Secretary of Justice; Balcarcel, Secretary of Internal Improvements; and Mejia, Secretary of War and Navy.

Among the last acts of Señor Romero as minister to the United States, was the conclusion, with the American Secretary of State, of three conventions intended to contribute toward friendly relations between the two countries. The first of these, signed on the 4th of July, provides for a commission to settle the claims which the citizens of each Government may have on the other for injuries to person or property. Each country is to appoint a commissioner, and in case of disagreement the commissioners themselves are empowered to name an umpire to decide between them. All claims to be investigated and passed upon by these commissioners must be presented within eight months from the day of their first meeting. The second convention was signed at Washington, on the 10th of July, and has for its object the regulation of the citizenship of persons emigrating from one country to the other. Those citizens of the United States who have been, or may be, naturalized in Mexico, and who have resided there five years without interruption, are to be held as citizens of the Mexican Republic, while Mexican immigrants in this country under corresponding circumstances are to be regarded as American citizens by their former Government. The third convention establishes and regulates consular relations between the two countries.

Through the summer months a state of comparative quiet prevailed throughout Mexico. Señor Romero, writing to Washington under date of August 8th, says: "I am happy to inform you that the political situation here has improved very much during my absence. It is now more certain than it ever was before that public peace is permanently restored to this country and that there is but little danger

of any serious disturbance in the future. There is only one insignificant rebellion in the mountains of the State of Puebla, which will soon be subdued and which gives no cause for alarm. The financial situation is also satisfactory. President Juarez is well and has great confidence in the future."

About the first of August, General Jesus Gonzales Ortega was released from confinement by order of the executive authority of the General Government, and soon after published a proclamation, by which, in view of the general acquiescence of the people in the existing state of things, he resigns the "titles and constitutional powers with which the vote of the people" had invested him as "President of the Supreme Court of Justice, and President *ad interim* of the Republic." The following are his closing words with which he took leave of the stormy sphere in public life which he had held so many years:

I renounce these [titles and powers], and return them unhurt and without stain to those same people, as the power of the past and present events and the peace of the country demand it. There is no embarrassment in returning to the obscurity of private life accompanied by a calmness and tranquillity of my conscience after this boisterous and lengthy struggle, leaving no pretext for a civil war by submitting, as I have submitted, in the character of a citizen only, to the authorities and functionaries now in office, to the end that from the semblance of the existing order of things the patriotism of good Mexicans may be able to establish the peace, liberty, progress, and well-being of our toiling Republic. No unpatriotic caprice, no ignoble or groundless ambition has caused me to defend with the force of truth and reason and not by the power of arms the embarrassed cause on whose side I am found to-day. I have loyally defended that which my oath of office required me to. The fulfilment of my promises was made necessary to the national honor. Besides, I have always seen in the depth of my conscience that I have defended the best of causes; I have abdicated it when the entire nation so exacts by a multitude of events, which it has sanctioned. In abdicating it I have adopted the means which appear more in harmony with the public interest.

Honest, patriotic and disinterested have been my intentions; honest, patriotic and disinterested they are now. May the God of the universe know my sincerity that they may contribute to the happiness of the beloved soil which gave me birth. I should be ashamed if any ignoble passion were sheltered in my heart, if therein room be given for any vulgar sentiment against these men and their acts. And I should be still more ashamed when I know that the torrent of these latter almost always overthrows the first by means that are unknown and even involuntary. Mexicans! I swear to this my last official word, I will omit no sacrifice, not even to look for a foreign asylum or tomb, if it be necessary, in order that the vows may be realized which I have this day made in behalf of the peace of Mexico. No sacrifice will be evaded if from such sacrifice there may result to my country honor and prestige at home, honor and prestige before the illustrious nations of the globe, honor and prestige in the present and in history.

JESUS GONZALES ORTEGA.

SALTILLO, August 19, 1868.

Another officer, formerly connected with movements in opposition to the government of Juarez, was released from prison at about the same time with Ortega, and soon met with a fate which created a profound sensation

throughout the country. This was General J. M. Patoni, who, on the 2d of August, only one or two days after his release from prison, was called from his bed at a hotel in Durango, and shot by a platoon of soldiers, acting, as is alleged, under the orders of General Canto, an officer of the Republic and a member of the national Congress. This cold-blooded assassination, prompted as is supposed by revenge, created great excitement in Durango, and the Legislature of that State found it necessary to publish a proclamation, for the satisfaction of the citizens, "representing to the people, the nation, and the whole world, that none of the authorities of this State had the least participation in this nefarious crime, nor the opportune knowledge to have prevented it." It was also promised that when the criminals were discovered they should be "delivered up to the arm of justice, in order that upon them may be visited the full punishment of their crime." The public was not long in fixing suspicion upon General Canto, then in command in Durango, and a delegation from the Legislature of the State was sent up to the capital soon after the opening of Congress to prefer charges against him before that body, as the laws of the country grant inviolability of person and property to any member of Congress until his fellow-members shall have examined into the charges against him, and pronounced upon them. The matter was before Congress until the close of the year, and early in January, 1869, General Canto was surrendered to the criminal court of Durango for trial and punishment, and a pension of \$2,000 a year was settled on the widow of Patoni.

The Mexican Congress assembled on the 16th of September for its regular session, as designated by the Constitution. In his address to the deputies, President Juarez used the following language with reference to recent revolutionary outbreaks:

At the end of the last session of Congress there was pending the campaign of the Sierra de Puebla, for the suppression of those who had there rebelled against the State authorities. For some time the Executive had employed to no purpose measures of temperance, but finally, in compliance with his constitutional obligations, he aided actively the authorities of that State. This rebellion was quickly suppressed by the same happy means which were employed in combating those who before rebelled against the local authorities in other States. There have been but few disturbances and but little to apprehend after a civil and foreign war which has so profoundly and for so long a time disturbed the nation. There now remains only a band, not very numerous, which has rebelled against the local government in Tamaulipas, and which cannot possibly result in any danger to that State, where peace will be secured by ample forces of the federation. All the States enjoy the fruits of constitutional rule. The difficulties which took place in Guerrero having been pacified, the people have been called together that they may exercise full liberty in the State elections. Tepic is yet kept as a military district in consequence of special circumstances, but it is to be hoped that very soon Congress will take up the matter and decide what it considers most proper. If the valor and loyalty of the military forces of the Union deserve just praise for having put

down these late rebellions, fighting like true republican soldiers, it is also proper to observe that they have been efficaciously approved by the good spirit of the people. We should congratulate ourselves much, wondering at the active and unanimous inspiration of all the people of the Republic for the maintenance of peace and the enjoying of benefits under the shelter of the Constitution and the laws.

The disturbance in Tamaulipas, referred to by the President, resulted from alleged irregularities in the election of the Governor of that State. Juan J. de la Garza was declared elected, but the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court insisted upon continuing to exercise the functions of Governor, on the ground that the election of Garza was void; and an organized opposition to the State government soon formed under the lead of General Maria Cuesta, and Colonel Brancio Vargas. These disorders were not entirely suppressed at the end of the year, but, it appeared to be only a question of bringing a force to bear from the capital, to restore order in Tamaulipas. An insurrectionary movement broke out also in Vera Cruz in the course of the autumn, but was speedily suppressed by the State authorities. In the kingdom of Tepic, which forms a part of the State of Jalisco, the Indian military chieftain Lozada has for some time held almost supreme sway, in defiance of any authority of the Government of Mexico. Toward the end of the year intelligence was brought to the capital that Lozada was plotting a revolution and inviting various leaders of insurrection to join him in overthrowing the authority of Juarez. Measures were immediately set on foot to suppress this incipient rebellion, and to assert the authority of the Republic in the kingdom of Tepic. These were the principal civil disorders which disturbed the peace of Mexico during the latter part of the year, but local discontents are still very common, and not unfrequently break forth into hostile opposition to the legally-constituted authorities. Santa Anna is still afflicted with a mania for revolution in Mexico, and another of his numerous "plans" was published by his agents in September. He has not himself been in the country during this year.

Although considerable progress has been made toward asserting and maintaining the authority of the Republic and its present administration in all parts of the country, and keeping down the restless spirit of rebellion, there exists an urgent necessity for a vigorous enforcement of civil laws for the repression and punishment of crime. Robbery, kidnapping, murder, and outrageous assassinations are of alarming frequency, and in many districts seem to go utterly unpunished. Tepic is popularly known as the hell of Mexico, on account of the total disregard for all laws, human or divine, which prevails there.

The financial condition of the country is more promising than heretofore, and the last session of Congress devoted much of its attention to plans for the amelioration of the national credit, and measures intended to promote

the development of the resources of the country. Many plans for the construction of railroads have been brought forward for the favor of the Administration, but only the English Mexico and Vera Cruz Railroad Company has so far attained its object as to be able to continue its work with safety. At the beginning of the year 1869 about 1,000 men were at work on the Puebla branch, and it is confidently expected that at an early day the capital of the Republic will be connected with its principal seaport by a railroad built on the thorough plan usually adopted by English capitalists. Something more than one hundred miles of this road has been in operation for a year, but the assistance of the Government was found necessary to its completion. Concessions were also granted to Mr. La Lire, who represented certain New York capitalists, for the construction of a railroad across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Several other schemes have been brought to the attention of the Government, most of which are set on foot by foreign corporations.

This session of Congress, which assembled on the 16th of September, continued until the 25th of January, 1869. Two of the treaties signed by Minister Romero and Secretary Seward, in July, were ratified, but that which related to the regulation of the consulates of the two countries met with strong opposition, and failed of ratification. Besides the encouragement shown to railroad enterprises, an appropriation was made to test the feasibility of navigating the lakes in the valley of Mexico. A law passed on the 13th of November, providing for a new census, which is very much needed.

General Rosecrans, minister from the United States, arrived in Mexico about the 1st of December, and was very cordially received.

MICHIGAN. The receipts of the treasury from all sources, during the year, amounted to \$2,222,627.47. Amount in the treasury at the close of the previous year, \$582,113.96. Expenditures during the year, \$1,674,511.76, leaving balance in the treasurer's hands of \$1,130,229.67, from which are to be deducted various items of indebtedness due on demand, amounting to \$485,296.68. The total funded and fundable debt, at the close of the fiscal year, was \$3,614,078.49, which is \$287,164.21 less than at the beginning. The following is a statement of the bonded indebtedness of the State at the end of each year since 1859:

1860....	\$2,388,842 79		
1861....	2,836,264 24	Increase for the year,	\$447,421 45
1862....	2,931,038 55	" "	144,774 31
1863....	2,993,299 80	" "	12,261 25
1864....	3,541,149 80	" "	547,850 00
1865....	3,880,399 80	" "	339,250 00
1866....	3,979,921 25	" "	99,521 45
1867....	3,901,242 70	Decrease for the year,	78,678 55
1868....	3,614,078 49	" "	287,164 21

The Auditor-General estimates that the debt of the State can and ought to be reduced, within the next fiscal year, \$900,000 to \$1,000,000, from means already at hand or

safely anticipated. The receipts of specific taxes for the year were:

From railroad and railway companies.....	\$173,681 30
" State bank.....	900 00
" National banks.....	34,381 47
" Telegraph companies.....	126 13
" Express companies.....	1,938 11
" Insurance companies.....	67,267 56
" Mining companies.....	5,253 88

Total.....\$283,547 44

From this should be deducted portion of mining tax to be refunded to counties in the Upper Peninsula.....	2,595 37
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Leaving revenue from this source for the year, \$280,952 07 which is an increase of \$30,526.65 over that for 1867. Some of the national banks refused to pay the tax assessed upon them, and, proceedings being taken for its enforcement, the Supreme Court declared the statute for their taxation not to be in accord with the act of Congress permitting it, and therefore void.

From direct taxation the receipts were \$865,084.43. The following is a statement of the direct taxes levied and collected by the State for eighteen years. The collections included interest and office charges:

YEAR.	Amount of State Tax apportioned to Counties.	Amount received into the State Treasury.
1850.....	\$113,769 56	\$137,379 96
1851.....	106,000 00	128,897 24
1852.....	110,000 00	174,159 61
1853.....	10,000 00	63,523 96
1854.....	30,000 00	38,047 15
1855.....	40,000 00	54,716 46
1856.....	65,000 00	55,385 04
1857.....	85,065 20	113,487 86
1858.....	85,065 20	135,106 81
1859.....	202,663 00	208,019 04
1860.....	154,663 00	166,823 91
1861.....	494,166 50	460,619 60
1862.....	483,173 48	473,813 80
1863.....	440,000 79	425,899 22
1864.....	470,000 79	517,121 59
1865.....	642,467 75	632,723 08
1866.....	581,922 97	590,619 89
1867.....	880,739 30	865,048 43
Total....	\$4,964,697 54	\$5,241,392 65

For 1869, including money already in the treasury, the Auditor-General estimates the receipts at \$2,378,674.99, and the expenditures at \$1,779,598.08.

The State received from the General Government a large domain in the grant of the land designated in the United States Surveys as swamp-lands, a large portion of which were valuable for agricultural purposes, even in their natural condition. The conveyance was made subject to a trust, which required the proceeds to be used for draining the lands. The system adopted by the State for this purpose is, to construct good wagon-roads, with ditches at the sides, in such a manner as to accomplish the double purpose of draining the land—if necessary—and opening it up to settlement by means of roads. The commissioner of State roads, in his report at the end of the year, states that not less than 3,830,810 acres of the lands have already been appropriated to these roads, besides the necessary

expenses of surveys, commissioners' fees, etc., which will increase the amount, he thinks, to about 4,213,891 acres. Many very valuable roads, penetrating the unsettled portions of the State, have thus been constructed, and others are still under contract. The whole amount of the grant was 5,891,598 $\frac{34}{100}$ acres, of which, 453,999 acres have been reserved from entry, 1,721,346 $\frac{20}{100}$ acres have been patented to individuals, and 3,716,252 $\frac{70}{100}$ acres are vacant, subject to entry. To a considerable portion of this the contractors for the construction of State roads are entitled under their contracts.

State lands were sold, during the year, to the amount of 38,580 $\frac{86}{100}$ acres, for the aggregate sum of \$133,957.12. Of the whole, 28,848 $\frac{28}{100}$ acres, producing \$115,393.12, were primary-school lands.

The Republican State Convention, to choose delegates to the National Convention, was held at Detroit, March 18th, and adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the right in the people to participate in the Legislature is the best security of liberty, and the foundation of all free government. For this purpose elections ought to be free and frequent, and every man, having property in, a common interest with, and an attachment to the community, ought to have the right of suffrage; that no man or set of men are entitled to exclusive or separate emoluments or privileges, except in consideration of public services.

Resolved, That the Republicans of Michigan owe it to themselves, to the memory of the framers of the Declaration of Independence, to the interests of free government everywhere, to secure by a triumphant majority the ratification of the proposed constitution, with its broad platform of equal and exact justice to all men, impartial suffrage, and equality before the law.

Resolved, That this constitution, in the opinion of this convention, is far better adapted to develop the resources of Michigan, and advance the real interests of the people, than our present constitution, and, independent of the great principles of liberty involved in the question of its adoption, it ought to receive the zealous effort of all our citizens.

Resolved, That the policy of granting the public lands to private corporations, or to individuals, for the mere purposes of speculation, is baneful in its effects to the interests of the country, and ought to be discontinued, and the lands should be disposed of on no other condition than for actual settlement or immediate use.

Resolved, That since Andrew Johnson, as appears by his own most solemn declaration, found the ten rebel States without civil government, their governments having been destroyed by the rebellion, and since the Constitution makes it the duty of the United States to guarantee to each State in this Union a republican form of government, and by necessary implication limiting the power of the United States alone, and since the United States can act only through the Government of the United States, and since the Government can only act by its laws duly enacted, by the Legislature, expounded by its judiciary, and enforced by its executive, it follows irresistibly that his boasted policy is nothing less than a wicked usurpation of all the powers of the Government, in utter contempt of the Constitution and laws of the land.

Resolved, That by boldly announcing this shameful usurpation as his "policy," by wickedly prostituting his office and its immense patronage, to force it upon the country; persistently doing this for nearly three

years, and all the time in the interest of treason and rebellion against loyalty and patriotism; for the promotion of riot, bloodshed, and murder against law and order, and the protection of the innocent, the weak, the helpless; in favor of despotism against liberty; by this persistent usurpation and wickedness he has proved himself one of the greatest criminals of the age; and, with devout thankfulness that his time for further mischief is so short, in any event less than one year, we consign him to the deliberate judgment of impartial history, to the indignation of outraged humanity, and to the righteous retribution of that God who is the Author of all rightful civil government.

Resolved, That we approve the action of the House of Representatives in its recent exercise of its high constitutional prerogative, by the arraignment of Andrew Johnson for high crimes and misdemeanors in office, and believing it to be the constitutional function of the Senate, sitting as a high court of impeachment, to finally determine every question of law and fact arising in the course of the prosecution, we invoke from all parties a peaceable and law-abiding submission to its judgment in the case.

Resolved, That we do not and cannot forget the services rendered by our soldiers in the late war for the Union, and we will ever bear in mind their heroic devotion and wonderful powers, as exhibited on many a well-fought battle-field.

Resolved, That the reconstruction of the Union on the basis of the equality of all men before the law, the complete extirpation of slavery, and of the ideas which gave it birth, the speedy restoration of permanent peace and prosperity, and the preservation of the public credit and the national faith, are all dependent upon the triumph of the national Republican party at the coming presidential election.

Resolved, That we add our voice to the loud acclaim in favor of General Ulysses S. Grant as Republican candidate for President, and, while recognizing the ability and public services of others whose names have been presented to the country, we hereby declare our preference for Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, as Vice-President of the United States.

On the first Monday in April the electors of the State voted upon the question of adopting the revised constitution which had been prepared for submission to the people by the convention held the preceding summer. The whole number of votes returned to the State canvassers—the counties of Manitou and Marquette not reporting—was as follows:

For the revised constitution.....	71,733
Against the same.....	110,582
Majority against.....	38,849

At the same time the question whether the Legislature should meet annually, or hold biennial sessions only, as now, was voted upon with the following result:

For annual sessions.....	24,482
For biennial sessions.....	100,314
Majority against annual sessions.....	75,832

The people also at the same election voted upon the question of incorporating in the new constitution, if adopted, a clause similar to the one in the existing constitution, prohibiting the Legislature from passing any law authorizing the grant of licenses to sell intoxicating drinks. The following was the vote:

For the prohibitory article.....	72,462
Against the same.....	86,143
Majority against.....	13,681

So no change was effected in the constitution by this election.

The Democratic State Convention, to elect delegates to the National Convention, met at Detroit, May 29th, and adopted the following platform:

The Democracy of Michigan, in justice to themselves, and with respect for their Democratic brethren of the nation, make the following statement of their views of the political situation, and the issues arising in the approaching presidential campaign:

Resolved, That the best political administration is that which most fully harmonizes with the fundamental principles of our government; which are:

1. That all power emanates from the people, and must be used by a majority for the benefit of the people.

2. That the powers which the people, by written constitutions, have intrusted to the Federal Government and its several departments, must be strictly construed and sacredly preserved.

Resolved, That the trust, now as ever, reposed by the Democracy in the intelligence, patriotism, and justice of the people, who are the source of power, and its faithful observance of the limitations of the Constitution, which is the limitation of power, prove its political harmony with the fundamental ideas of our institutions, and explain its successful administration of the Government during two-thirds of our national existence.

Resolved, That, on the contrary, our political antagonists, who under many names—first as Federalists, and then as Republicans—have, with occasional success, contended with us for power, have never adapted their policy, when in power, to the primary ideas of our government, and, consequently, as often as tried have failed to administer the government according to its chartered powers, and to retain the confidence of a distrustful people.

Resolved, That the difference between American Democracy and Federalism is radical, and as eternal as the laws of mind; and as long as men segregate, by affinity, into political organization, so long the Democratic policy will, and the Federal Republican policy will not, harmonize with our form of government; and the adherents of the latter can never establish such harmony until they change their natures, or the forms of our government. The first is impossible—the last is revolution.

Resolved, That revolution, therefore, is the logical tendency and (if not arrested) the necessary result of Republicanism, to which its leaders consciously, and the people unconsciously, are now rapidly advancing.

In proof of this, we have the notorious facts that its leaders do not profess to administer the government as it is, but as they think it ought to be; that they find their authority, not in the written right given by the people, but in abstract right or "higher law," and justify their action to the people, whose trust they have betrayed, by insulting professions of a desire "to promote the general welfare."

The following facts from its history also prove its consistent disregard of the people and their organic law, and its steady tendency toward consolidated power. In former times it passed alien and sedition laws, established and defended bank monopolies, put in form high and oppressive tariffs, and organized to deprive the foreigner of all political rights. While, during our recent fearful struggle to preserve the Union, it took from loyal citizens, guilty of no crime, life, liberty, and property, without due process of law; it muzzled the press; it suppressed and punished free speech; it squandered our money to pamper and corrupt its favorites; it placed heavy and unequal burdens on the poor; it exempted the rich from military service, and the bondholder from taxes; it paid government indebtedness to the rich with gold,

but the maimed soldier, his widow and orphan, with a depreciated currency. And, when the war was over and our cause gained, it declared that with victory our cause was lost; and virtually proclaimed to a victorious army and navy, that they had destroyed the Union in whose name and cause they had triumphed; instead of punishing rebels according to law, it punished sovereign States for political opposition, and erected five military dictatorships over ten States of the Union; it established military law in time of peace; it removed civil officers legally elected by the people, and substituted its plant tools in their stead; it declared white men disloyal until the contrary was proved, and declared all black men loyal without proof; it used Federal power to control suffrage in the States; it established a Freedmen's Bureau to feed and clothe the blacks as pensioners on the national bounty, while poor white men, their wives, and their children, were suffered to starve without sympathy or succor. Of these latter unconstitutional, revolutionary, and outrageous acts it has been guilty since the declaration of peace, and all for the reason that it dare not trust the verdict of the people of the North upon its policy and acts, and aims now with negro votes to rule the white North. Nor is this all. It has driven Senators and Representatives, legally elected by the people, from the halls of Congress, because of political opinions; it has retained political friends, in both Houses, who are charged and admitted, by themselves, to be cruel, corrupt, and unworthy; it has sought to destroy the executive and judicial departments of the Government, that it might rule without check. In short, it has cheated the people, impoverished the country, oppressed the poor, pampered the rich, violated the great charter of our rights and liberties, and by all its acts proved that its purpose is to destroy the Union and the Government, and erect a military despotism on its ruins, thinking it "better," like Milton's Satan, "to rule in hell than to serve in heaven."

Resolved, That the Republican majority in Congress has already taken a bold and alarming stride toward military despotism in its reconstruction scheme, whereby the negro States, under the military supervision of its presidential candidate, will cast nearly one-fourth of the electoral vote; and whereby eighteen million Northern whites are practically controlled, in the Senate of the nation, by four million negroes, and forty thousand Federal bayonets.

Resolved, That, in this fearful crisis, the only hope of the country and of constitutional freedom is in the Democracy, the justice and wisdom of its principles, and in the integrity and intelligence of the people.

Resolved, That it is our firm and united purpose to restore the Union of the States; to keep the Federal Government and each of its departments within its proper sphere, and cause it to respect the reserved rights of the States, and of the people; to abolish all bank and tariff monopolies; to abolish Freedmen's Bureaus and standing armies in time of peace; to arrest the extravagance and corruption that are wasting our substance; and, by careful economy in the administration of affairs, to restore credit to the Government and value to its currency; to hold all men innocent until proved guilty; to punish crime according to law; to protect the foreign citizen in his rights both at home and abroad; to do equal and exact justice to all men, irrespective of color or race; and to keep this, as our fathers made it, a white man's Government, an asylum for the oppressed of all nations, and a dispenser of blessings to all who submit to its laws.

Resolved, That we propose to have all Government bonds bear taxation equally with all other property; that we will maintain the national faith inviolate, that all public debts shall be honorably paid; that the bonds of the Federal Government, issued after greenbacks were made a legal tender, shall be paid in the currency of the country, except where otherwise expressly provided by law or stipulated in the bond.

Resolved, That we deprecate any legislation which tends to take the public domain from the actual settler and donate it to speculating corporations.

Resolved, That the debt of gratitude due the soldier and sailor, who defended us in peril, "is the only debt the nation can never pay;" but we shall cherish the memory of the gallant dead, and guard with tender care the interests of his widow and orphan, shall remember the services and promote the welfare of the living, and give to all the honor that is ever due to brave and patriotic service.

The Republican and Democratic State Conventions, to nominate State tickets, adopted the platforms of the National Conventions respectively, and indorsed their nominations, and the latter also passed, among others relating to State affairs, the following resolution:

Resolved, That negro suffrage, sumptuary laws, interference in municipal government by commissions or other State agencies, test-oaths, religious or sectarian discriminations of every kind, are contrary to the true interests of our people, and will be opposed by the Democratic party.

The whole number of votes cast for presidential electors, at the general election in November, was 225,628.

For Grant and Colfax electors.....	128,560
For Seymour and Blair electors.....	97,068

Republican majority.....	31,492
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For Governor the vote stood:

Henry P. Baldwin, Republican.....	128,051
John Moore, Democrat.....	97,290
Scattering.....	705—97,995

Baldwin over all.....	30,056
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The Republicans elected the remainder or their State ticket at the same election, by majorities averaging about 30,700, as follows: Lieutenant-Governor, Morgan Bates; Secretary of State, Oliver L. Spalding; State Treasurer, Ebenezer O. Grosvenor; Auditor-General, William Humphrey; Attorney-General, Dwight May; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Oramel Hosford; Commissioner of the State Land-Office, Benjamin D. Pritchard; Member of the State Board of Education, Daniel E. Brown. The vote in the several congressional districts was as follows:

District 1.—Fernando C. Beaman, Republican.....	22,197
“Merrill J. Mills, Democrat.....	20,595
District 2.—William L. Stoughton, Republican.....	25,196
“Henry Chamberlain, Democrat.....	17,396
District 3.—Austin Blair, Republican.....	19,268
“Isaac M. Crane, Democrat.....	16,268
District 4.—Thomas W. Ferry, Republican.....	23,043
“Lyman G. Mason, Democrat.....	13,714
District 5.—Omar D. Conger, Republican.....	16,347
“Byron G. Stout, Democrat.....	14,623
District 6.—Randolph Strickland, Republican.....	20,115
“William Newton, Democrat.....	16,720

The Legislature, chosen at the same time, was divided between the two parties as follows:

	Senate.	House of Rep.	Total.
Republican.....	26	73	99
Democratic.....	6	27	33
Republican maj... ..	20	46	66

The number of convicts in the State Prison,

December 1st, was 622, being an increase of 40 during the year. Total receipts, from all sources, for the year, \$105,161.88, of which \$85,238.69 was from the earnings of convicts. Expenditures, in all, \$94,036.57. During the last two months covered by the report, the institution was more than self-sustaining, and the inspectors express the opinion that such will continue to be the case hereafter. But one person was pardoned out of the prison by the Governor, and upon the ground, in his case, that he was wrongfully convicted; the case being one of mistaken identity. The inspectors, in their annual report, express themselves very strongly in regard to the good effect of the Governor's course in refusing pardons. After quoting very decided opinions from the authorities of other prisons as to the bad effect upon discipline, and the general discontent that prevails among prisoners, so long as they suppose pardons to be possible, they say: "The effect of numerous pardons upon the discipline of the prison is also manifest in another way. The convicts have the impression that the authorities of the prison have more or less to do with every pardon; at least, that their assent or approval is necessary. Distrust and dissatisfaction are engendered in consequence. The physician of the Albany Penitentiary also reports that he is troubled greatly with persons who feign disease, in order to facilitate their application for pardon. Our own prison, by reason of freedom from the exciting cause, has ceased to exhibit the effects described. All our observation and experience tend to satisfy us of the correctness of these views; and that the health, contentment, and enjoyment of the prisoners themselves are immeasurably promoted by the conviction that it is useless to spend money, time, effort, or anxiety, in the endeavor to get pardoned out for light or insufficient reasons."

A large allowance is now made to prisoners in deduction from their sentences, for good behavior during confinement, and the agent recommends that a portion of their earnings—say from six to ten cents a day—be set apart for them, and paid to them at their discharge. He says: "Regard for their families, who may be in dependent circumstances, and pride of character, would, in one class of convicts, incite to good behavior, that they might take home, on their discharge, all they could be entitled to. Those that might have occasion to use their money in this way, would have the means to purchase tools, etc., or a small capital with which to commence business. Hence a great inducement would be offered for each convict to demean himself in an orderly manner, and he would also become interested in the good behavior of all the others; the necessity of compulsory labor and corporeal punishment would be very much lessened, and we should find that cheerfulness and alacrity would take the place of sullenness and discontent, and convicts would feel that they had received some

remuneration for their services, instead of all their hard earnings inuring to the benefit of the State."

Of the 256 convicts, received during the year, 176 were for burglary, larceny, and kindred offences; 2 for murder in the first degree; 4 for murder in the second degree; 3 for manslaughter; 3 for murderous assault; 11 for passing counterfeit money; 13 for forgery, or uttering forged instruments. Sixty-five were sent for one year, or less; 62 for over one year and not exceeding two; 40 for over two years and not exceeding three; 25 for over four years and not exceeding five; 16 for various terms between five and ten years; 12 for ten years, and 4 for life. Eleven deaths occurred among the convicts during the year, of which two were of life convicts, who had been in prison a number of years, and three of prisoners shot in an attempt to escape.

The receipts of the Detroit House of Correction were \$65,259.51, and the expenditures \$50,056.14, leaving a surplus of \$15,203.37. The convicts in this institution are put to labor within its walls, under proper direction, and this system has hitherto resulted in a steady profit to the institution, and has been more satisfactory than that adopted in the State Prison, where the labor of prisoners is let to contractors, and generally at a loss to the State. The number received, during the year, was 1,098, which is 11 more than that in 1867. The convictions were mostly for vagrancy and other minor offences. A regular school is held for the inmates, three evenings in each week, and a series of lectures, by able professional and scientific men, has been had for their attendance. The superintendent, in his annual report, urged that the Legislature be asked to render more efficient aid for reformatory purposes, for the imprisonment in this institution of prostitutes, vagrants, confirmed pilferers, and those whose passions and appetites are beyond their control; who, by indulgence, become dangerous members of society, and are convicted of misdemeanors before any proper tribunal. Experience has shown, that to sentence such prisoners to imprisonment for definite periods, frequently subverts the purpose in view, and is almost always a hinderance; for, the effect of too long a sentence is depressing, and of too brief, unimproving; so that, in either case, that merited process essential to reformation is prevented or destroyed. Human wisdom is insufficient to adjust the sentence at the time of imposing it, as now done, so as to avoid this consequence, and he is satisfied it can only be done by the aid of that observation of the character and conduct to be had subsequent to the commitment of the prisoner. There cannot be an increase of liability to erroneous and unjust sentences, by leaving the duration of imprisonment to be determined by competent authority, after suitable opportunity for observing the prisoner; but it must be lessened by such a course. To commit these prisoners to the

House of Correction until they are reformed, as is proposed, will be a strong inducement for them to enter more directly upon the work of self-improvement, and thus a shorter period of imprisonment will be required to fit them again for society than if sentenced for a definite term. The influence of the proposed change will be most salutary as a restraining force in community, and will put punishment before the people in its proper light, namely, as a healing or curative measure. One of the formidable obstacles to the reformation of persons received into this prison is, their mistaken idea that imprisonment is inflicted to satisfy justice, or to pay them off, in privation or suffering, for some real or fancied wrong to somebody or something which they have committed; failing to see, as they generally do, that the spirit of the law that punishes, and of the pardon that forgives, is essentially the same, being only different instruments for restoring to society sound members. And the superintendent would have the law so changed that sentences to the House of Correction should be limited until discharge by the circuit or other judge, on recommendation by the superintendent or inspectors, upon the ground of improved character.

The State Reform School is situated at Lansing, and receives juvenile offenders under seventeen years of age. Number of inmates at the beginning of the year, 257. Admitted during the year, 99; discharged, 109; number remaining, 247, which is a decrease of 33 in two years. Of those admitted 13 were ten years of age, 9 were eleven, 10 were twelve, 17 were thirteen, 16 were fourteen, 19 were fifteen, and 15 were sixteen; 33 were children of American parents, and 66, including 9 colored, were children of persons foreign born. The offences for which they were received were as follows: vagrancy, 1; assault and battery, 2; burglary and larceny, 2; grand larceny, 2; petit larceny, 86; returned, 7. The sentences are until they reach the age of twenty-one, with large liberty in the Board of Control to discharge for good behavior. The pupils are, for the most part, employed in making chairs.

The trustees of the Asylum for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, at Flint, report their receipts for the years 1867 and 1868 at \$124,572.13, which has been expended as follows: previous indebtedness, \$8,174.08; construction account, \$51,954.20; general expense account, \$59,038.58; unclassified expenditures, \$5,405.27—total, \$124,572.13. The number of inmates at different times has been as follows: June, 1865, 94; June, 1866, 109; June, 1867, 116; June, 1868, 119; at the end of the year, 140. Whole number in attendance since the last report, 181, of whom 36 were blind, and 145 deaf and dumb. Egbert L. Bangs is principal of the asylum, and Mrs. Zelinda K. De Mott, matron. In addition to the usual instruction by means of the sign-language, articulation and lip-reading are taught to those who appear to be fit subjects,

and with very gratifying results. Children are not received until they are ten years of age, and the principal recommends their being kept at home with their parents until they are twelve. They are allowed to remain in the institution for seven years, and it is thought that the period of age from twelve to nineteen is more useful to the pupils receiving instruction than any earlier.

The maintenance expenses of the Asylum for the Insane at Kalamazoo, for 1867 and 1868, were \$114,913.52; the construction fund received, during the same period, \$153,839.37, not all of which is yet expended. The following shows the number of patients:

	Male.	Female.	Total.
Remaining Dec. 1, 1866..	78	94	172
Received to Nov. 30, 1868.	93	108	201
Whole number treated...	171	202	373
Discharged recovered....	30	28	58
" improved....	6	9	15
" unimproved..	20	20	40
Total discharged....	56	57	113
Remaining Nov. 30, 1868.	115	145	260

Additional accommodations for patients were prepared during this period, but they are all occupied. E. H. Van Duzen is medical superintendent. The following statistics, of the whole number of patients admitted since the asylum was opened, will be of interest:

AGE.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Under 10.....	..	2	2
From 10 to 20.....	26	28	54
" 20 " 30.....	120	149	269
" 30 " 40.....	84	112	196
" 40 " 50.....	68	79	147
" 50 " 60.....	43	35	78
" 60 " 70.....	27	13	40
70 and upward.....	2	4	6
Congenital and unknown	3	13	16
Total.....	373	435	808

Born in the United States, 563; Ireland, 68; Germany, 64; England, 39; Canada, 28; Scotland, 16; other foreign countries, 17; unascertained, 13. Of the whole number, 90 had received a collegiate education, and 529 a common-school education. Their civil condition was as follows:

	Male.	Female.	Total.
Married.....	169	232	401
Single.....	186	160	346
Widowers and widows...	11	47	58
Unascertained.....	1	2	3
	367	541	808

The wheat crop of the State was better than that for the preceding year, and more than an average crop. The receipts of wheat and flour at Detroit were sixty per cent. greater than for 1867. Spring crops were also unusually good, and the year was one of general prosperity to the farming community. To this statement,

however, some exceptions must be made. The low price of wool induced the killing off of many sheep, and it is not probable that the wool-clip of 1868 exceeded that of 1867. The crop of apples was also very poor, and that of peaches less than the preceding year. The shipments from St. Joseph, however, were larger. The following is a statement of the shipments of fruit from that port for the year: strawberries, bushels, 17,000; raspberries, do., 6,500; blackberries, do., 10,600; peaches, baskets and boxes, 508,082. St. Joseph is a small town of three thousand inhabitants or thereabout, with a poor harbor, but the land immediately about it sells at almost fabulous prices for the planting of orchards. The mean difference in the winter temperature of the western and eastern shores of Lake Michigan is from twelve to fifteen degrees in favor of the former.

The production of salt in the Saginaw valley for the year reached 555,690 barrels, against 474,721 for 1867. The capital invested in the business is \$2,217,000. Amount on hand at the end of the year, 59,284 barrels.

The following is the estimate of the *Saginaw Enterprise* of the quantity of lumber cut within the State in 1868:

	Feet.		Feet.
Saginaw town.	457,296,222	White River...	95,000,000
Bay Shore.....	98,887,413	Manistee.....	155,000,000
Genesee Co.....	82,110,000	Grand Traverse	30,000,000
Detroit.....	48,250,000	Père Marquette.	50,000,000
Port Huron.....	32,265,000	Other places	} 205,000,000
Tuscola Co.....	10,000,000	on Western	
Huron Co.....	40,000,000	Slope.....	
Gratiot Co.....	16,500,000	Other points	} 50,000,000
Marine City....	8,000,000	in the State.	
Lapeer Co.....	20,000,000		
Sanilac Co.....	12,500,000	Total.....	1,656,708,635
Muskegon.....	245,000,000		

This is a considerable increase on the production of any former year. The single mill of H. W. Sage & Co., at Winona, cut 32,291,907 feet.

The plaster-beds at Tawas Bay, on Saginaw Bay, are being rapidly developed. The shipments for the year amounted to more than 20,000 tons of crude gypsum, and toward the end of the year the shipment of calcined plaster, &c., also commenced, and reached 2,000 barrels. Above the first stratum of gypsum, which is 10 to 12 feet in thickness, there are 6 to 8 feet of earth. Beneath is a stratum of slate 2½ feet, then one of gypsum 5 feet, then a second of slate 2 feet, and then for 18 feet nothing but gypsum of very superior quality is reached. The beds are immediately upon the shore, and the prospect of a large and remunerative business in this mineral at this point is exceedingly promising. Of Grand Rapids plaster there were shipped from Grand Haven 41,720 tons of crude and 116,630 barrels of prepared, which is probably equal to the total production of the beds for the year.

The Grand River Valley Railroad, from Jackson in the direction of Grand Rapids, was put in operation for 61 miles at the eastern end, and upon the Kalamazoo, Allegan, and Grand Rapids road the cars were running to Allegan,

and the remainder of the line nearly finished. At the end of the year there were within the State 1,260 miles of railroad completed and in actual use.

The business of the Sault Ste. Marie Falls Canal showed a considerable falling off. The following is a comparative exhibit:

YEAR.	Tolls.	Steam Tonnage.	Sailing Tonnage.	Total.
1867.....	\$33,515	321,698	235,290	556,898
1868.....	25,977	218,043	214,420	432,463
Decrease..	\$7,538	103,655	20,780	124,435

The falling off was mainly due to the depression in the copper business, but somewhat also to a great fire at Marquette in June, which lessened the facilities for shipping iron. The mineral which passed down the canal was as follows: copper, tons, 12,222½; iron ore, tons, 191,939; pig iron, tons, 21,471. The following are some of the principal articles passing upward:

Pork, bbls.....	4,837	Coal, tons.....	25,814
Flour, bbls.....	27,572	Powder, tons.....	346
Beef, bbls.....	1,926	Sugar, lbs.....	1,027,376
Salt, bbls.....	4,624	Butter, lbs.....	469,927
Coarse grain, bush.	285,123	Lard, lbs.....	229,652
Merchandise, tons.	8,561	Tobacco, lbs.....	76,843
Ground feed, tons.	2,155	Malt, lbs.....	12,336

Iron mining at Marquette was prosperous, and would have been more so but for the fire in June. The following is a comparative exhibit for eleven years:

YEAR.	Tons Iron Ore.	Tons Pig-Iron.	Total Value.
1858.....	31,035	1,629	\$249,202
1859.....	65,679	7,258	575,529
1860.....	116,998	5,660	736,496
1861.....	45,430	7,970	419,401
1862.....	115,721	8,590	984,977
1863.....	185,259	9,813	1,416,935
1864.....	235,123	13,832	1,867,215
1865.....	195,256	12,283	1,590,430
1866.....	296,872	18,437	2,405,960
1867.....	469,320	30,911	3,475,720
1868.....	493,290	36,425	3,676,705

Two new furnaces are in process of erection, and the prospect of increased business in 1869 is regarded as exceedingly favorable.

Copper-mining was depressed throughout the year. Up to April, 1868, one hundred and four copper-mining companies, in the Lake Superior region, had made assessments upon shareholders to the amount in all of \$14,409,500, and paid no dividends. The showing of eight other companies was as follows:

NAME.	Assessments.	Dividends.
Central.....	\$100,000	\$240,000
Copper Falls.....	400,000	60,000
Franklin.....	320,000	220,000
Minnesota.....	416,000	1,760,000
National.....	110,000	280,000
Pewabic.....	185,000	380,000
Pittsburg and Boston.	110,000	2,280,000
Quincy.....	200,000	760,000
Total.....	\$1,841,000	\$5,980,000

The complete statistics of copper production for the year are not yet attainable. That for

the Ontonagon district for three years is as follows: 1866, 1,647 tons, 173 pounds; 1867, 1,509 tons, 1,110 pounds; 1868, 1,115 tons, 633 pounds. There was a similar falling off elsewhere.

The following are statistics of primary schools:

Average monthly wages paid male teachers..	\$47 78
" female "	\$21 98
Number of children between 5 and 20 years of age.....	354,704
Increase over last year.....	16,406
Number attending school.....	250,996
Increase over last year.....	7,855
Average time school was taught in districts. 6½ months	
Number of volumes in district libraries.....	87,287
Value of school buildings and lots.....	\$4,308,472
Increase for the year.....	\$941,905
Teachers employed—males.....	2,095
females.....	7,555
Total wages paid male teachers.....	\$386,125 61
female.....	\$655,843 97
Total moneys raised for school purposes.....	\$2,487,393 61
Increase over 1867.....	\$476,097 60
Paid for buildings and repairs, and debts on same.....	\$805,703 88
Total indebtedness of districts.....	\$643,991 49
Number of private or select schools.....	219
Pupils attending same.....	11,917

The school-moneys expended were derived from the following sources:

In district treasuries at beginning of year...	\$289,877 87
Received from State two-mill tax.....	309,219 38
" Primary School Fund.....	151,066 50
" rate-bills.....	110,886 26
" tuition of non-resident pupils.....	22,813 21
" district taxes to pay teachers' wages.....	444,913 00
" other district taxes.....	635,648 53
" dog tax.....	24,229 00
" all other sources.....	499,378 53

Total expenditures for the year \$2,487,560 32

The following are statistics of the university:

	Attendance.	Degrees conferred.
Academic Department.....	422	73
Department of Medicine.....	358	80
Department of Law.....	342	152

The honorary degree of LL. D. was also conferred on Professor James R. Boise, of Chicago University; Professor Herbert A. Newton, of Yale College; and Domingo F. Sarmiento, President of the Argentine Republic.

The Legislature of 1867 made the first State appropriation toward an endowment for the university, by providing for an annual State tax of one-twentieth of a mill on the valuation of property; but coupled with the condition that the regents should first appoint a professor of homœopathy in the Department of medicine. The regents, believing that two systems of medicine could not be harmoniously taught in the same institution at the same place, made the appointment, but under regulations which contemplated the establishment of a separate school at another place than Ann Arbor, at which the new professor should give his instruction. The State authorities, not regarding this as a compliance with the conditions of the appropriation, declined to pay over the moneys raised in 1867 and 1868, and the Supreme Court held that they were right in

so doing. The regents will appeal to the Legislature of 1869 to relieve them from the condition.

At the observatory of the Michigan University, the observer, James C. Watson, discovered six new asteroids in the months of July, August, September, and October, the largest number ever discovered in the same period by any observer.

MILITARY COMMISSIONS. We continue under this head notices of several cases in the courts, more for uniformity of reference with other volumes, than because they properly belong under such title. John H. Surratt, who was brought to this country after his arrest, was indicted by the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia, as an accessory to the murder of Mr. Lincoln. After a long and tedious trial, the jury failed to agree. Another indictment was then presented against him, charging him with treason and adhering to the enemy; to this his counsel pleaded the statute of limitations and the proclamation of July, 1868. To these pleas the Government demurred, but they were sustained by the court, and Surratt was on motion discharged from custody after a confinement of eighteen months.

The indictment against Jefferson Davis was before the United States Court held at Richmond, the Chief Justice and Judge Underwood presiding, on a motion by the counsel of the defendant based upon the argument that, as the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution prescribed a punishment to those who had engaged in rebellion, having held office before, and having taken an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, such punishment took the place of any that could be inflicted under an indictment. On this the court were divided, and the case was certified to the Supreme Court of the United States, and, pending its hearing, the proclamation of the President was issued and a *nolle prosequi* entered in the case.

The McArdle case came before the Supreme Court, and was argued, but, before its decision, Congress passed a law taking jurisdiction of the case away from the court.

MILMAN, Very Rev. HENRY HART, D. D., Dean of St. Paul's, an English clergyman, poet, dramatist, critic, and historian, born in London, February 10, 1791; died there, September 25, 1868. He was the youngest son of Sir Francis Milman, Baronet, the favorite court physician of George III., a wealthy and accomplished courtier. His early classical training was obtained in the school of Dr. Burney, one of the most eminent scholars of his time, whose academy at Greenwich produced many remarkable classical scholars. From Greenwich, he passed to Eton, where his Latin verses were remarkable, even among the illustrious Etonians of that time. From Eton he went to Brasenose College, Oxford, where he was a pupil of Elmsley, who, with Porson and Burney, were the three great scholars of that

day, and took his first degree in 1809, proceeding M. A. in 1812. In the university he gained first-class honors, both in classics and mathematics, and carried off all the four annual prizes open to the competition of all undergraduates and bachelors respectively—the “Newdigate,” the “Latin Verse,” the “Latin Essay,” and the “English Essay.” The subject of his Newdigate prize, “The Apollo Belvedere,” was so ably handled, that the essay has been a tradition of the university from that time to the present. Soon after taking his second degree he was elected a Fellow of Brasenose College. In 1815 he published “Fazio, a Tragedy,” which was successfully brought upon the stage at Covent Garden, and has been reproduced with fair success at intervals ever since. In 1817 he took orders, and was shortly after appointed Vicar of St. Mary’s, Reading. In 1818 appeared his “Samor, Lord of the Bright City, an Heroic Poem,” which was followed, in 1820, by “The Fall of Jerusalem,” a beautiful dramatic poem, with some fine sacred lyrics interspersed. In 1821 he was appointed Professor of Poetry at Oxford, and in the course of the same year published three other poems—“The Martyr of Antioch,” “Belshazzar,” and “Anne Boleyn.” He was already a valued and frequent contributor to the *Quarterly Review*, and his criticisms on authors were looked for with interest. In 1826 this young and brilliant clergyman and professor, now in his thirty-fifth year, was appointed Bampton Lecturer, that honor to which so many ripe scholars among the English clergy aspire, and to which so few of them attain. The lectures were delivered and published the next year. The subject he had chosen was, “The Character and Conduct of the Apostles considered as Evidences of the Christian Faith,” and, to the surprise of all his hearers, it was treated somewhat dramatically, beginning with a tableau of the apostolic company. The young Oxford professor had not thus far found, with all he had accomplished and attained, his true vocation, but he was drawing toward it. John Murray, his publisher, had projected a series of works under the title of “The Family Library,” which were to comprise, in their wide scope, history, poetry, science, fiction, and adventure. To Professor Milman he assigned “The History of the Jews,” expecting, probably, a safe, though somewhat dull, manual of Old Testament history. But the brilliant author was not satisfied with appearing as a dull, hackneyed compiler, and he produced a work, readable enough, and fascinating from its elegance of style, but so liberal and tolerant in its spirit as to offend the stricter school of ecclesiastics, and withal defective in its statements of important facts in the realm of biblical criticism. The book was, nevertheless, popular, and, nearly forty years later, its author revised and almost entirely rewrote it, introducing the wealth of biblical lore which he had been all those years engaged in accumulating.

Mr. Murray’s next commission to Professor Milman was the editing and annotating of Gibbon’s “Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.” The research into Gibbon’s authorities, which he found necessary in this undertaking, developed the latent historical genius in Milman, and gave him the first impulse toward the preparation of those great historical works which are alike the evidences of his profound research, his extraordinary impartiality, and his great critical powers. The elegance and finish of his style, its stately grandeur, and its unsurpassed lucidity and simplicity, make his works models of “English undefiled.” The gorgeous exuberance of his earlier writings disappears, but the brilliancy remains to embellish the solid substratum of fact, carefully ascertained and collated, which it serves to adorn. His first really historical work, “The History of Christianity from the Birth of Christ to the Abolition of Paganism in the Roman Empire,” in three volumes, was not published till 1840, after more than ten years of diligent study. The same year he published also a collected edition of his “Poetical Works,” containing some pieces besides those already mentioned. In 1831 Lord Melbourne had given him the crown living of St. Margaret’s, Westminster, and in 1849 Lord John Russell conferred on him the deanery of St. Paul’s, which he held till his death. After the publication of his “History of Christianity,” he applied himself with great assiduity to the work which was to be the crowning labor of his life; and, though possessing that rare faculty, for a historian, of knowing just where to put his hand upon the facts he needed, it was fourteen years before he had completed his “History of Latin Christianity, including that of the Popes to the Pontificate of Nicholas V.,” in six volumes. This work is one of learning, and chastened eloquence; it displays a grasp of human nature in its religious workings and its wide sympathies, and aspires at impartiality, which entitle its author to take rank with the prominent English historians. Besides the works we have named, Dean Milman also published a “Memoir of Lord Macaulay,” a “Life of John Keats,” an exquisite illustrated edition of Horace, with notes, translations of the “Agamemnon” of Æschylus, the “Bacchæ” of Euripides, and some of his favorites among the minor Greek poets, and “Hebrew Prophecy, a Sermon,” the two latter published in 1865. He had also at the time of his death completed for publication his “History of St. Paul’s Cathedral.” In breadth of learning, in dignified but not stilted eloquence as a writer, and in brilliancy and geniality in social life, it will be long ere we shall find the equal of the gifted Dean of St. Paul’s.

MINNESOTA. The number of the inhabitants of this vast State has not reached half a million yet, though it has been steadily and largely increasing; her vote cast on November 2, 1868, amounted to 71,824, but in

1860 it was \$4,823. As Governor Marshall says, in his message to the Legislature, dated January 7, 1869: "From estimates based upon the returns of the school census, and from the vote at the late election, it is reliably ascertained that the population of the State is about four hundred and forty-five thousand." Her condition, however, appears to be one of general prosperity, with still brighter prospects for the future, especially in regard to the development of her many and ample resources.

Concerning her finances, the Governor states the principal transactions of the treasury during the fiscal year, ending November 30, 1868, to have been: "The entire redemption of the State bonds issued under the act of July, 1858; the addition of \$500,000 to the educational funds; the collection of \$102,823.02 from the General Government, on account of war expenditures; the negotiation of a loan of \$100,000, for the erection of State buildings, and the expenditure of \$127,000 for such purposes, and the reduction of the State debt, \$25,000."

The State receipts from all sources, in 1868, were \$886,990.02, and the disbursements \$762,315.90; leaving a balance in the treasury of \$74,284.12. The receipts comprise the above-mentioned \$102,823.02, collected from the General Government, and the loan of \$100,000 for State buildings, which are both extraordinary items; while the disbursements include \$243,731.25, "invested for school fund," and \$114,981.92, "a State apportionment to schools."

The recognized funded debt of the State is \$300,000, made up by three loans of equal sums, negotiated in 1862, for war purposes, and in 1867 and 1868, for building charitable institutions. The contingent, or floating debt, is \$20,000, which the Governor states to be the "smallest floating debt that has ever been at the end of a fiscal year;" adding that "the funded debt is also smaller than it has ever been since the war loan of 1862. The balance in the revenue fund—\$23,892.35—is the largest it has ever been before at the end of the year."

Her accounts with the United States for war expenditures have been nearly all settled, as the said \$102,823.02 collected in 1868, with other sums received on the same account in former years, leaves a balance of only \$48,666.44 yet due to her on that account. Of this sum he anticipates that \$25,000 will probably be collected, by furnishing explanations and vouchers, and for the rest it is necessary "to await further legislation of Congress, applicable to all the States having war claims."

The estimated revenue of the State for 1869 is \$367,642.35, and the expenditure \$286,867.89. The surplus, \$80,784.46, "may be applied to the erection of buildings for State institutions."

The value of taxable property is set down, in the assessment for 1868, at \$75,000,000,

which is \$10,000,000 more than for 1867. The present mode of assessment seems imperfect, or wrong, and the Governor ascribes the defect in a great measure to "the unfaithful execution of the law on the part of assessors." One among the bad features of the system now in operation is the possibility that "he who is assessed has to pay double to cover the loss that results from his neighbor's property escaping assessment." Governor Marshall urges the adoption of effectual means "to secure a just and full assessment of all kinds of property, in order that the burdens of the government may be equally distributed;" and anticipates that by this means, in the rapidly-increasing public wealth, the State tax "from five mills on the dollar, as it now is, would in one or two years be reduced to four." As the tax imposed on the citizens for State purposes constitutes a very small part of the burden which they must bear under the name of taxation, seven-eighths of it belonging to "town, city, and county taxes," the Governor recommends "care in the passage of bills authorizing local taxation."

Upon the fact that special and private legislation absorbs fully two-thirds of the business transacted in the Senate and House of Representatives, while the State pays for all the printing, Governor Marshall, pointing to the example of other States, recommends a State tax to be laid "on all private acts," which "would either produce a handsome revenue, or impose a wholesome restraint on special legislation."

Concerning public instruction, the land granted by the Federal Government to the State, for school purposes, is estimated at 3,000,000 acres. A little above one-tenth of it has been disposed of, including 76,810 acres sold in 1868 for \$464,840.61. The amount to be received from the sale of the whole, making allowance for inferior land in some parts, is estimated at \$16,000,000. This will constitute the permanent school fund, and its annual interest, the general school fund. The Governor says that the last-named fund "amounted, in 1868, to \$115,794.38, and was distributed to the several school districts, in proportion to the number of children."

The State of Minnesota takes commendable care that her youth generally should receive the benefits of education in the elements, as well as in the higher branches of knowledge, and her citizens appear individually animated by the same spirit, with gratifying results. The school statistics for 1868, taken from the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and embodied in the Governor's message, seem interesting enough to be here subjoined, and are as follows:

The whole number of school districts in the State in 1868 was 2,353. Increase for the year, 146. The number of districts which failed to report was 178, so that the statistics are incomplete.

The whole number of children in the State, by the returns of 1868, were 129,103, an increase of 14,682 over 1867. The number attending school in

1868 was 81,696. Showing a gratifying increase of 15,887 over 1867.

The whole number of teachers in 1868, in both summer and winter schools, was 3,276. Increase over 1867, 691. Amount paid teachers in 1868, \$322,785.16. Increase in the year, \$67,798. Value of school-houses in the State in 1868, \$1,091,559.42. Increase for the year, \$345,168.42. The cost of school-houses built in 1868, \$288,687.37.

Whole amount received from the school fund in 1868, \$245,943.13. Increase for the year, \$78,079.60.

Whole amount received from taxes voted by districts in 1868, \$369,278.85. Increase for the year, \$143,606.16.

Whole amount expended for school purposes in 1868, \$805,369.05. Increase for the year, \$65,836.68.

The report says: "Minnesota has a larger number of school-houses than any other State in the Union, of the same population and taxable property. Her total expenditures for school purposes during the last two years exceed \$1,500,000, and her school-houses have already cost over \$1,000,000."

Three normal schools, destined to the training of future teachers for the common schools, have also been established at different points in the State, the first two of which were attended last year by 164 students; the third one is entering now upon its course of operation.

The State University bids fair to become the brightest ornament, as well as an invaluable source of utility to Minnesota. Last year it was attended by 109 students; but till now it has been preparing, as it were, a thorough organization for a complete and permanent institution. During the last year's session of the Legislature, a bill was introduced in the Senate purporting to reorganize the State University, and transferring to it the eighty-six thousand acres of land previously granted by the State for an agricultural college, together with the obligation of meeting the requirements of the grant. This bill passed the Senate on February 12, 1868, and the House of Representatives on the 17th of the same month. On account of the new department thus added to the university, a suitable tract of land near its site has lately been purchased for an experimental farm. According to the report of its regents, the university will be opened at the beginning of the next term, and fully enter into "the classical, scientific, and agricultural courses."

Forty-six thousand acres of land were granted by Congress to Minnesota "for a Territorial University," in 1851, and as many "for a State University" in 1857, when the people of that Territory were enabled to form a State government. Though the Commissioner of the General Land-Office, and the Secretary of the Interior, would regard the second grant to be not an addition to, but only a confirmation of the first, yet a bill declaring that the two grants are distinct, and the lands of both assigned by the Federal Government to the University of Minnesota, "passed the Senate just before the close of the last session of Congress, and is now before the House, and its passage is confidently expected."

The debts of the university, amounting in the aggregate to \$125,000, were paid with the proceeds of the sale of 14,000 acres of the 1851 grant, and 8,277 more acres of its lands were sold last year for \$50,462.38, which has been invested as a permanent fund. The land remaining at present to the university, from the two grants of Congress, and that of the State for the agricultural course, is 164,000 acres, estimated at \$1,000,000.

Its receipts in 1868 were \$8,319.55, and the disbursements \$7,693.50. No appropriation is asked for it; as it is expected "that the income will be sufficient for all ordinary expenses." A library and apparatus, however, which the regents represent to be urgently needed, the Governor says, "if it is consistent with other demands on the treasury, should be supplied by the State."

The State Historical Society, which now occupies the basement of the capitol fitted up for it, is praised by the Governor on account of the progress made by it during 1868. He recommends its wants to the Legislature, and also a further appropriation of \$500 for the State Library in order to enable it to increase the number of volumes in its law department, which, he says, "should be well kept up," and is in fact of the greatest importance to the public.

The State charitable institutions seem to be well taken care of. The Governor recommends appropriations necessary to complete the buildings destined for the reception and treatment of the insane—the place wherein they are at present temporarily kept at an expense of above \$31,000 in 1868, and an estimated one of \$10,000 more for 1869, being unhealthy, because not large enough, and wanting the accommodations required for their comfort.

He expresses his gratification in regard to the Institute of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind, speaking of its conduct and management as well as of the treatment and progress of the inmates in their respective conditions as leaving little or nothing to wish for them. He recommends a workshop in the asylum, that its inmates, when they leave it, may take care of themselves.

The Governor speaks of the Normal Reform School and the thirty-six juvenile criminals who are its inmates in this, the first year of its establishment. By steadily pursuing such a course in its management and discipline as is now in operation, which he pronounces to be perfect, he confidently hopes that the erring youth will be there both reformed and educated to become useful members of society. The expenses of this institution in 1868 were \$6,000, and for 1869 are estimated at \$8,000. He recommends increased building accommodations, as needed.

The number of convicts in the State Prison at the end of November, 1868, was 43, three less than in 1867 at the same date. The Governor states that the number of convicts received in 1868 was 31. The discharged, on ex-

piration of term, 18; by pardon, 8; by military order, 6; died, 2. The general management of the prison has been good. The expenditures have been kept within appropriations. The expenses of 1868 were \$16,915.07. The earnings of the prison—labor of convicts and board of United States convicts—were \$6,179.31. He requests the Legislature to favor the suggestions of the warden and inspectors for some improvements in the State Prison, "if it can be done consistently with the needs of other State institutions."

Commendable interest is also taken by the State, and not without success, for collecting her soldiers' claims against the Federal Government for back pay, bounty, and pensions. The report of the Adjutant-General for 1868 "shows the collection of 2,284 claims during the year, amounting to \$227,912.35. Since the organization of the bureau of claims in that office in March, 1865, 5,090 cases were prepared and forwarded to Washington, of which 3,698 were allowed up to December 1, 1868, amounting in money value to \$380,312.66." For that class of soldiers, among the Minnesota inhabitants, who enlisted in 1861 and 1862 for three years, but who, having been discharged on account of disability within two years of their time, have received no bounty, and for other classes who have not received bounty equal to that given the latter volunteers, Governor Marshall urges the Legislature to memorialize Congress in order "that justice should be done them."

Referring to the first report of the Adjutant-General, he recommends that the State Arsenal should be kept well provided, and never left with less than five thousand stands of good arms, besides the other things necessary for its outfit.

As the number of the soldiers' orphans is yearly increasing with the successive deaths of ex-soldiers, or their widows, he calls the attention of the Legislature to the subject, and hints at the erection of a Soldiers' Orphan Asylum, by saying that "measures may be taken to ascertain the wants of this class, and, if need be, to provide at the present session for their care."

The expenses of the State charitable institutions are met at present from the general revenue fund. This being liable to be overburdened, and its means possibly diverted to purposes less necessary than the maintenance of said institutions, whose expenditures must steadily increase with the population, the Governor recommends the erection of a special fund, destined exclusively to the support of the charitable institutions of the State, by "setting apart for that purpose the revenues received from the railroads, together with a one-mill tax." He says that "the application of the railroad revenues to this very necessary purpose would protect them from diversion or application to less necessary objects."

In connection with the public works of benevolence and the commendable interest

taken by the State of Minnesota to provide for the wants of those within her limits who are in a condition of suffering, the prompt and efficient manner in which her citizens responded last fall to the loud cry for help raised outside, by the people of the Red River Settlement in the British possessions, seems worthy of mention. The number of these people, who have no nearer civilized neighbors than the frontier settlements of Minnesota, and this at a distance of four hundred miles, consists of about fifteen thousand persons, one-third farmers, who provide the colony with breadstuffs and vegetables, and one-third buffalo-hunters, who furnish it with dry meat and furs for the long winter. Both kinds of food entirely failed the colonists in 1868, the farmers having gathered not one bushel of grain, or any thing else, because the grasshoppers, like the plague of the locusts, had eaten up to the roots every plant in the fields. The hunters found no game whatever, because the buffalo disappeared last year from their usual haunts, or went to parts unknown. Instead of returning home well fed themselves and with ample provisions for the colony, this army of hunters came back empty-handed; their yoke-oxen and riding horses, they had been compelled, in their long absence, to slaughter and eat up, to keep themselves from starvation upon the prairie. The tidings of so great a calamity reached the State of Minnesota through a circular of the Bishop of St. Boniface, stating the sad facts and appealing to the humanity of charitable people everywhere. As soon as they were known, the Chamber of Commerce at St. Paul appointed a committee of five, who, on September 8th, published a statement of these facts, calling upon all for help, and taking upon themselves the charge of speedy transmission of the contributed means of subsistence to the sufferers. A meeting was also held by prominent citizens of that city, Governor Marshall among them, in which, upon his motion, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this meeting that a fund to purchase and transport to Georgetown, Minn., not less than ten thousand bushels of wheat should immediately be raised to relieve the famine in the Red River Settlement.

Resolved, That the Chamber of Commerce of St. Paul be requested to take charge of this subscription, to organize a canvass of this city, and to make an appeal to other cities in behalf of this object.

Resolved, That subscriptions be received for this object from all persons present at this meeting.

Hereupon a subscription list was opened, and liberal sums set down by all present. Committees were also appointed to act as agents, soliciting contributions everywhere in the State.

In order to increase the rather scanty population of Minnesota, and with it her general prosperity by the development of her resources, the Governor urged the Legislature to favor immigration by all means in their power. He stated that, with the \$3,000 appropriated at their last session for the publication and dis-

tribution of pamphlets (the printing only being done at the State's charge), 35,000 copies of Hewett's pamphlet (in English), 5,000 of Kilholtz's (in German), and 5,000 of Colonel Mattson's (in the Scandinavian languages), were distributed in 1868, their editions having been exhausted several months before the end of the year. He submitted, also, a report of Mr. Joseph V. Prince, of New York, and a circular of the Citizens' Association of the same city, tending to direct immigration to Minnesota and inviting the coöperation of the State.

It appears worthy of being noticed that with a population not amounting to half a million persons, all included, the State of Minnesota had in 1868 no less than 1,382,690 acres of land under cultivation, and in the same year gathered from it a product of 16,126,825 bushels of wheat, 4,598,760 of corn, 6,103,500 of oats, and 1,608,900 of potatoes. Her grain specimens sent to the Paris Universal Exhibition were honorably mentioned by the judges. But, besides gathering such abundant crops from her soil, she had also last year from the woods 249,267,918 feet in logs, 41,000,000 feet of sawed lumber, 9,500,000 laths, and 500,000 shingles manufactured; the market value of said lumber product being estimated at \$3,750,000. All this seems to give unmistakable proof of the natural resources of the State as well as of the activity, resolution, and energy of her inhabitants.

There appears to be good ground for believing that, besides her other great resources, Minnesota possesses no little mineral wealth in the northeastern portion of her territory, heretofore regarded as sterile and almost valueless. From the judgment given by several eminent geologists, who have repeatedly explored the place, and more from the results of numerous experiments made by practical miners, "the northeastern region of Minnesota, including Vermilion," is declared to be a mineral country; the district which contains the precious metals "extending from the Falls of St. Louis River, on the north shore of Superior, to beyond Fort William in the British possessions." It is affirmed, on the results obtained from numerous assays, that the surface rocks of the Vermilion veins, and the rocks of other points, yield on an average \$25 per ton, at a cost of about \$8 for extracting the gold. There being at Vermilion abundance of wood at hand for mining operations, the working of mines would leave a profit large enough to make it a well-paying business.

With regard to the advantages of merchandise and passenger transportation by railway, on December 1, 1868, there were 559 miles of it in actual operation within the State. Of the said number, 128 miles were constructed and opened during the year, and the directors of the several companies have declared their intentions still to extend their respective lines in 1869.

But far greater advantages are expected to

flow into Minnesota from outside railroads, than she can derive from those running within her own limits. By the completion of the Lake Superior and Mississippi Railroad, whose whole line it is confidently expected will be opened in 1870, and by the establishment of a line of vessels from Erie to Lake Superior, in competition with the New York roads and canals for the carrying trade of the Upper Lakes, Governor Marshall anticipates that the transportation of one bushel of wheat from St. Paul to New York or Philadelphia will not cost then as much as it now does to Milwaukee or Chicago. This difference, he says, would make an increase "of three million dollars in the value of our wheat crop of 1868." With still greater earnestness does he speak of the construction of the Northern Pacific Railroad from Lake Superior to Puget's Sound, which "awaits the action of Congress on bills now before it, giving aid to the road similar to that given to the Union Pacific Road." The Governor recommends that the Minnesota Legislature "should urge upon Congress, by resolution and memorial, the claims of the Northern road for the necessary aid." Besides being of vast general importance, because it affords easier grades and shortens the distance to San Francisco by 525 miles from New York, and by 673 miles from Chicago, the working of the Northern Pacific Railway would prove of inestimable benefit to Minnesota in particular, as it would traverse in its course the northern half of the State, "giving such local advantages and development to that less favored portion of the State as no other agency will afford." Above all, it could not fail to occasion the construction of lateral lines, which would develop the vast region north and west of the Minnesota, both within the United States and British America; while the communication and intercourse of that State with all around being thus immensely augmented, her commerce and manufactures, her population and wealth, would also necessarily be increased in the same proportions.

Governor Marshall also recommended a memorial to Congress to aid the work of clearing the obstacles existing in the waters between the Upper Mississippi and Lake Michigan, and thus opening a thorough navigation from one to the other. It is ascertained that the cost of transportation, which is now paid to railroads at the rate of 18 mills per ton per mile, would be then by water no higher than 4 or 6 mills.

Early in the session of 1868 a bill was introduced in the Senate, purporting "to amend the State constitution by striking the word *white* out of it," the proposition to be submitted to the people "on the same ballot with the general ticket" at the presidential election in November. The Republican members of both Houses had also a meeting among themselves, on February 11th, in which they resolved, "That it is the sense of this caucus that the

question of impartial manhood suffrage be submitted to the popular vote at the ensuing annual election." The proposition to strike the word *white* from the constitution had already been submitted to the people in 1865, and again in 1867, and rejected by them on both occasions. At the late presidential election, however, it was carried, with the rest of the Republican ticket. Governor Marshall congratulated the Legislature on that success, while the Democrats affirmed that such result was owing only to deception and fraud practised by the Republicans upon the voters; first, because the question of "negro suffrage" had been proposed to the people, not by itself, but mixed together with the question of President and Vice-President on the same ticket, by which means the voter, as he could not divide the question on the ticket and give to each a separate answer, was compelled to vote for, or against, all the questions, with the same answer; and secondly, which they regard to be still worse, because the said question of "negro suffrage" was proposed to the people, not in open words, but concealed under a cover, impenetrable to the sight of most of the voters, namely, as "an amendment of section 1, article 7, of the constitution," so that those who voted for the Republican candidates did also vote blindly for "negro suffrage," without so much as imagining that they were so doing; it being certain that the greatest number of them had no knowledge that the section 1 of article 7, which they were voting to amend, referred to "negro suffrage" and excluded it. They declare those two facts to be the more assuredly a proof of meditated deception, because by acts, passed in the same session of the Legislature, and approved on the 5th and 6th of March, 1868, respectively, two more amendments to the constitution were submitted to the people at the same election, namely, on "internal improvement lands" and on "grand juries;" but both of these points were presented to the voter separately and distinctly in clear, open words; each of their respective acts having purposely provided that, on the ballots, and in favor of the amendment, regarding the internal improvement lands, there should be written or printed "internal improvement lands—Amendment to Article 15th of the Constitution—Yes;" and for the amendment relating to grand juries "there should be written or printed on the ballots the words "Against the Grand Juries;" whereas, in regard to the amendment concerning "negro suffrage," the act relating to it makes no mention of those words, but prescribes that "the voters, voting in favor of such amendment, shall have, on their *general ballots*, used at said election, written or printed, the following words, "Amendment to Section 1, Article 7, of the Constitution—Yes."

The Democratic State Convention, which assembled in the month of February, 1868, elected its 4 presidential electors, and 8 dele-

gates to the National Democratic Convention, to be held in New York on the 4th of July, for the purpose of nominating the Democratic presidential candidates. In regard to the situation of the country and the political questions agitating it, the convention, before closing its session on February 27th, adopted the resolutions submitted by its Committee on Resolutions, as follows:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Minnesota congratulate the country upon the improved aspect of political affairs, as evinced by the State elections of 1867, and that they look forward with hope and confidence to the result of that momentous struggle upon which depends, in so great a degree, the future peace and prosperity of the Union.

Resolved, That we are unalterably opposed to the legislation which leads to consolidation; we renew, with unflagging zeal and increased energy, our attachment to that political creed, which has ever been so staunchly adhered to by our organization through days of trouble and disaster as well as prosperity; which was that opinion expressed by Thomas Jefferson, "with justice to all men, of whatever standing, and the promotion of peace, commerce, and harmony; friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none; the support of the State governments in all their rights as the most competent administrators of our domestic concerns, and the surest bulwark against anti-republican tendencies; the preservation of the General Government in its whole, its constitutional vigor as the safeguard of peace at home and safety abroad; and the care of the rights of elections by the people, the supremacy of the civil over the military authority."

Resolved, That we condemn the legislative acts of Congress, and, particularly, the civil act of reconstruction so called, as the violation of the honest agreement and compact between the States, and as utterly subversive of every principle of sound government that distinguishes a free people.

Resolved, That we are opposed to any measures which recognize that the integrity of the Union was ever broken; that any of its members were ever out, and that we determinedly insist that the Southern States, no longer being in insurrection or at war with the Federal Government, are entitled to the full State recognition and constitutional representation in Congress, and the electoral privileges given to all States, and that denial to them by Congress, and its efforts to dictate by military force a government for them, are unconstitutional and despotic.

Resolved, That we are opposed, both in principle and policy, to negro suffrage, and that this State, having by a large majority rejected it for herself, is sternly opposed to its enforced imposition upon other States, and that we stigmatize its imposition by the Federal Government as a most base usurpation.

Resolved, That the practical effect of the so-called reconstruction acts of Congress is to deliver over ten States to the political and social control of negroes; and to place the lives, liberties, and fortunes of the people into the hands of a barbarous people, that it would lead either to a war of races, or to the desolation of the South.

Resolved, That, while we denounce the enormous conceded frauds in the creation of the public debt, the faith of the country is pledged to the payment, principal and interest, according to the terms of the several acts of Congress under which these bonds representing the debt were issued, but not otherwise, and we are opposed to any plans for extending the time of payment, thus increasing the amount of gold-interest to more than original principal, or by any declaration by Congress that the principal is payable in gold.

Resolved, That never forgetting nor denying our ancient faith, that gold and silver coin form the cur-

rency of the Constitution, we declare that the 5.20 bonds should be paid in the currency received by the Government for their issue, and, that by the withdrawal of the gold and silver to the national banks, that result would be accomplished without undue or dangerous increase of paper money, now the only circulating medium, thus relieving our people from the burden of debt, the tendency of which is always to corrupt and enslave, and free our Government from the reproach of paying a favored class in gold, while discharging its debts to all others, including also its sailors and soldiers, in inferior currency.

Resolved, That this plan violates no law, impairs no contract, breaks no faith, and, instead of retarding a return to specie payments, is the shortest, because the only safe way of reaching that end.

Resolved, That all the property of the country, including so-called bonds, which receive such equal protection of the Government, should bear an equal share in its burden.

Resolved, That we indignantly reject the principle, drawn from the feudal system, that the masses of the people belong to the governments under which they live, which, in another form, is contended for by the monarchies of Europe, including Great Britain, that, once a subject, always a subject. We, on the contrary, maintain that an individual can, by emigration to, and residence in, another country, forswear his previous allegiance, and be admitted into all the civil and political rights of his new home; that American citizens, by adoption and naturalization, are entitled to all the rights, as between the United States and foreign powers, which can be claimed by our own native-born citizens; and it is the duty of the Federal Government to protect and maintain them by every means within its power.

Resolved, That the fortitude and gallantry of our soldiers, in the recent civil war in defence of the Union, entitle them to the gratitude of the country, and should ever be remembered by it in its bounties.

Resolved, That the Democracy of the country have neither the purpose nor desire to reestablish slavery, nor assume any portion of the debt of the States lately in rebellion.

The Republican State Convention also, pursuant to a call of the Republican State Central Committee, dated January 22d, assembled on the 13th of May, 1868, when they elected 8 delegates to the National Republican Convention, to be held in Chicago, on the 20th day of that month, and 4 presidential electors.

Of the acts passed by the State Legislature in the last session, we abstain from making any further mention, in reference to the public interests of the State. The local paper, in which such matters are officially published, in its issue of March 13, 1868, says: "The work of the tenth Legislature was virtually closed last evening, although to-day is within constitutional limit, and may be occupied with any other business than the passage of bills, which is inhibited. A very large number of laws have been enacted, but none of vital importance to the welfare of the State."

MISSISSIPPI. The rigors of military rule were somewhat relaxed in Mississippi at the beginning of the year 1868. By an order of January 9th, jurisdiction was restored to the State courts in the general cases of horse-stealing, etc., though, if it should appear that any person could not obtain an impartial trial, on account of his race or his political sentiments, jurisdiction of the case would be taken

by the military. On the 21st of January, General Order No. 39, series of 1867, prohibiting the purchase or delivery of country supplies after sunset and until market-hours in the morning, and requiring all persons to procure a special license, as authority to purchase country produce, was revoked. Four days later a similar revocation was made of the order causing saloons, and other places where intoxicating liquors were retailed, to be closed from each Friday evening at sunset, until the succeeding Monday at sunrise, and on occasions of political meetings in towns garrisoned by troops. (On the 27th, an order appeared, revoking the several circulars issued in 1867, relating to the adjustment of "questions arising from settlements of crops, and generally the relations of debtors and creditors, or civil suitors," and all such matters were thereafter to be left to the established civil tribunals, "except such cases affecting the rights of freedmen, or others, as by acts of Congress were specially committed to the care of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands.")

An impression having got abroad that the planters would receive aid from the Government in cultivating their lands, through the agency of the Freedmen's Bureau, a circular was issued from the office of the Assistant Commissioner for the State of Mississippi, informing all persons, who had formed any such expectations, that all aid rendered through that office would be strictly limited to cases of actual want, and any supplies furnished would only be in such quantities as were absolutely necessary to prevent suffering. All freedmen, who were laboring under the delusion that lands would be furnished them by confiscation or otherwise, were warned that this was a mistaken idea. They were told that their only way of obtaining land was by purchase or by locating on the public domain. The Bureau offered its services as a medium to bring together laborers and employers, and urged those engaged in agricultural pursuits "to devote more land and labor to the production of corn and wheat."

The convention which had been called to frame a constitution for the State of Mississippi, under the reconstruction laws of 1867, met in Jackson, on the 7th of January, and continued in session without interruption until the 18th of May. During this protracted period many subjects were discussed, which pertained more to the general condition of the State and of the country at large, than to the special duty of the framers of a new constitution. The general *per diem* of the members was fixed at ten dollars, and measures were adopted for levying a special tax, to be collected under the authority of the military commander, to meet the expenses of the convention. There was a pretty strong and active conservative element in the body, which continually opposed all extreme measures. This element was represented in the committee ap-

pointed to take into consideration the question of compensation for members, and a minority report was submitted, which, after stating that the reconstruction acts were unconstitutional, and that the convention did not represent the people of the State, declared—

That this assembly is unconstitutionally convened, and is not competent to make amendments to the constitution of the State of Mississippi in any respect whatever, and therefore the officers and members of this convention are not entitled to compensation for any services which they may see proper to perform in such capacity to the people of the State of Mississippi, or to the people of the United States.

The convention had not been in session many days, when a committee was appointed to memorialize Congress to grant to that body the power to declare vacant all civil offices in the provisional government of the State, and to fill them with officers of its own selecting. The committee prepared a memorial, which, after considerable discussion, was forwarded to the Federal Legislature. This document was in the following terms:

To the Congress of the United States :

The Constitutional Convention elected under the laws of Congress for the reconstruction of civil government in the State of Mississippi, now in session in the city of Jackson, of said State, beg leave to represent to your honorable body that the loyal people of this State, in our opinion, require your immediate aid to remove obstructions impeding the action of their representatives in convention assembled.

The loyal Union men of Mississippi have accepted in good faith the reconstruction laws, and are laboring to institute a civil government that shall recognize the rights and protect the liberties of the citizens, and on such principles as shall render it acceptable to the national Congress.

The reconstruction laws of Congress, nine months ago, found the State under a civil government, so called, organized in 1865 by not more than one-third of the white men, who were authorized to vote by the President's proclamation.

They found this government administered by rebels, not in name merely, but really such in heart, in deed, in policy, indeed in all respects save open hostility.

When the terms of reconstruction were announced by Congress in the early part of last year, it was hoped by many sanguine friends of the Union that they would be willingly accepted by the great mass of the Southern people. Not so, however, has been the result, and, as the work of reconstruction advanced, there was gradually developed and made manifest first doubt, then fear or apprehension, then opposition, and lastly an absolute and unmistakable hostility.

During this transition state of public sentiment from doubt to hostility it may be imagined what proscription and abuse the faithful Union loyalists had to meet.

All this has been borne with a calm defiance and unflinching devotion to country, to liberty, and the Union; and now this rebel sentiment has culminated on the floor of this convention itself by a member in a report to this body averring that the convention is an unauthorized assembly, called by an unconstitutional law of Congress, and has therefore no legal or binding power over the State of Mississippi in compelling obedience to its ordinances.

In addition to the impediments thrown in the way of the convention by this popular sentiment arising from the broken fragments of secession and rebellion, which may very safely be permitted to drift aloof from all participation in reconstruction, there is

another and a much more formidable power, productive of far greater embarrassment to reconstruction than that already brought to view, namely, the administrators of the provisional government of the State whose terms of office have expired.

These incumbents, continued in office by the forbearance of Congress, were elected by only a portion of the people in 1865, when, if any Union candidate had presented his claims for office, he would have had no chance. Their continuance in office endangers the restoration of peace and order; at least, their action or non-action may result greatly to the embarrassment of this convention in its work of reconstruction.

We, therefore, in the name and in behalf of the loyal people of Mississippi, in the name of justice, liberty, and humanity, do most earnestly and respectfully petition your honorable body to authorize this convention to declare all civil offices in the State vacant, and to fill them at once by the appointment of true and loyal men who, we humbly trust and confidently believe, will greatly add to the success of the congressional plan of reconstruction; all of which is most respectfully and deferentially submitted to the consideration of your honorable body, and, as in duty bound, we will ever pray.

A protest against the action of the convention, in sending this memorial to Washington, was read on the 29th of January, signed by fifteen prominent conservative members. This protest laid down and supported by argument these five propositions, showing, as was claimed, that "the material statements made in said memorial are untrue." 1. "The government of the State is not in the hands of rebels." Under this head it was urged that at the close of the war the people had "accepted the situation in good faith," and then and since had endeavored to act the part of good and loyal citizens. 2. "The officers of the State have not neglected to protect the life and property of loyal men." The third proposition states that not enough "competent men" could be found in the State who could take the "test-oath" to fill the offices under the State administration. The fourth declares that the "members of the convention were elected to discharge the specific duty of framing a constitution and civil government for the State," and that, in choosing them, the people had acted on the belief that their labors were to be confined to that object; "and now the conferring of any other power by Congress upon the convention, or the assumption of others by it, will be a violation of the trust reposed, and a usurpation of the rights of the people." Fifthly, signers of the protest declare that

When the resolution "for the appointment of the committee to prepare this memorial was on its passage, an amendment was offered to it in these words:

"Resolved, further, That, in reorganizing the State government under the foregoing resolution, no member of this body shall be eligible to any office of trust or profit in connection therewith."

Which amendment was lost by a vote of 36 yeas to 48 nays.

By this vote a majority of the convention have shown their utter disregard of a great conservative principle, which is consecrated as well in the Constitution of the United States as in the constitutions of a large majority of the States, the State of Mississippi inclusive, namely: that no representative of the people shall, during the term for which he shall

have been elected, be appointed to any civil office of profit which shall have been created, or the emoluments of which shall have been increased, during such term.

The convention refused to enter this protest on the records, but decided, by a vote of 50 to 19, that it be "wrapped in brown paper and returned to the gentleman from Marshall."

As soon as the memorial to Congress had been dispatched, the convention turned its attention to the proclamation of Governor Humphreys of the 9th of December, 1867, which represented that conspiracies had been formed for the purpose of seizing upon lands in the State, and dividing them into farms to distribute among the negroes. This was characterized as a libel on the people of Mississippi, and a committee was appointed to investigate the truth of the rumors of combinations of evil-disposed persons in the State to seize lands, etc., coming from persons of high social and official position, upon which the Governor's proclamation of December 9, 1867, was founded. This committee spent some days in obtaining information, and reported that there appeared to be no just cause for issuing the proclamation, but they believed that Governor Humphreys had been misled by the information he had received. The committee had written to the Governor requesting him to furnish what information he had touching the subject of the proclamation, and the names of the persons who had supplied the same. To this he made a reply, in which he used the following language :

I presume you do not expect me to admit that the convention now in session in this city, by virtue of the "military bills" passed by Congress, has any constitutional right to require me to account to it for my administration of the civil government of the State of Mississippi. I acknowledge, however, the constitutional right of all or any portion of the citizens of the State, "in a peaceable manner, to assemble together for their common good, and to apply to those vested with the powers of government for redress of grievances, or other proper purposes, by petition, address, or remonstrance"—and the correlative duty of all civil officers to furnish them all the information in their possession, that pertains to their welfare and happiness, when respectfully requested so to do. I have no secrets I desire to withhold from any class of our people, white or black. My proclamation of the 9th of December, 1867, was issued at the urgent request of General Ord, commander of the Fourth Military District, and all the information I have, on the subject you desire to investigate, was received from and through him, except a few letters received from prominent citizens, which I referred to him as soon as received, and which I presume are now in his possession. For obvious reasons, then, I must refer the committee to him, and, if, in his judgment, a revelation of the sources of information will not be an act of bad faith to the informers, white or black, or prejudicial to the public service, and will authorize a publication of all the communications, public and private, I will cheerfully comply with his instructions on that subject.

About the same time a resolution was passed in the convention, empowering a committee "to inquire into the disposition of all funds received by the State Treasurer or other State officers, as donations from various cities,

towns, and private individuals, in the Northern States, for the relief of the destitute in this State," and calling on the Governor for a detailed account of the receipts and disbursements of such fund during his term of office. On receiving this resolution, and the accompanying request for his official statement on the subject alluded to, Governor Humphreys replied :

No funds have been received by me from cities, towns, or individuals, in the Northern States. Those who have intrusted me, as their private agent, with the distribution of their charities, have neglected to instruct me to account to your body, and your committee have failed to furnish me with any evidence that the donors have delegated to that body any authority to make the inquiry proposed. As those donors may regard their charities as their own private matters, disconnected with the affairs of government, civil or military, Federal or State, and may be unwilling to subject the beneficiaries to the mortification of a public exhibition of their want and destitution, they may regard any effort, however laudable, to give publicity to their charities, as super-serviceable. I must, then, refer you to them. Their wishes and instructions on this subject will be cheerfully complied with, and proper vouchers will be exhibited.

Another subject occupying considerable time, before the convention saw fit to give its undivided attention to the "specific duty of framing a constitution and civil government for the State," was the relief of the citizens from paying debts contracted prior to 1865. Resolutions were passed requesting the military commander to issue an order affording relief to this class of debtors, and appointing a committee to confer with General Gillem on the subject. That officer referred them to the home-stead and bankrupt laws, and suggested that, with the allowances and exemptions provided by these, "no family is threatened with starvation, present or prospective, by non-intervention, or allowing the law to take its course;" he therefore deemed it "inexpedient to issue the order asked for in the resolution, transmitted by your committee." A resolution was afterward adopted to appoint a committee to frame an ordinance for the "relief of the people of Mississippi from their pecuniary embarrassment," which should be "consistent with the rights and obligations of all parties, and with the Constitution of the United States." But no such ordinance ever passed into law, though power was given by the constitution to the first Legislature to pass enactments affording the relief demanded.

Besides the ordinance providing for the expenses of the convention, a general law was made by the convention for levying and collecting taxes, to maintain the civil government of the State. This was carried into effect under the authority of the military commander. The question of removing political disabilities occupied considerable attention, but no practical measure on the subject was adopted.

The various reports on different portions of the proposed constitution were made from

time to time, and discussions followed, of more or less length and animation, according to the interest felt in the topics to which they related; and finally, after a session of 115 days, the organic law of the State was completed, and received the signatures of a majority of the delegates.

The first article embraces the Bill of Rights, which is contained in thirty-two sections. Besides the provisions usually contained in such instruments, are the following sections, which are by no means universal in our State constitutions:

SECTION 16. The rights of married women shall be protected by law, in property owned previous to marriage; and, also, in all property acquired in good faith by purchase, gift, devise, or bequest, after marriage: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to protect said property from being applied to the payment of their lawful debts.

SEC. 17. No property qualification for eligibility to office shall ever be required.

SEC. 18. No property or educational qualification shall ever be required for any person to become an elector.

SEC. 19. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in this State, otherwise than in the punishment of crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted.

SEC. 20. The right to withdraw from the Federal Union, on account of any real or supposed grievances, shall never be assumed by this State, nor shall any law be passed in derogation of the paramount allegiance of the citizens of this State to the Government of the United States.

SEC. 21. No public money or moneys shall be appropriated for any charitable or other public institutions in this State, making any distinction among the citizens thereof: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to prevent the Legislature from appropriating the school fund in accordance with the article in this constitution relating to public schools.

SEC. 22. No distinction shall ever be made, by law, between citizens and alien friends in reference to the possession, enjoyment, or descent of property.

SEC. 27. No person's life shall be perilled by the practice of duelling, and any person who shall hereafter fight a duel, or assist in the same as second, or send, accept, or knowingly carry a challenge therefor, or go out of the State to fight a duel, shall be disqualified from holding any office under this constitution, and shall forever be disfranchised in this State.

SEC. 29. No person shall ever be elected or appointed to any office in this State for life or during good behavior, but the term of all offices shall be for some specified period.

The legislative article declares that the political year shall begin on the first Monday in January, and the Legislature shall meet on the following Tuesday, in each year. The general election is to take place once in two years, on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. Representatives are to be chosen for two years, and Senators for four years. For any person to give or receive a bribe, is made an offence punishable with disfranchisement and disqualification for office. The Governor and other executive officers hold their places four years. The judicial power is vested in the Supreme Court, Circuit Court, Chancery Courts, and such lower tribunals as may be

established by law. The judges are to be appointed by the Governor for a term of years. The three judges of the Supreme Court are to be appointed for nine years, and their respective terms of office are to be so adjusted, that one shall go out at the end of every three years. The terms of the circuit judges are for six years.

The topic which demanded by far the largest amount of attention of any treated by the convention, was that of fixing the qualifications to be imposed upon the exercise of the right of suffrage, and the privilege of holding office. The discussion on this subject began early in February, when the section of the Bill of Rights prohibiting any educational or property qualifications for voters was under consideration, and continued at intervals until the article relating to the franchise was adopted, in the latter part of April. Earnest and able speeches were made in favor of a discrimination which would prevent the blacks, so recently freed from a condition which necessarily left them ignorant and unaccustomed to the responsibility which ought to accompany citizenship, from taking a leading part in the control of public affairs. It was contended that the African race was physically and mentally the inferior of the whites, and that any scheme which clothed them with the right of suffrage at once would give them control of interests which they could not understand, and make them politically superiors to some of the most cultivated citizens of the State. On the other hand, strong appeals were made in favor of universal suffrage, and some of the ablest speeches on the subject were delivered by colored delegates. After the report of the committee on the general subject of the elective franchise had been submitted, a long and excited debate followed, and amendments were offered which represented every shade of political opinion on this important subject. When the fifth section of the article was under consideration, so earnest did the discussion become that several bitter personal altercations took place, one of which led to a violent assault upon the president of the convention by a conservative member. The franchise article was finally adopted by a vote of 44 to 25, whereupon 12 delegates immediately resigned their seats. The full text of the article is as follows:

ARTICLE VII. Section 1. All elections by the people shall be by ballot.

Section 2. All male inhabitants of this State, except idiots and insane persons, and Indians, not taxed, citizens of the United States, or naturalized, twenty-one years old and upward, who have resided in this State six months, and in the county one month next preceding the day of election, at which said inhabitant offers to vote, and who are duly registered according to the requirements of section three of this article, and who are not disqualified by reason of any crime, are declared to be qualified electors.

Section 3. The Legislature shall provide, by law, for the registration of all persons entitled to vote at any

election, and all persons entitled to register shall take and subscribe to the following oath or affirmation: "I, _____, do solemnly swear (or affirm), in the presence of Almighty God, that I am twenty-one years old, that I have resided in this State six months, and in _____ County one month; that I will faithfully support and obey the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of the State of Mississippi, and will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I am not disfranchised in any of the provisions of the acts known as the reconstruction acts of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congress, and that I admit the political and civil equality of all men, so help me God." *Provided*, That if Congress shall, at any time, remove the disabilities of any person disfranchised in the said reconstruction acts of the said Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congress (and the Legislature of this State shall concur therein), then so much of this oath, and so much only, as refers to the said reconstruction acts shall not be required of such person, so pardoned, to entitle him to be registered.

Section 4. No person shall be eligible to any office of profit or trust, or to any office in the militia of this State, who is not a qualified elector.

Section 5. No person shall be eligible to any office of profit or trust, civil or military, in this State, who, as a member of the Legislature, voted for the call of the convention that passed the ordinance of secession, or who, as a delegate to any convention, voted for or signed any ordinance of secession, or who gave voluntary aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in armed hostility to the United States, or who accepted or attempted to exercise the functions of any office, civil or military, under any authority or pretended government, authority, power, or constitution, within the United States, hostile or inimical thereto, except all persons who aided reconstruction by voting for this convention, or who have continuously advocated the assembling of this convention, and shall continuously and in good faith advocate the acts of the same, but the Legislature may remove such disability: *Provided*, That nothing in this section except voting for or signing the ordinance of secession shall be so construed as to exclude from office the private soldier of the late so-called Confederate States Army.

Section 6. In time of war, insurrection, or rebellion, the right to vote, at such place and in such manner as shall be prescribed by law, shall be enjoyed by all persons otherwise entitled thereto, who may be in the actual military or naval service of the United States or this State: *Provided*, Said votes be made to apply in the county or precinct wherein they reside.

Among the efforts of the conservatives to effect a compromise on the subject of political equality, was the submission of a measure, by a minority of the committee on suffrage, guaranteeing certain rights and privileges to colored citizens. The preamble contains a protest against so much of the majority report "as confers the right of suffrage upon a class of persons recently emancipated from slavery, uneducated, and wholly disqualified for the exercise of that great privilege," and begs leave to submit as one of the articles of the constitution, a "guarantee of rights and privileges." The first section of this proposed article provided that colored residents of the State should "receive, in common with white citizens, the protection and care of the State, and the benefit of merciful laws adapted to the improvement of their condition, and the advancement of their interests." The second section guarantees to them full privileges and complete secu-

rity with regard to the acquisition and transmission of property, and concedes to them all the benefits of the laws and the courts in the protection of person and property. The remainder of the article relates to their protection as laborers, and provides for the establishment of separate schools for colored children. This plan met with little favor at the hands of the majority of the convention.

Provision was made for the organization of a system of common schools, to be supported by certain specified funds. A public school was to be maintained in each school district at least four months in the year, and the Legislature was required to provide, as soon as possible, for the establishment of an agricultural college, and to appropriate for the support of that institution the 210,000 acres of land granted to the State, for that purpose, by the act of Congress of July 2, 1865.

Among the general provisions of the constitution was one prohibiting lotteries, and the sale of lottery tickets. The ordinance of secession was declared null and void; and the State of Mississippi prohibited from paying any "debt or obligation contracted in aid of the rebellion, nor shall this State ever, in any manner, claim from the United States, or make any allowance or compensation for slaves emancipated or liberated in any way whatever since the 9th day of January, 1861." Persons elected to office, on entering upon their duties, are required to swear, in addition to the usual asseverations in such cases, that they have never voted for or signed any ordinance of secession, or ever, as members of any State Legislature, voted for the call of any convention that passed any such ordinance.

The labors of the convention were closed by the passage of an ordinance providing for an immediate submission of the constitution to the people for their ratification. The election for the purpose was to take place on the 22d of June, and at the same time the vote of qualified electors was to be taken for all State officers, including members of the Legislature and Representatives to Congress. It was also enacted that the first Legislature under the new constitution should meet at Jackson on the second Monday after the ratification of that instrument should be promulgated, and that the first term of all civil officers should commence on the second Monday after the official announcement of their election, and continue until the end of the first full term succeeding such election. A committee of five was designated to appoint commissioners of election, and adjust all outstanding accounts of the convention. Further power was given to this committee by the following:

SEC. 12. When this convention adjourns it shall be subject to the call of the committee of five appointed by this convention: *Provided*, That, should the constitution be ratified, this convention shall thereafter be adjourned *sine die*, but in case the constitution should not be ratified, then the convention may be reconvened by said committee.

Sec. 13. Said committee of five shall have authority to employ a clerk and to enforce the collection of the taxes levied by the several ordinances of this convention, and to perform any and all duties appertaining to the same.

The following ordinance was also passed by the convention before its adjournment:

Whereas, In a republic the foundation of a government is the right of suffrage, and therefore this right should be guarded from all undue influence, and secured in such manner that the free and untrammelled voice of the people should be heard: Therefore, be it ordained, by the people of Mississippi in convention assembled—

Sec. 1. No contract shall be valid which in any manner abridges or affects the right of franchise, of either party, and any person or persons demanding such conditions shall, on conviction thereof, be disfranchised for the term of five years from and after the ratification of the constitution of this State, and shall pay a fine of five hundred dollars, to be collected by any court having jurisdiction.

Sec. 2. Whoever shall dismiss from employment any person or persons for having exercised the right of franchise, or for attempting to exercise such right, shall, on conviction, be fined not less than two hundred and fifty dollars, and be disfranchised for the term of five years.

A large portion of the citizens of Mississippi were strongly opposed to the congressional plan of reconstruction, and began early to organize a vigorous opposition to the work of the Constitutional Convention. The Executive Committee of the Constitutional Union party, which was formed in the preceding year, called a convention to meet at Jackson on the 15th of February. At this convention a series of resolutions was adopted, assuming the name and principles of the Democratic party, and declaring that the conservatives of the State would "do battle under that banner until the Union is restored to a constitutional basis, and all the States are recognized as equals in the great confederation of American sovereignties." The purposes of the party, as thus revived, were set forth in the following:

Resolved, That the military bills of Congress, for the reconstruction of the so-called rebel States, are unconstitutional and oppressive in all their particulars, and should be resisted by the unanimous voice of the people at the ballot-box.

Resolved, That, for the purpose of accomplishing this result, the people of Mississippi are hereby recommended to organize a Central Democratic Association, with similar associations in every county, and in all the principal cities and towns in the State, and, to this end, this convention will appoint a central committee of nine, resident at the capital of the State, with power to complete this party organization, in all respects.

Resolved, That the nefarious design of the Republican party in Congress, to place the white men of the Southern States under the governmental control of their late slaves, and degrade the Caucasian race as the inferiors of the African negro, is a crime against the civilization of the age, which needs only to be mentioned to be scorned by all intelligent minds, and we therefore call upon the people of Mississippi to vindicate alike the superiority of their race over the negro, and their political power to maintain constitutional liberty.

On the 22d of January, the Democratic State Central Committee had a meeting to concert measures for the thorough organiza-

tion of the party. It was determined to form a Central Democratic Association at the city of Jackson, "to be composed of the free white male citizens, qualified electors under the constitution of the State, and who are opposed to congressional usurpations, military despotism, negro suffrage, and negro government." For the purpose of organizing this association, a meeting of all such electors was appointed for the 1st of February at Jackson, and the 8th of February was designated for similar meetings in each of the counties of the State to form county associations. This organization having been effected, a day was to be named by the Central Committee for the holding of a new State convention, "to consider our State and Federal relations." The committee afterward appointed the 19th of February for this convention, and called on all the county associations to send delegates.

In the mean time a convention of Republicans met at Jackson, on the 5th and 6th of February, and nominated candidates for the State offices, to be voted for at the election for taking the vote on the ratification of the constitution. Their candidate for Governor was B. B. Eggleston, the presiding officer of the Constitutional Convention. The following was the Republican platform:

Resolved, That we hereby renew the pledge of our adherence to the principles and organization of the Republican party, recognizing as the main principles of that party the sentiments of "equal rights to all," and "unwavering fidelity to the Union," that, come what may, in weal or woe, in victory or defeat, we will stand by these principles, and never lower the standard of Republicanism.

Resolved, That we cannot withhold the expression of our implicit confidence in General Ulysses S. Grant, who was true to the country in war, and will not desert it in peace.

Resolved, That each and every member of this State Convention, hereby pledges all his influence to ratify the new constitution and to support the Republican nominees.

The Democrats met in convention on the 13th of February, in accordance with the call of their Central Committee, and occupied two days in the consideration of their "State and Federal relations." The results of their deliberations were embodied in a voluminous series of resolutions, reaffirming their confidence in the principles and policy of the national Democratic party, and denouncing in unmeasured terms the course of their political opponents in all public matters over which they had exercised any control. They declared it to be their deliberate opinion that "the defeat of Radicalism, in the approaching political struggle, constitutes the only hope which the American people can reasonably cherish for the restoration of constitutional liberty to ourselves and the coming generations of our posterity; and that it is the duty of all men, of all political parties, and of every section of the Republic, who venerate the Constitution framed by their wise and heroic fathers, and who desire the restoration of constitutional

liberty, heartily to unite their energies in the coming political struggle against the Radical party, and never cease their labors until that odious and dangerous faction shall have been hurled from power."

Some of the "enormities of the Radical party" were summed up in the following resolution:

Resolved, That the history of the Radical party proves that they are unprincipled enemies of liberty, in this: That they have corruptly and repeatedly violated the Federal Constitution; that they hold ten sovereign States of the Union under an actual military despotism, taxing the people thereof enormously, and refusing them the right of representation in the councils of the nation; that they are, even now, engaged in the work of Africanizing the Southern States, establishing negro rule and negro supremacy, and elevating the black race, politically, over the free-born white citizens of the South, and, in violation of the Constitution, giving to negroes the elective franchise; that they are about usurping all the powers of government, and grasping, through the legislative department, supreme executive and judicial power, thus making themselves daring innovators and remorseless tyrants, and destroying the last remnant of that liberty once enjoyed by the nation; that their corrupt and despotic principles, if successful, will inevitably ruin and degrade the Republic; that, although the Radical party consists of a mere minority of the people, as clearly shown by the recent elections, they nevertheless continue to defy the voice of the nation, and arrogantly assume to wield the legislative power which they hold under the mere forms of the Constitution, for the consummation of their wicked party schemes, the oppression of the masses, and the establishment of a huge military despotism in the land, under which constitutional liberty will be utterly annihilated; that they have already destroyed the prosperity of the nation by paralyzing commerce and crippling industrial pursuits, whereby multiplied thousands of white men, women, and children, not only in the South, but also in the North and West, have been thrown out of employment and reduced to actual want and suffering; that they are expending in the South millions upon millions of dollars in pampering and feeding idle and degraded negroes, as instruments for securing political power, while the white sufferers of the North and West, and the down-trodden masses of the South, remain without consideration, sympathy, or aid; that they are every day increasing our enormous national debt, by extravagance and corruption, thus involving the national finances in irretrievable ruin; that their whole recent party career is marked by injustice and usurpation, and tends toward the permanent destruction of free government on this continent, and to render fruitless the toils and sacrifices of those pure men of the olden time who founded for us a government well designed, when properly administered, to secure to us forever the blessings of liberty, prosperity, and national glory. Such being some of the ruinous practices of the Radical party, we hold them before the august tribunal of the people for judgment at the ballot-box, not doubting but that they will soon perish as a party, under the withering and terrible frowns of an outraged nation of freemen.

The convention disclaimed all intention or desire to take any steps for the restoration of slavery. "We recognize," they said, "the fact that African slavery is forever destroyed in the Southern States, and are resolved that we will, in good faith and willingly, aid in securing to the colored race safety of person and property, and full guarantees against oppression or injustice as freedmen; cherishing

against them no feeling of hostility, and desiring that they may elevate themselves in the scale of humanity by mental culture to any extent of which they are capable; but their ignorance and incapacity to exercise the privilege of suffrage, and to discharge the responsibilities of making laws and holding office, forbid that we consent to invest them with these privileges, or to consent to any legislation designed to establish the political or social equality of the white and black races—much less the subordination of the former to the latter, as advocated by the Radical party."

The supremacy of the Constitution of the United States and the laws made in pursuance thereof was admitted, and it was declared that "whatever may be the opinion of any member of this convention as to the abstract right of secession, no one has the purpose or desire in the future to resort to any measures calculated to weaken the authority or destroy the unity of the Government; but, on the contrary, we avow ourselves friends of a constitutional Union of the States, and will, in good faith, aid in securing the future glory and prosperity of our common country, and cultivating a spirit of fraternity and peace amongst the people of all sections."

It was further laid down as a part of the political creed of the party that the State had never been out of the Union, and, therefore, as Congress had no power over the right of suffrage, the provisions of the State constitution had the only binding authority on that subject; and "white males of the age of twenty-one and upward and citizens of the United States were alone qualified electors and office-holders" in the State. With regard to the Constitutional Convention, it was—

Resolved, That the pretended Constitutional Convention, now in session at the capital of Mississippi, and which assumes to frame a constitution and form of civil government for the people of said State, is assembled without constitutional authority, not elected by the qualified electors of the State, nor by virtue of the laws of the land; that the acts of Congress, under which military elections were held, for the purpose of polling negro votes, to elect the members of said convention, were not within the delegated powers of Congress, and confer no authority on said convention; that the constituents of said convention are chiefly negroes, destitute alike of the moral and intellectual qualifications required of electors in all civilized communities, combined with a small minority of white adventurers from other States; that the majority of said convention faithfully reflect the peculiarities of their constituents; that their projected acts demonstrate them to be the enemies of the people of Mississippi, who have constituted the State from its territorial infancy to the present time; that, under the fraudulent pretence of framing a constitution and civil government for the State, they are wickedly conspiring to disfranchise and degrade the people, to rob them, alike, of their liberty and their property, to destroy their social and political status, and finally place them under the yoke of a negro government.

After having expressed its bitter hostility to the reconstruction measures, and its determination to defeat the ratification of the new con-

stitution, the convention finished its platform with a resolve that a committee of five be appointed to prepare an address to the people of the State, "explanatory of the principles and views which govern this organization."

An address to the Democratic Associations of the State of Mississippi, signed by John D. Freeman, chairman of the Executive Committee, was published on the 27th of April, reiterating in the strongest language the sentiments which animated the party in this political campaign, and calling upon the people for renewed activity and "eternal vigilance" to "defeat the Radical constitution now, and succeed in the presidential contest," and so "preserve the present constitution and laws." A plan of organization, including a constitution and set of by-laws, was framed, and submitted to the county associations for their acceptance. It was declared that the Republican organization was "secret and oath-bound," and under its "baleful influence" the negroes might be made to sanction a "fearful crime against themselves and the superior race on which they depend for all that is valuable in life." "It is the mission of the Democratic party as now organized," the address continues, "to save them from political suicide and the Government from absolute overthrow."

"Then let the lovers of liberty assemble, organize, and prepare for the great work before them. There is a registered majority of seventeen thousand votes to overcome in this State—it was that majority that elected the present military convention by negro votes—they will soon put forth a constitution for the disfranchisement, impoverishment, and degradation of the white race—let the foreign invader and the domestic foe feel the power of those they seek to destroy."

Another convention was called by the State Central Committee, to meet, on the 12th of May, at the capital. The convention met accordingly, and determined to nominate candidates to be voted for at the approaching election, but declared that such candidates should be "nominated with a view to secure the defeat of the constitution, and with reference to the preservation of the honor of Mississippi and the maintenance of the constitutional freedom of her people, disregarding any tests of qualification whatever not prescribed in the present constitution of Mississippi and of the United States." The Democracy of the several counties were called upon to disregard local questions and personal considerations, and unite their energies for the election of men of "unquestioned fidelity to the social and political institutions of the State." With regard to the presidential election, the following was adopted:

That inasmuch as there is strong ground for belief that the aforesaid constitution will be rejected by the people of this State, and that they will not therefore be permitted to participate in the presidential election, it is deemed inexpedient to nominate candidates for presidential electors at the present time,

but, if necessity should hereafter arise for such action, the power is hereby vested in the State Executive Committee to make the said nominations, or to reassemble this convention for that purpose, as shall be deemed expedient.

The zeal of the Democrats was not wholly expended in State conventions and addresses to the associations, but mass meetings were held in all parts of the state, and the ablest men of the party were put into the field to rouse up the people to hostility against the new constitution. Meantime the canvass was carried on by the Republicans in the constitutional convention, and through an organization, said to be more or less secret in its character, known as the "Loyal League." In an address to the freedmen of Mississippi, published in June, the Democratic Executive Committee denounced this Loyal League, and warned the freedmen to have nothing to do with it. It was organized, they declared, by James Lynch, a colored preacher from Philadelphia, "as an oath-bound, secret, religious society," and all the members were sworn to vote the Republican ticket. This address to the freedmen closes with this paragraph:

Freedmen of Mississippi, look before you leap. There is an awful gulf now yawning before you. The vote you may cast in this election may be decisive of your fate. If you abandon the people with whom you have ever lived and who now invite you to their protection for the future, you cast your destiny with an enemy between whom and us there is eternal war. The system of plunder and robbery they have inaugurated by their convention proceedings can never be indorsed by any people. The entire products of the earth and the industry of the people cannot support the burdens they impose. The State and all its interests will wither in their hands and become as sterile and denuded as the sands of Sahara.

An order was issued from the military headquarters at Vicksburg, on the 19th of May, giving full directions with regard to effecting a registration of the qualified electors of the State, and laying down the rules to be observed in the conduct of the election, which was to be held on the 22d and following days of June. Precautions were taken to prevent fraud and preserve the peace, by the following sections of the order:

7. None but registered voters will be permitted to challenge the right of others to vote, and no challenge except as to residence and identity will be entertained. While it is the imperative duty of the commissioners to do their utmost to insure the purity of the election, care must be taken to prevent the abuse of the right to challenge by evil-disposed persons, who may desire to impede the election.

8. The sheriff of each county is made responsible for the preservation of good order, and the perfect freedom of the ballot at the various election precincts in the county. To this end he will appoint a deputy—who shall be duly qualified under the laws of the State—for each precinct in the county, who will be required to be present at the place of voting during the whole time the election is being held. The said deputies will promptly and fully obey every demand made upon their official services, in preserving the peace and good order, by the commissioners of election. Sheriffs, in making their appointments, will exercise great care to select men whom they know

to be in every way able to serve. Deputies, appointed in accordance with the foregoing, will be paid five dollars for the day's service, on accounts approved by the registrar, out of the reconstruction fund.

9. As an additional measure for securing the purity of the election, each registrar, judge, and clerk, is hereby clothed with all the functions of a deputy-sheriff, or constable, and is empowered to make arrests, and authorized to perform all duties appertaining to such officers under the laws of the State, during the days of election.

10. At every precinct on the days of election, all public bar-rooms, saloons, or other places at which intoxicating or malt liquor is sold at retail, will be closed. Should any infraction in this respect come to the knowledge of the commissioners of election, or the deputy sheriff in attendance, they will immediately cause the arrest of the offending party, or parties, and the closing of his, or their, place of business. All parties so arrested will be placed under bonds, of not less than one hundred dollars, to appear for trial when required by proper authority, or, in case of failure to give the required bond, will be held in arrest to await the action of the general commanding.

11. The carrying of fire-arms or other deadly weapons at or in the vicinity of the polls is positively prohibited under penalty of forfeiture of the weapons, and of being punished as prescribed by the statutes of the State forbidding the exhibition of deadly weapons in a threatening manner. All arms seized under this order will be turned in to the nearest post commander, for shipment to the chief ordnance officer of the district.

12. Should violence or fraud be perpetrated at the election in any precinct, the general commanding will exercise to the fullest extent the powers vested in him, for the purpose of allowing to all registered electors an opportunity to vote freely and fearlessly, and any provision in any contract tending to abridge the right to vote is hereby declared utterly null and void.

13. No registrar, judge, or clerk, will be permitted to become a candidate for any office in this State at this election, nor will they be permitted to exercise the functions of any office, or authority, connected with the election, other than that received from these headquarters.

14. The evident intention of the law under which this election is held being to obtain an expression of the will of the qualified electors, it is ordered, that all officers of the army and agents of the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, shall entirely abstain from public speaking, electioneering, or endeavoring to influence voters; but this order is not intended to restrict either class of the above-named officials their duty of instructing freedmen as to their rights as electors.

On the 4th of June, General Irwin McDowell, who had been appointed to the command of the Fourth Military District on the 28th of December, 1867, assumed the duties of that position. The first order issued by the new commander, after that by which he assumed command, was the following, making an important change in the executive administration of the State:

General Orders, No. 23.

HEADQUARTERS, FOURTH MILITARY DISTRICT,
DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI AND ARKANSAS,
Vicksburg, Miss., June 15, 1868.

1. Major-General Adelbert Ames is appointed, temporarily, Provisional Governor of the State of Mississippi, vice Benjamin G. Humphreys, hereby removed.
2. Captain Jasper Meyers is appointed, temporarily, Attorney-General of the State of Mississippi, vice C. E. Hooker, hereby removed.
3. The officers appointed, as above, will repair without delay to Jackson, and enter immediately

upon the duties of their respective offices. They will receive no other compensation than their pay and allowances as officers of the army.

By command of Brevet Maj.-Gen. McDOWELL.
JOHN TYLER, First Lieutenant, 43d Infantry,
Brevet-Major, U. S. A., A. A. A. G.
NATHANIEL WOLFE, Second Lieut. 34th Infantry,
A. A. A. G.

On the 16th General Ames notified Governor Humphreys of his appointment to succeed the latter, and wished to be informed when it would be convenient to receive him "for the purpose of making such arrangements as may be necessary to carry into effect the order." Mr. Humphreys delayed his reply until the 22d, and then informed General Ames that he regarded the attempt to remove him from the office of Governor as a "usurpation of the civil government of Mississippi—unwarranted by and in violation of the Constitution of the United States." He also stated that he had telegraphed to the President of the United States, and was authorized to say that he disapproved the order making the removal. "I must therefore," says Mr. Humphreys, "in view of my duty to the constitutional rights of the people of Mississippi, and this disapproval of the President of the United States, refuse to vacate the office of Governor, or surrender the archives and public property of the State, until a legally qualified successor under the constitution of the State of Mississippi is appointed." On the next day General Biddle, commander of the post of Jackson, demanded the surrender of the Governor's office. This being refused, a squadron of soldiers marched in and took possession. Mr. Humphreys fitted up another room in the building for an office, and still claimed to be Governor of the State, and his family was allowed for some days to occupy a part of the Mansion House. Meantime the election took place and resulted adversely to the new constitution. After this event, the following correspondence took place in relation to the possession of the Governor's mansion. It contains its own explanation:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, STATE OF MISSISSIPPI, }
JACKSON, Miss., July 6, 1868. }

Hon. B. G. Humphreys:

SIR: Soon after my arrival here as Provisional Governor, I notified you that you might continue to occupy the Governor's mansion. Since then I have had cause to change my mind in the matter.

You will oblige me by vacating the mansion at as early a day as convenient.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
A. AMES, Provisional Governor.

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, STATE OF MISSISSIPPI, }
JACKSON, Miss., July 7, 1868. }

Gen. A. Ames:

SIR: Your letter of the 6th inst., informing me that I would oblige you by vacating the "mansion" at as early a day as convenient, was duly received through the post-office of this city.

The Governor's mansion was built by the taxpayers of Mississippi only for the use and occupancy of their constitutional Governors and their families. They elected me to that office in 1865, and I, with my family, have been in peaceable, quiet, and legal possession ever since. At the recent election, the qualified voters of the State, both white and colored,

have, by the largest popular vote ever cast in this State, unmistakably expressed their desire for my continuance in the use and occupancy of the mansion as their constitutional Governor. In view of this expressed desire of the just and lawful owners that this property remain in the continuous possession of their own chosen custodian, and from the further fact that the mere occupancy of the mansion by my family cannot operate as an impediment to the just administration of the reconstruction laws of Congress, I must respectfully decline to oblige yourself or others, by vacating the mansion until a legally qualified Governor is elected under the constitution of the State.

Very respectfully, BENJ. G. HUMPHREYS.

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, STATE OF MISSISSIPPI, }
JACKSON, Miss., July 9, 1868. }

Hon. B. H. Humphreys:

SIR: I have been informed (it is possible that my information is incorrect) that you do not find it convenient to vacate the Governor's mansion.

I presume it is because of the difficulty in finding any other fit residence. It is my wish to put you to as little personal inconvenience as possible. Under the above supposition, I have no objection to your occupying a part of the house. Next Monday, by which time you can make the necessary arrangements, I, with others, will take possession of a part of the house. So long as we may remain joint tenants, great care shall be taken not to inconvenience your family.

Very respectfully, yours, etc.,
A. AMES, Provisional Governor.

JACKSON, Miss., July 9, 1868.

General A. Ames:

SIR: Your letter of the 9th was received this morning. It will be disagreeable to myself and family to share the apartments of the Governor's mansion with other permanent tenants. I hope my letter of the 8th will be satisfactory, and relieve us from any such annoyance.

Very respectfully,
BENJ. G. HUMPHREYS.

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, STATE OF MISSISSIPPI, }
JACKSON, Miss., July 10, 1868. }

Hon. B. G. Humphreys:

SIR: Yours of the 8th and 9th were received this morning.

You entirely ignore the reconstruction acts of Congress, and the action taken by those empowered to act under them. I recognize no other authority. Under such circumstances, your statement, by which you would show yourself the lawful Governor of this State, has little weight.

The feeling entertained not only by me, but by others, not to cause you any personal inconvenience, has, through your own action, ceased to exist.

The controversy about the "mansion" can only terminate as indicated in my letter of yesterday.

Very respectfully,
A. AMES, Brevet-Major-General U. S. A.,
Provisional Governor.

HEADQUARTERS, POST OF JACKSON, }
JACKSON, Miss., July 13, 1868. }

Hon. B. G. Humphreys:

SIR: General Ames, the Provisional Governor of this State, has called upon me, as the officer in command of this post, to gain possession of one-half of the mansion now occupied by you.

I send Lieutenant Baché, with a guard of men, to see that Governor Ames's request is carried out. Lieutenant Baché will hand you this letter.

I do not desire to use force if I can help it, but he will be instructed to do so if necessary. I wish to avoid all unpleasantness to yourself and family, but if you desire, for political purposes, to have a military "pantomime," I have also instructed Lieutenant Baché to carry it out with all the appearances of a reality, without actual indignity.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
JAMES BIDDLE,
Captain and Lieut.-Col., U. S. A., commanding post.

The thorough organization of the Democratic party, and the active canvass carried on throughout the entire campaign preceding the election of June 22d, had the intended effect, and a large proportion of the negroes in the State either abstained from voting altogether, or cast their ballots against the ratification of the constitution. The whole vote on that question was 120,091, of which 56,231 were for, and 63,860 against the ratification; giving the Democrats a majority of 7,629, notwithstanding the alleged fact that a considerable majority of the registered voters were blacks. The vote for Governor was nearly the same as that on the constitution; B. B. Eggleston, the Republican candidate, received 55,250 votes, and Benjamin B. Humphreys 63,321, which gave a Democratic majority of 8,071. Five members of Congress were chosen, four of whom were Democrats. The Legislature, if ever allowed to assemble, will have a small Democratic majority. There were numerous charges of fraud and intimidation at the polls, but General Gillem stated in his report that the military force was distributed at nearly as many posts in the State as there were counties, in order to secure a fair election, and that no instance of violence or intimidation was reported by the officers in charge. Though charges of fraud were made on both sides, the commanding-general declared himself satisfied that "the election was as fair and free from intimidation and the influence of fraud as it would be possible to secure under existing circumstances, and that no undue influence was exercised at the polls."

General Gillem, who was very popular with the people of Mississippi, had been appointed, in July, to relieve General McDowell in the command of the Fourth Military District, which had been reduced to the single State of Mississippi, by the consummation of the "reconstruction" of Arkansas by act of Congress. (See ARKANSAS.)

The State, having refused to comply with the conditions imposed by Congress for its restoration to the Union, remained under the military rule which had been placed over it, and several instances occurred of the immediate exercise of the authority of the district commander in matters ordinarily under the sole control of the civil powers. The question now came up, as to whether the State would be allowed to participate in the presidential election. On the 11th of August, the Democratic Executive Committee determined to publish an address to the Democracy of the North, expressive of their cordial sympathy, and protesting against "the law of Congress passed in violation of the declared objects of the war, to prohibit Mississippi from performing her duty and exercising her privilege of casting her vote in the presidential election." The address was accordingly published, and expressed anew the opposition of the conservative people of the State to the course of the Federal Government and of the Republican party, in deal-

ing with their interests. A few days later General John D. Freeman, the chairman of this committee, addressed a note to General Gillem, stating that a general election for presidential electors was to be held in November, and that the laws of that State made it the duty of the sheriffs to hold the election. It was usual, he said, for the Governor to issue a proclamation requiring the sheriffs to perform that duty, but the Governor, having been removed by the military authorities, the people now looked to the commanding general "to require the law in this respect to be executed." The commanding general replied, informing Mr. Freeman that "neither the act of March 2, 1867, organizing this military district, nor any of the acts supplementary thereto, nor any existing orders, either require or authorize him to cause the election referred to by you to be held, and that, therefore, he declines taking the action indicated in your communication." To this Mr. Freeman rejoined in an elaborate attempt to show that it was made the duty of the commander, by the laws under which he acted, to hold this election, and appealed to the General of the Army and the President of the United States for a decision in this matter. In consequence of this appeal, as is supposed, Army Order No. 82, dated October 10th, was issued by direction of the President, forbidding the military commanders to interfere in the presidential election in their respective districts. Nevertheless the necessary authority was not exercised in Mississippi, though General Gillem was again appealed to, and that State took no part in the election of November.

It was claimed by the Republicans of Mississippi that, but for fraud and intimidation at the June election, the result would have been quite different; and on the 25th of November a convention was held at Jackson, for the purpose of petitioning Congress to set aside the result of that election as officially announced by the district commander, by throwing out the vote of several counties, and pronounce the constitution adopted and the Republican candidates duly elected to all the State offices. The address adopted by the convention, and transmitted to Congress, declared that there was a large class of persons in the State arrogating to themselves the title of "the ruling class," which "in defiance of the authority, and regardless of the wishes of Congress, has rejected in contempt all terms of restoration, and has itself assumed the right to dictate on what conditions the State will condescend to be readmitted into the Union." With regard to frauds and intimidations, the following is the statement of the address:

From the 15th day of May, 1868, the day on which the constitution, framed by the Constitutional Convention of Mississippi, in accordance with the reconstruction acts of Congress, was submitted to the people, to the 22d of June, the date on which the election for its ratification or rejection was authorized to be held, there existed throughout a greater part of the

State a reign of terror. Loyal and peaceable citizens were driven from their homes, threatened with violence and death. Public speakers, by threats and intimidations, were prevented from meeting their appointments, or were driven from the stand by lawless mobs. An organization of armed and disguised men, calling itself a Ku-Klux Klan, perambulated the country by night, committing outrages and murders, defying detection, or being aided and abetted by officers of the law, who made no effort to bring them to punishment. The poor, dependent classes of our loyal fellow-citizens were threatened with starvation, and discharge from service, with violence and death, if they failed to vote in accordance with the dictates of their disloyal employers, said employers habitually denouncing the Congress of the United States, as an unconstitutional and revolutionary body of men, that ought to be dispersed by force or otherwise.

By bribes, threats, misrepresentations, fraud, and violence, thousands of our fellow-citizens were coerced into voting against their will, and against their honest convictions of right and duty, or were forced to withhold their votes altogether. Many have been murdered. And disfranchised people, who had forfeited all their just rights as citizens, by conspiring by armed force to throw off their allegiance to the Government of the United States, stood guard at the polls, to overawe the timid, and mark for future condemnation and persecution all those who defied their tyranny.

In many counties the state of affairs herein enumerated prevailed to such an extent that there existed not even the semblance of a free election. This malignant and unscrupulous opposition to the generous terms of reconciliation offered by Congress, and against the upholders and supporters of the same, has, in our opinion, no just excuse, and can be founded only on a desire to harass the public mind, by parading before it issues long since settled by the sword, and which ought now to be forgotten.

Among the resolutions adopted by the convention were the following:

1. That we, the loyal people of the State of Mississippi, in convention assembled, do solemnly declare that said constitution was ratified by a majority of the legal votes cast at that election.
2. That the Republican State ticket—viz., Governor, B. B. Eggleston; Lieutenant-Governor, A. J. Jamison; Secretary of State, Robert J. Alcorn; State Treasurer, D. McA. Williams; State Auditor, William J. Morgan; Attorney-General, Joshua S. Morris, and Superintendent of Public Education, Charles W. Clark—were duly elected by a majority of the legal votes cast at that election.
3. That it is for the best interest of the people of the State of Mississippi that civil government be established at the earliest practicable moment.
4. That we appeal to the Congress of the United States, the law-making power of this nation, to readmit the State of Mississippi into the great national family, and clothe her, under the new constitution of the State, and under the Constitution of the United States, with all the rights and powers of a sovereign State in the Union.

Such was the political state of things in Mississippi at the close of the year 1868.

Notwithstanding the political excitement of the year, much was done toward reviving the material interests of the State. A large convention of land-owners, from the States of Mississippi, Alabama, Tennessee, and Louisiana, was held at Jackson, on the 31st of March, for the purpose of organizing companies—each to be called "The Freehold Land and Colonization Company of ———," and of encouraging

immigration and the influx of capital into that section of the country. A scheme for the organization of these companies was formed, and a plan of action laid down.

The freedmen employed as laborers during the year in most cases received a share of the crops as compensation. A fair crop of cotton and the other staples of the State was obtained.

MISSOURI. The increase of population in Missouri, during the last four years, has been very rapid. On the 1st of January, 1865, the State had less than one million inhabitants, and, at the close of the year 1868, the best estimates placed the number above one million and a half. This result has been due in a great measure to the labor of the State Board of Immigration, organized under an act of the Legislature of 1865. It has been the business of this Board to make known abroad the resources of the State, and induce immigrants from Europe to make their home there. The undeveloped resources of Missouri, which call only for laborers, are very great; coal is found in thirty-six counties, iron in thirty-five, lead in thirty-six, copper in twenty-two, zinc in five, nickel and kaolin in two, and platina, emery, alabaster, and tin, in seven counties, while the best of lands for farming purposes are lying fallow for want of cultivators. The laboring population amounts to about 400,000, of whom 272,000 are employed in agricultural pursuits, leaving only 118,000 for all other occupations, and of these less than 60,000 are engaged in mining and manufacturing operations, although the State presents great natural facilities for the development of these valuable interests.

The assessed value of all real and personal property in the State of Missouri in 1860 was \$317,928,404.30, including slaves, valued at \$44,181,912. The losses of the war and the emancipation of slaves reduced the wealth of the State to \$200,000 on the 1st of January, 1865. Since that time there has been a steady increase, and the taxable property of the Commonwealth on the 31st of December, 1868, was stated at \$474,000,000. On this property, a tax of one-fourth of one per cent. is levied for the payment of the public debt. The total bonded debt of the State is \$18,654,000, the semi-annual interest on which amounts to \$567,565. The surplus of the interest fund is invested each year in bonds of the United States, to form a sinking fund: \$48,000 of the war debt still remain to be disposed of, but there was on the 1st of October a balance of \$464,637.89 in the Union military fund, which, after liquidating the remnant of the debt, will be transferred to the credit of the interest fund. The claims of the State against the Federal Government for reimbursement for military expenses, incurred during the war, have all been settled, and the Treasury has received therefrom \$6,472,289.35, which has been applied as follows:

To a permanent school fund created by act of 11th of March, 1867	\$1,500,000 00
To reimburse the seminary fund	108,364 45
To redemption of Union military bonds ..	1,683,232 27
To payment of overdue coupons	3,070,682 63
To payment of overdue bonds and coupons of the State held by the United States	110,010 00
Total	\$6,472,289 35

More than \$13,000,000 of the present State debt was incurred by issuing bonds to aid in the construction of railroads, the payment of which was secured by a lien on the property. The process of transferring the property acquired in railroads by the State to private capitalists, on such terms as shall secure the speedy completion of the lines, has been continued through the year, and a considerable share of attention was given by the last Legislature to an adjustment of railroad affairs. There are now 1,394 miles of finished road in the State, and 569 miles in process of construction.

The North Missouri Railroad has been completed. It embraces 374½ miles of road, and, with its various branches, connects St. Louis with the great agricultural region of the north and northwest. Work on the bridge across the Missouri River, at St. Charles, has made rapid progress, and will be finished without delay. The State claim on this railroad has been sold in accordance with an act of the last General Assembly, the whole amount paid in money and secured by bond being \$800,000. A deed of release has also been executed to the Pacific Railroad Company, under an act of March 31, 1868, whereby a clear title has been given to the Pacific Railroad of Missouri for the sum of \$5,000,000. Provision was also made for the disposal of the South Pacific Railroad, and in the hands of enterprising private capitalists it is making rapid progress, and promises soon to connect the Territories to the southwest with the great metropolis of the Mississippi Valley, and, through that, put that region in communication with the Eastern part of the country. Its value in the development of New Mexico and Texas will be very great. By an act of the last Legislature, it was provided that the Missouri Valley Railroad Company should pay off its indebtedness to the State by extending the road, at the rate of \$120,000 for every mile of road constructed. An act was also passed directing the St. Louis and Iron Mountain Railroad to pay its debt to the State by building a road from Pilot Knob to the State line of Arkansas, and this arrangement was promptly accepted by the company. The St. Joseph and Council Bluffs Railroad has been completed, and passes for 80 miles through one of the most fertile districts of the State. The Osage Valley and Southern Kansas Railroad has been built from Boonville to Tipton, a distance of 25 miles. Among the projected lines is one from the Mississippi to the Missouri River *via* Macon. The great

interest of this, as well as several other Western States, at present seems to be the building of railroads as an agency in the development of the country. It is with this view that liberal aid has been granted to it by the Legislature during a period when it would be wholly unremunerative if undertaken by private individuals alone.

The public eleemosynary institutions of Missouri are under very efficient management, but the growing wants of the State demand more ample provisions for the unfortunate and the vicious. The State Penitentiary contains seven hundred and thirty-five convicts, and the accommodations afforded by the present buildings are quite inadequate, and new structures are already in progress. Under the provisions of the act of December, 1865, two hundred and twenty convicts have been pardoned, and a similar leniency has been shown in one hundred and ninety-seven cases not falling under the provisions of that law. The State Insane Asylum is overcrowded, but a new institution of the kind, in course of construction by the city and county of St. Louis, will afford ample additional accommodations. The Institution for the Blind is in a prosperous condition, and seems to be all that is required for the wants of the unfortunate persons committed to its care. The Deaf and Dumb Asylum is full, and requires enlargement.

The public schools of the State are in a promising condition. The whole number of children in the State between the ages of five and twenty-one is 544,664, of whom 510,183 are white and 34,481 colored. For the instruction of these, 6,040 school-houses with 7,100 teachers are supplied by the State. The permanent school fund now amounts to \$1,689,760, from the income of which \$92,793 were distributed to the counties during the year to aid in the support of schools. The portion of revenue tax set apart for the same purpose amounted to \$217,011.60. The State has no system of normal schools, but for two years past a series of "teachers' institutes" has been organized in nearly all the counties, and does a very useful work in the way of training teachers for their peculiar duties. The State University provided for by the constitution has been put in prosperous operation with a full corps of instructors. A normal department was added by an act of the last Legislature, and is already working successfully. A military department has been organized, where civil engineering and military tactics are taught under the direction of a distinguished army officer, assigned to that duty under a law of the United States; and it is proposed to establish a department for teaching the branches of learning which pertain to agriculture and the mechanic arts, so as to enable the university to avail itself of the donation of land made to the State under act of Congress of July 2, 1862, for the purpose of founding an Agricultural and Mechanical College. The present endowment of the State Uni-

versity amounts to \$123,707.50, yielding an income for the past year of \$10,677.50, which was increased by direct appropriations to \$22,065.50.

Before giving an account of the action of the two political parties in the excited campaign of the year, it may be well to present a synopsis of the registration act passed by the last Legislature, which contains some provisions intended to guard the privilege of voting even more rigidly than had been done hitherto in the State of Missouri. The law makes it the duty of the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to appoint a superintendent of registration in each senatorial district every year in which a general election takes place. The Board of Registration in each county is to be appointed by the superintendent, and all the registry officers are to qualify by taking the "oath of loyalty and oath of office, prescribed in the sixth and thirteenth sections of the second article of the constitution." After prescribing some of the general duties of the officers having charge of the registration of voters, the act lays down the following:

SECTION 8. In the books furnished to the Board of Registration as aforesaid, there shall be printed or written the oath of loyalty aforesaid, followed by space sufficient for every voter to subscribe his name and place of residence thereunder, and, in cities having streets and houses numbered, the street and number of each voter's residence shall be placed opposite his name; and no person shall be registered as a qualified voter unless he appear before the said Board, and take and subscribe said oath, except in the cases provided for in the twenty-third and twenty-fourth sections of the second article of the constitution; for persons relieved from disqualifications under the said twenty-third section, a separate oath shall be written or printed in said book, in conformity with the constitution, to be taken and subscribed by them. If any person subscribe either of said oaths by making his mark, his signature shall be witnessed by a member of the Board of Registration, by signing his name opposite thereto. Every person so registering shall write his first Christian name in full, and if his signature is so illegible as to be difficult to read or copy, a registering officer shall immediately in his presence, write the name legibly in a side column or space on the register; provided that if any person entitled to registration under the provisions of this act shall, from any cause, not appear before the Board of Registration of his respective district, he may transmit to said Board, or to the Board of Review, a written or printed copy of the oath of loyalty, signed by writing his name thereunder, and sworn to before an officer properly authorized to administer oaths. And the oath so signed and sworn to shall be preserved and filed in the office of the Clerk of the County Court, with the books of registration.

SEC. 9. The Board of Registration shall have power to examine, under oath, any person applying for registration, as to his qualifications as a voter; and they shall, before entering the name of any person on the registry of qualified voters, diligently inquire and ascertain that he has not done any of the acts specified in the constitution as causes of disqualification, and if, from their own knowledge or evidence brought before them, they shall be satisfied that any person seeking registration is disqualified under any provision of the constitution, they shall not enter his name on the list of qualified voters, though he may have taken and subscribed before them the oath of loyalty aforesaid; but shall, if he has taken and sub-

scribed such oath, enter his name on a separate list of persons rejected as voters; and in connection with such entry they shall also note every appeal from their decision by making an entry of the fact opposite the name of the party taking such appeal. The Board of Registration, or any member thereof, shall have power to administer oaths to all parties appearing before them for registration or as witnesses.

"On the six secular days next preceding the tenth day before the general election," the supervisor of registration of each county, in connection with the Board of Registration of the county, are required to meet as a Board of Review to revise the lists previously made. "If such Board of Review shall be satisfied that any person applying to be placed on the list of voters could not have appeared before the Board of Registration in his election district, without great inconvenience, they shall so place his name, if entitled to be registered as a voter, on the list of the election district in which he resides. If the Board shall be fully satisfied, from the testimony brought before them, that any person has been rejected by the Board of Registration wrongfully and without sufficient cause, they shall place the name of such person on the list of voters of the election district in which he resides; or if it satisfactorily appears to the Board from their own knowledge, or testimony brought before them, that any person has been placed on the list of voters of any election district of said county who has done any of the things named in the constitution as disqualifying a person to be a voter, they shall strike from the list of voters the name of such person. Objections to persons whose names have been registered by the Board of Registration may be made on the first, second, third, or fourth day of the sitting of the Board; and the name of no person previously registered shall be stricken from the list of registered voters unless such person shall have had two days' previous notice of the time and place when such objection would be heard and considered. Such notice shall be given in either of the following methods: 1. At the time such person is registered by any citizen, and if such notice be then given, it shall be the duty of the officer of registration to mark opposite the name of such person the words 'objected to,' and the name of the objector. 2. By notice in writing, signed by the person objecting or by a member of the Board, to be served as ordinary summons is served. 3. By posting up such notice conspicuously in the office of the county clerk, and at the voting precinct in the election district where the person sought to be affected resides, signed by the party objecting, or by a member of the Board of Review."

The Board of Registration is required to elect three judges of election for each district, and to deliver to them the completed registration lists. Very strict regulations are made with regard to transferring names in case of the removal of qualified voters from one election district to another, and heavy penalties

are attached to all attempts at fraudulent voting or registration. When any person has voted, the word "voted" is required to be written opposite his name, and, in case a vote is rejected, the word "rejected" is placed against the name of the person offering the vote. Severe penalties are imposed upon any member of a Board of Registration who "shall knowingly enter upon the register of qualified voters the name of any person not entitled to registration, or shall wilfully and corruptly exclude therefrom the name of any person applying for registration and lawfully entitled thereto." On the other hand, extraordinary powers are given to the Board of Registration and Board of Review by the following section:

SECTION 20. The Boards of Registration and Review, while discharging their duties, shall have and exercise the powers of a circuit court for the preservation of order at and around the place of registration, and may summon and compel the attendance of witnesses for the purpose of ascertaining the qualifications of persons registered or applying for registration, and to that end may issue subpoenas, attachments, and commitments to any sheriff or constable, who shall serve such process as if issued by such court, and shall receive the same fees therefor as allowed by law for such services in State cases. All papers, writs, etc., issued by said Board, may be signed by either member of the Board, and shall have the same force and effect as if signed by the whole Board, but no fee shall be charged by said Board for any process so issued; the serving of subpoenas to be paid out of the county treasury, and attachments and commitments by the person against whom they are issued.

Special precautions are required in the city and county of St. Louis, and printed lists of the qualified voters are to be used in place of the registration books. In that city, "the judge to whom any ticket shall be delivered shall, upon receipt thereof, pronounce in an audible voice the name of the voter, and, if the judges shall be satisfied that the person offering to vote is a legal voter, his ticket shall be placed in the ballot-box, without inspecting the names written or printed thereon, or permitting any other person to do so; before such ticket is placed in the ballot-box, such judge or clerk of election shall number it to correspond with the number opposite to such voter's name on the printed list, as herein provided; and the clerks of election shall check off such voter's name on the list, by writing opposite the same, in the column of remarks, 'voted,' with red ink."

The political campaign was opened in Missouri by a convention of the Democratic party, in St. Louis County, which issued an address to the people of the State, arraigning the Republican party for the policy on which the administration of the State and of the country generally had been conducted since the close of the civil war. A series of resolutions was adopted by the same convention, embodying the substance of the address in condensed form, and closing with a recommendation that a thorough organization be effected in all the towns and wards in the State, and that meet-

ings for that purpose be held simultaneously on the 19th of February.

A Republican Convention was held at St. Louis February 22d, to name delegates to the National Convention at Chicago, and announce the position held by the party on national questions. This announcement was contained in the following series of resolutions:

Resolved, That sovereign political power in our great Commonwealth is vested in the people, and, under the Constitution of the United States, Congress is the representative of that sovereignty.

Resolved, That, in the words of the Declaration of Independence, all men are created equal, and that equal political rights to each and every citizen are the only safeguards of constitutional liberty, and to this end we indorse the reconstruction policy of Congress; and we, the representatives of the Radical Union men of Missouri, in convention assembled, stand ready to accept the responsibility and issues arising therefrom.

Resolved, That, we are in favor of the admission of the States lately in rebellion to full and complete representation in Congress, as soon as they shall give ample guarantees of their future loyalty and fealty to the Government, and of equal political rights to all citizens in such States.

Resolved, That as taxation must remain in proportion to our wealth, and in direct proportion to the value of our productions, we will support only those measures of political economy which tend to increase the agricultural, mechanical, and mineral productions of our country; that the doctrine of Great Britain, Prussia, and other European powers, that "once citizens, always citizens," must be resisted at all hazards by the United States, as a relic of the feudal times not authorized by the law of nations, and at war with our national honor and independence; naturalized citizens are entitled to be protected in all their rights of citizenship, as though they were natural born, and no citizen of the United States, native or naturalized, should be liable to arrest or imprisonment by any foreign power for acts done or words spoken in this country, and, if so arrested and imprisoned, it is the duty of this Government to interpose in behalf of such citizen.

Resolved, That we, the Radical party of the State of Missouri, hereby express our preference for U. S. Grant, as candidate for President of the United States upon the national Republican platform.

The following resolutions were also adopted by the convention, and telegraphed to Secretary Stanton:

Resolved, That the law passed by the Congress of the United States, by the constitutional vote over the veto of the President, is a law of the land, to be obeyed by all, from the highest to the lowest, and that the acting President is as much bound by it as any citizen.

Resolved, That we send greeting to the Radical Congress, and to E. M. Stanton and General Grant, with the assurance that loyal Missouri to a man will stand by them till acting President Johnson and every man of this country shall bow in obedience to the law of the land.

A similar convention of the Democracy was called by the State Central Committee to meet on the 28th of May, and appoint delegates to the New York Convention, but no platform was adopted at that convention, and a proposition to recommend the nomination of George H. Pendleton for the presidency failed to pass.

The regular State Convention of the Republicans was held at Jefferson City on the 16th of July, and nominations for State offices were

made as follows: Governor, Hon. J. W. McClurg, of Camden; Lieutenant-Governor, E. O. Stanard, of St. Louis; Secretary of State, Francis Rodman, of St. Joseph; Treasurer, William Q. Dallmeyer, of Gasconade; Auditor, Daniel M. Draper, of Montgomery. The platform adopted was contained in the following resolutions:

1. *Resolved*, That we heartily approve the declaration of principles adopted by the Republican National Convention, and, believing that the election, upon these principles, of the chief defender of the laws to be their sworn executor will give peace and quiet to the land, and prosperity and happiness to the people, we pledge to its candidates, General Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax, our hearty and united support.

2. That we thank the party called Democratic for unmasking to the country its real designs by the nomination of men whose political creed finds its due interpretation in the declarations which publicly threaten a new revolution, and propose to trample into the dust laws duly enacted; to disperse State governments constitutionally established, and to compel the Senate to submit to such an interpretation of the Constitution as a dictator may give. We appeal to all good citizens of either party, who desire peace, order, and a government of law, to join in putting down this new cause of the rebellion and crushing the madmen who threaten to bring upon us another cruel war.

3. That we, the Republicans of the State of Missouri, particularly indorse the 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th articles of the national platform, and reaffirm that the payment of the national debt is part of the national honor; and good faith and justice are as obligatory upon governments as upon men; and that the spirit of the contract is more of its life even than its letter; and that we spurn and utterly condemn the evasion of our national obligations, as proposed by the Democratic Convention, as ruinous to the nation's credit and its material interests.

4. That a disfranchisement based upon a difference of color only is neither just nor republican, and that we, therefore, unequivocally are in favor of the adoption of the constitutional amendment now pending, that impartial suffrage may be established in Missouri, and that an unjust discrimination born of slavery, the cause of the rebellion, may be forever removed from the laws of the State.

5. That while we believe that the disfranchisement of those who engaged in, aided, or sympathized with rebellion, was not only a legitimate and just consequence of their own conduct, but a necessary measure for the safety of the loyal people of this State, we cherish no revengeful feeling toward those who fought in fair and open battle though for an unjust cause, and stand ready to restore to them every political privilege, at the earliest moment, consistent with State and National safety.

6. That the payment of our seventeen millions of State debt left by former Democratic administrations, the appreciation of the bonds of the State from 83 cents in 1863 when they bore 36 per cent. interest overdue, to 91 cents without overdue interest in 1868; the enlargement of the School Fund; the restoration of the credit of the State, accomplished not only without increase, but with large reductions of taxation, give proof the ability of the Radical party to so manage the finances of the State as to secure its prosperity and guard its honor, and at the same time relieve the tax-payers of all unnecessary burden.

7. That we sternly insist upon the most economical administration of the Government, and that we earnestly recommend to our friends the greatest care and circumspection in their nominations, for public offices, of men of established character and honesty.

The Democratic State Central Committee issued a call on the 1st of June, designating the

5th of August for their State Convention, and recommending county meetings to be held on the 20th of July, to appoint delegates. The convention was held at St. Louis, and nominated John S. Phelps, for Governor; Norman J. Coleman, for Lieutenant-Governor; Bernard Poepping, for Secretary of State; J. A. Hackaday, Attorney-General; Charles C. Rossier, Auditor; Robert Hundthanan, Treasurer. The following is the platform as unanimously adopted:

The Democracy of Missouri, in convention assembled, looking only to living issues and cordially inviting the cooperation of every lover of constitutional liberty, regardless of past or present party associations, do, in view of the condition of the State and nation, proclaim and resolve as follows:

1. That we hail with unbounded satisfaction the nomination of Horatio Seymour and F. P. Blair for President and Vice-President of the United States upon a platform of principles bold, earnest, sound, and truthful; that with fixed purpose and unconquerable zeal we will labor in this canvass to the end that our country may be redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled.

2. While we are willing to protect the colored race from every assault upon their natural rights, we are unalterably opposed to negro suffrage and negro equality, its logical sequence. The proposition now pending in this State to admit to the elective franchise the untutored African while thousands of intelligent, industrious, and law-abiding white men are excluded from the ballot-box, is a gross insult to our race and a ghastly mark of contempt for the commonest principles of justice.

3. That the declaration of the Missouri Radicals in their platform that they "cherish no revengeful feelings toward those who fought in fair, open battle, though for an unjust cause, and stand ready to restore to them every political privilege at the earliest moment consistent with State and national safety," is a transparent falsehood, in view of the fact that, though the reasoning of the United States Supreme Court in the adjudication of cases proves the Missouri test-oath unconstitutional, null, and void, this party of proscription still requires the oath to be administered, and is at the present moment reorganizing its political machinery through the infamous registration law to give a strained and unwarrantable interpretation of that oath.

4. We challenge the world to produce in the whole history of tyranny a parallel to the lawless violence, the harsh oppression, the grinding, inexorable despotism of the Radical party of Missouri in its dealings with the people. The rule of that party has brought utter demoralization into almost every branch of the public service, through its officials and honored representatives has robbed the State of millions of money, lavished countless thousands upon party favorites, and squandered thousands more on useless and extravagant expenditures. Murderers and thieves are eulogized as great citizens and Christian gentlemen; destroyers of a free press, and invaders of peaceful communities are held up for applause and public honor; the plunderers of the Treasury are unimpeached and unindicted; the perpetrators of matchless villanies are welcomed as respectable members of radical Legislatures, radical caucuses, and radical conventions.

5. That we enunciate as a legal proposition that every citizen of lawful age, having resided in the State and county the length of time required by law, has the right of suffrage; but we urge upon every loyal voter in the State to register and vote. While we demand a fair and impartial registration of all qualified voters under the law, we condemn and discountenance any improper interference with, or at-

tempts to intimidate, the registration officers in the proper discharge of their official duties; that, supporting and obeying all laws regularly enacted, the Democracy are the party of law and order, and their accession to power will give peace and tranquility to this distracted land.

6. The condition of our State, no less than the true principles of political and official action, demands frugality and economy, the contraction of expenditures, the lessening of taxation, and, in short, the adoption of a rigid policy of retrenchment and reform.

The registration of qualified voters took place in August and September. The provisions of the new law were regarded with great dissatisfaction by the conservative people of the State, and, as the test-oath had been pronounced unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, it was argued by Democratic newspapers and orators that no citizen would be guilty of legal perjury who should take the oath; and then, if the name of such person was placed on the list of "rejected voters," it was said the burden of proof would fall on the registrars to show that he had been guilty of any disloyal act. The registrars, however, took a different view of the law, and absolutely refused, in many cases, to receive the names of persons who avowed themselves ready to subscribe to the required oath. This led to much bitter feeling, and in some cases to disturbances of the peace, though none of these disorders were of a very aggravated description. It was claimed that the number of persons, who applied for registration, answered all the questions of the registrars, and took the "oath of loyalty," and yet were disfranchised, was not less than twenty thousand, while the whole number disfranchised in the State was placed at thirty thousand.

At the election, which occurred in November, Joseph H. McClurg was chosen for Governor by a majority of 19,328, the whole vote being 144,887: for McClurg 82,107, for Phelps 62,780. The whole vote for presidential electors was 145,459, the majority in favor of the election of Grant being 25,883. The Legislature had again submitted to the vote of the people a proposition to strike the word "white" from the provisions of the constitution relating to the right of suffrage. The whole vote on this amendment was 129,289; 55,236 were given in favor of the change, and 74,053 against it: majority against negro suffrage, 18,817. Nine members of Congress were chosen at the same election, six of whom were Republicans.

A decision was given in the Supreme Court, at the March term, of some general interest, whereby it was determined that the property of Washington University was subject to taxation by the State, notwithstanding a special exemption expressed in its charter. At the time the charter was granted there was nothing prohibiting the Legislature from allowing such exemption, but the present constitution of the State declares that "no property, real or personal, shall be exempt from taxation, except

such as may belong to the United States, to this State, to counties, or to municipal corporations in this State." The legal question mooted was, whether the application of this provision to the property of the Washington University, after an exemption had been allowed by a former Legislature, would be a violation of that clause of the Federal Constitution which forbids the States to pass any law violating the obligations of contracts. The decision of Judge Wagner determines this question in the negative.

The first monument to the memory of a public man ever erected in the State of Missouri was formally dedicated on the 27th of May, in Lafayette Square, in the city of St. Louis, when a fine statue of Thomas H. Benton was unveiled in the presence of a vast concourse of people. The day was observed as a public holiday in St. Louis, and an address was delivered by General Frank P. Blair, Jr., on the life and services of the illustrious Senator. The statue was raised at the instance of the State government, and at the public expense.

The Legislature met on the last Monday in December, and was composed as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republican.....	25	92	117
Democrats	9	35	44
Rep. majority.....	16	57	73

The Governor, in his message, strongly recommended a modification of the test-oaths.

MONAGAS, General JOSÉ TADEO, President and Dictator of Venezuela from 1846 to 1859, and Provisional President of that Republic at the time of his death, born in Venezuela in 1786, died at Caraccas, Venezuela, November 18, 1868. Though of Spanish family, Monagas was from early youth devoted to his native country, and throughout the war which resulted in the independence of the South American provinces from the Spanish yoke he was the friend and comrade of Simon Bolivar, and fought under his leadership. He joined the ranks of the patriot army at the very commencement of the revolution, and soon won distinction by his bravery and ability as a military commander. His services, however, did not secure for him the political preferment which he evidently expected under the new order of things, General Paez being elected first President of Venezuela, and Monagas left altogether out of the Government. The result was that Monagas headed a military insurrection against the Government of Paez, but the attempt proved a failure. Paez was succeeded by Vargas as President, and for the second time Monagas raised the standard of revolt, meeting, however, with no better success than on the previous occasion, Paez again taking the field against him, and promptly putting down the insurrection. In 1846 the ambition of Monagas was gratified by his being elected President, to which Paez contributed his influence, in the hope of giving peace to the country; but two years after Monagas over-

threw the Constitution and usurped dictatorial power, and caused Paez to be driven into exile. He ruled as dictator for eleven years, and was finally overthrown by a successful revolution in 1859, and compelled to retire to private life. The late civil war in Venezuela once more brought him prominently on the stage of action. Notwithstanding his extreme age, he assumed the leadership of the coalition formed against President Falcon, and, taking command of the insurrectionary army, soon compelled Falcon to abdicate and leave the country. On Falcon's departure, in the winter of 1868, Monagas assumed the office of Provisional President, becoming at the same time a candidate for the presidency, to which, had he lived, he would certainly have been elected. He was more remarkable for his energy and soldierly qualities than for any statesmanlike ability. He was one of the wealthiest citizens of Venezuela, his riches consisting principally in vast estates along the banks of the Orinoco, and immense herds of cattle.

MOREHEAD, Hon. CHARLES S., Governor of Kentucky from 1855 to 1859, and prominent as a politician from that State for many years, born in Nelson County, Ky., in 1802; died near Greenville, Washington County, Mississippi, December 23, 1868. He was incorrectly reported dead, after a long and severe illness, October 1, 1866, and a brief notice of his life was inserted in the ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1866. Educated at Transylvania University, his first entrance into political life was in 1828, when he was elected to represent the county of Christian in the State Legislature. Filling the position of Attorney-General under Governor J. T. Morehead in 1834-'36, he, in 1838, represented Franklin County in the Legislature, and was Speaker of the House in 1840-'41-'43 and '44. In 1847 he was first elected to Congress from the Ashland District, and reelected in 1849, participating as a prominent supporter of Mr. Clay in the memorable compromise legislation of 1850. In 1853 he was again elected to the Legislature from Franklin. In 1855 he was a candidate for Governor, and was elected by a close vote over the late Hon. Beverly L. Clark. At an early date of his residence in Frankfort he published, in connection with Judge Mason Brown, a digest of the laws of Kentucky, in two volumes, which was in use until the adoption of the new constitution. After serving out his term as Governor, he retired from political life, and devoted himself to the practice of his profession, removing from Frankfort to Louisville. In the spring of 1861 he was a member of the Peace Convention which met at Washington, and also of the Border State Convention which met in Frankfort, in May. In consequence of his endeavors to bring about the secession of Kentucky, and his earnest advocacy of the Southern cause, he was on the 19th of September, 1861, arrested at

his house near Louisville, at night, and taken to Fort Lafayette, New York Harbor, where for many months he was subjected to close imprisonment. This treatment elicited the sympathies of his friends to such a degree as finally to secure his release. Shortly after his discharge, he went to England, and continued to reside there during the remainder of the war. Upon the termination of hostilities he returned to the United States, and addressed himself with characteristic energy to his business,

which had suffered terribly by the war. For this purpose he removed from Kentucky to his plantation near Greenville, and, while he gave his personal attention to its management, engaged also in the practice of law. His health failed under the hot and unhealthy climate, and, coming North, he was attacked with that long and severe illness to which we have already referred. After his recovery he returned again to Mississippi, where he died of heart-disease.

N

NARVAEZ, Don RAMON MARIA, Duke of Valencia, Marshal of Spain, a Spanish general and statesman, born at Loja, in Andalusia, August 4, 1800; died at Madrid, April 23, 1868. He entered the army at an early age, serving first, for some years, as a cadet in the Walloon Guards. He received his first commission as an officer at the age of twenty, and rose from that time rapidly, commending himself to his superiors both by his daring and skill. In 1820, when constitutional government was established in Spain, young Narvaez sided with the Liberal or Constitutional party; and when in 1822 an effort was made by a reactionary party of the royal guard to subvert the Constitution and restore the old despotism, he led the Liberals in the suppression of the mutiny. In the capture of Castelfolliet at this time he was seriously wounded. Shortly after, having recovered from his wounds, he made the campaign of Catalonia, under Mina, against the guerrillas, who were assisted by the monks. In 1823 the imbecile Bourbon having invited a French army of intervention to enter Spain, Narvaez retired from active life, and withdrew to Loja, where he lived in obscurity until the death of Ferdinand VII., in 1832, when he returned to the army. In 1834, as captain of chasseurs, he maintained a hot struggle against the Carlists in the Basque provinces, and signalized himself in several engagements; being again wounded in the battle of Mendigorria. For his gallantry in this campaign he was promoted to be colonel of chasseurs, and, soon after to be brigadier-general. In 1836 he commanded a division under Espartero, and on the 25th of November of that year completely routed the Carlist leader, Gomez, at Majaceite, near Arcos. This was the turning-point in his career. He became very popular, aspired to the highest offices of the state, and was regarded as the rival of Espartero. In 1838, by measures of the most vigorous severity, he cleared the district of La Mancha of brigands, and restored tranquillity in that part of Spain. In 1840 he was appointed Captain-General of Old Castile, and general-in-chief of the army of reserve. When Espartero gave General Alaix a place in the ministry, Narvaez, who was a member of the Cortes for Seville, re-

signed his command. On the formation of a revolutionary junta at Seville by Cordova in the summer of 1840, he repaired thither, and took part in the insurrection against Espartero; but, this attempt at revolution having been suppressed, he was compelled to fly, and found refuge in France, where he was shortly after joined by the Queen Maria Christina, who had been forced to abdicate in favor of the Infanta Isabella. In France Narvaez commenced, in conjunction with the ex-Queen, those plots against Espartero, who was then regent, which in July, 1843, culminated in his overthrow and escape to England. Narvaez hereupon returned, and, after depriving Espartero of all his titles, procured from the new Cortes a declaration that the Infanta Isabella II. was of age, and was himself appointed, November 8, 1843, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. In March, 1844, the Queen-Dowager, Christina, returned to Spain, and the same year Narvaez was made president of the Council, and created Duke of Valencia. His whole course was reactionary; he restored the old despotism and abuses, and revised in the interest of absolutism the liberal Constitution of 1837. The party of progress was dissatisfied, and petty insurrections broke out, which he crushed with the iron hand. But his dictatorial manners finally alienated even his personal friends, and on the 10th of February, 1846, his ministry was overthrown. After a brief exile, as special ambassador at the French court, he returned to power in 1847, but was soon again dismissed, in consequence of his constant quarrels with Maria Christina. On the 20th of October, 1849, he was once more recalled and reinstated as president of the Council, his power being confirmed in 1850 by a popular vote. On the 10th of January, 1851, however, he was compelled by the Queen-mother again to resign, and accept the appointment of ambassador to Vienna. In October, 1856, after Espartero's withdrawal from office and the overthrow of the brief O'Donnell ministry, Narvaez was again called to preside over the Cabinet, but without special office. He immediately began to use his power to strengthen the royal authority, and to restrict the liberty of the press. He also re-

stored the concordat of 1851 with the Pope, and promulgated a general amnesty to the Carlist rebels of 1855 and 1856. Some of these measures alienated the sympathies of a considerable portion of the Conservative party, and on the 26th of October, 1857, he tendered his resignation, and a new ministry was formed under the presidency of Admiral Armero. In this ministry he at first accepted, but soon after declined, a seat. He now remained out of power till September 16, 1864, when he succeeded the Marquis de Miraflores as chief of the Cabinet, and rendered himself again popular by the repression of the insurrectionary movement in St. Domingo in January, 1865. Late in 1865 Marshal O'Donnell succeeded in overthrowing his ministry, but in July, 1866, he was dispossessed of power in his turn, and Narvaez again took the reins, which he relinquished only with his death.

NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES. The reduction of the naval force created during the late war is still continued. During the year 1868, twenty-two vessels, carrying 208 guns, were withdrawn, leaving, as still attached to the navy, 206 vessels, carrying 1,743 guns. Of this number there are 52 iron-clads, carrying 129 guns; 95 screw-steamers, carrying 938 guns; 28 paddle-wheel steamers, carrying 199 guns; and 31 sailing-vessels, carrying 477 guns. The entire active force is divided into six squadrons, known as the European, the Asiatic, the North Atlantic, the South Atlantic, the North Pacific, and the South Pacific. These squadrons have been kept in such active service as to exhibit the flag of the country in every port where its commerce had penetrated. At no period have the power and prestige of the navy been more honored and respected than at present. The general purpose of the department in regulating this branch of the service is stated to have been, that one or more of the naval vessels should visit annually every commercial port where American capital is employed, and that an armed ship should not be long absent from the vicinity of every merchant-ship which might need assistance or protection.

The European squadron was in charge of Admiral D. G. Farragut, who left it in November under the charge of Commodore A. M. Penneck. The vacancy was subsequently filled by Rear-Admiral William Radford. It consisted of the Franklin, 39 guns; Ticonderoga, 9; Swatara, 10; Frolic, 5; Guard, 3. During the period of his command, Admiral Farragut made one of the most distinguished and interesting cruises in naval history. He left Lisbon in November, 1867, where the usual courtesies had been exchanged, and where, by invitation, he, with many of his officers, had been received by the King and Queen of Portugal and Dom Fernando, and proceeded along the coasts of Spain, France, and Italy, touching at Gibraltar, Carthage, Port Mahon, Toulon, Villefranche, and Spezia, at each of which places he was the recipient of many courtesies and attentions.

On the occasion of an excursion to Madrid he was cordially welcomed by the Queen and King-consort and other high officials.

At Port Mahon, where he arrived in December, his reception was peculiar. Each village in Minorca through which he passed was profuse in compliments, and in many instances sent out deputations to meet him as a descendant of one of their ancient families, his father having been a native of and emigrant from Ciudadela in that island.

When the Franklin was at Spezia, Admiral Farragut visited Florence, Venice, and Genoa. He dined at Florence with his Majesty Victor Emmanuel, and was entertained by many distinguished officials, both of Italy and other countries, at each of the places named. From Spezia he proceeded to Naples, where he arrived in March.

While on a visit to Rome, he was received by the Prime Minister, and presented to his Holiness the Pope. He left Naples April 6th, and, touching at Messina and Syracuse, arrived at Malta on the 12th. He was there joined by the Ticonderoga and Frolic, and his departure on the 18th was marked by unusual honors. The squadron was followed to sea by Vice-Admiral Paget, commanding her Britannic Majesty's fleet in the Mediterranean, in his flagship, the Caledonia, which passed close alongside, the crews manning the rigging and cheering, and the band playing "Hail Columbia." The other vessels of the fleet passed successively, extending similar courtesies. When all had passed, Admiral Paget hoisted the American flag at the main and fired a salute of seventeen guns. These courtesies were acknowledged by the crew of the Franklin, who manned the yards; the band played "God save the Queen," and the salute was returned.

Admiral Farragut returned to Lisbon on the 28th of April, and, after taking in supplies, proceeded to Holland. He arrived at Flushing in June, where he remained until the 21st. With a number of his officers he visited, on invitation, his Majesty King Leopold, at Brussels, and dined with him. Subsequently his Majesty, accompanied by the Queen and attendants, was received on board the Franklin at Ostend. From Brussels he made a short tour to Liege and Essen, and proceeded from thence to Southampton, where he left the Franklin, and made a tour to the north, passing through London, York, Newcastle, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, and rejoined the Franklin in July. On his tour he received every attention from the authorities of the respective places visited, and inspected the dockyards and other establishments of interest to naval officers.

On the 10th of July the Franklin was visited officially by the Duke of Edinburgh, captain of her Britannic Majesty's ship Galatea, and on the 12th Admiral Farragut and other officers dined with him, many distinguished persons of England being present. The Prince of Wales and his brother, the Duke of Edinburgh, visited

the Franklin on the 14th. On the 17th Admiral Farragut called on her Majesty the Queen at Osborn House. On the 18th the corporate authorities and others of Southampton visited the Franklin, and on the 19th she sailed from Cowes for Syra, at which place she arrived on the 4th of August.

Here Admiral Farragut transferred his flag to the Frolic and proceeded to Constantinople. The Franklin sailed for Smyrna. He reached the Dardanelles on the 6th of August, and, having received a firman from the Sultan, anchored in the Bosphorus, off Constantinople, on the 8th. On the 13th of August, accompanied by a large number of officers of the navy, he was received by his Majesty the Sultan, Abdul Aziz, in his palace on the Asiatic shore, and on a subsequent day called on the Viceroy of Egypt, then on a visit to Constantinople. The Franklin having been detained several days at the Dardanelles, awaiting a firman, anchored off Constantinople on the 21st. Here he was entertained by the Grand-Vizier and other officials. He left the Bosphorus on the 29th, and anchored in the harbor of Piræus, Greece, on the 31st of August.

At Athens he was presented to the King and Queen, and upon invitation of the King was present at the baptism of the young prince and attended a banquet at the palace. The Franklin was visited by the King, the Grand-duchess Alexandra Josephina, and the Grand-duke Constantine (mother and brother of the Queen), with their respective suites; also by the Greek officials and the diplomatic corps.

On the 10th of September he left Piræus, and on the 14th arrived off Trieste, where official calls were exchanged and other courtesies extended. He sailed from Trieste on the 27th, anchored off Gibraltar October 9th, and left for New York on the 18th, where he arrived on November 10th.

The command of the Asiatic squadron was held by Rear-Admiral Henry H. Bell until January 11th, when he was drowned at Osaka. The command then devolved upon Commodore J. R. Goldsborough, who retained it until the arrival of Rear-Admiral S. C. Rowan at Singapore on April 18th. The squadron was composed of the Piscataqua, 23 guns; Oneida, 8; Iroquois, 6; Ashuelot, 10; Monocacy, 10; Unadilla, 5; Arostook, 5; Maumee, 8; Idaho, 7; together with the Shenandoah and Hartford, which have subsequently returned to the United States.

Upon the opening of the ports of Osaka and Hiogo, in Japan, it was deemed necessary that a strong naval force should be present. Not that any serious trouble was apprehended, but certain discontented factions were known to exist, and the display of foreign power would, it was thought, prove a wholesome restraint on the turbulent and disaffected. A few days afterward, the unfortunate event of the drowning of Rear-Admiral Bell took place. His communication with the shore had been inter-

rupted for several days by a storm, and he left his ship as soon as it abated, for the purpose of visiting the United States minister. But his barge was capsized, by a strong wind and heavy sea, on the bar, in sight of most of his command. Every effort was made, by boats dispatched from the vessels present, to rescue the unfortunate party, but only three of the boat's crew were saved. The bodies of the lost were all subsequently recovered.

The harmony which prevailed at the opening of the new ports was of short duration. Difficulties, originating in the innovations on ancient customs and opposition to intercourse with foreigners, appeared among the Japanese, and soon broke out in hostilities.

On the 27th of January, the contending parties came in conflict at Osaka. The Tycoon, who favored the extension of commercial intercourse, was defeated, and during the night of January 31st sought shelter with some of his principal adherents on board the Iroquois, which was in the harbor. Protection was given him until daylight, when he was transferred to one of his own vessels-of-war.

On the 1st of February the several foreign ministers were compelled to abandon Osaka and were received and conveyed in the Iroquois to Hiogo, where they established their legations. On the 4th of February an assault was made in the streets of Hiogo by a detachment of Japanese troops on the foreign residents, during which one of the crew of the Oneida was seriously wounded by a musket-ball. In consequence of these outbreaks, which threatened the safety of the foreign population, the naval forces present made a joint landing and adopted measures to protect the foreign settlement. But on the 8th of February an envoy from the Mikado arrived at the United States legation with information of a change of government. Assurance was given that foreigners would be protected, whereupon a settlement was made and the forces withdrawn. The Japanese officer who had command of the detachment of troops, and ordered them to fire on the foreigners at Hiogo, was subsequently executed in the presence of a number of the officers of the vessels-of-war.

Rear-Admiral Rowan reached Yokohama on the 24th of June, and found the open ports in possession of the Mikado party. The foreign naval forces, in pursuance of agreement in conference, jointly occupied Yokohama for the defence of the foreign settlement. No serious disturbance took place there, and Rear-Admiral Rowan awaited the progress of events between the contending parties.

After the death of Rear-Admiral Bell, Commodore Goldsborough transferred his flag to the Hartford, and left Nagasaki on the 1st of February for Hong Kong, on his way to Singapore and the United States. At Hong Kong he paid an official visit to the Chinese viceroy at Canton, who rules over the two extensive and populous sea-coast provinces, Kwantung

and Fuhkien. The reception was cordial and gratifying; and, to check in some measure the frequent piracies, the viceroy promised to issue a proclamation prohibiting fishing-junks from carrying an extra number of men, or arms, or munitions of war.

In April the *Shenandoah* was sent to Corea to make another attempt to rescue the crew of the schooner *General Sherman*, which had been destroyed by the Coreans some eighteen months previously, it having been stated upon apparently good authority that some of them were still alive and in captivity. From all the information that Commander Febiger could gather, he concluded that none of the crew or passengers of the schooner were living.

The *Aroostook*, Lieutenant-Commander Beardslee, conveyed the consuls for Amoy and Foo-Choo to Formosa in April, to enable them to visit the various ports on that island coming under their charge. The savages inhabiting the lower part of this island some time ago murdered the shipwrecked officers and crew of the American bark *Rover*. Satisfied from inquiry that no foreigners were in captivity on the island, Lieutenant-Commander Beardslee obtained assurances from the natives of kind treatment to and restoration of any persons who may hereafter be shipwrecked upon the island.

The North Atlantic squadron was under the command of Rear-Admiral James S. Palmer until December 7, 1867, when he died at St. Thomas. He was succeeded by Rear-Admiral H. K. Hoff, who took command on February 22d. The squadron consisted of the *Contoocook*, 13 guns; *Saco*, 10; *Penobscot*, 9; *Yantic*, 5; *Gettysburg*, 9; *Nipsic*, 6. The squadron was actively employed in giving assistance to merchantmen and protection to citizens of the United States wherever needed within the limits of its operations.

The disturbed condition of Hayti called for more than ordinary attention to American interests on that island. Instructions were from time to time issued to the admiral in command, by the Government, to watch the progress of events, and be prepared at all times to afford necessary protection to citizens. In pursuance of these directions, the *Contoocook*, *De Soto*, *Shawmut*, *Saco*, *Penobscot*, *Gettysburg*, and *Nipsic* have, at different times, been in Haytien waters, and some of them have remained there for weeks successively.

The South Atlantic squadron was under the command of Rear-Admiral Charles H. Bell, and consisted of the *Guerriere*, 21 guns; *Pawnee*, 11; *Quinnebaug*, 6; *Wasp*, 3; *Kansas*, 8. The continuance of hostilities between the allied powers and Paraguay rendered it necessary to keep some portion of the force as near as practicable to the scene of military operations. On the 7th of February, in concert with the commanders of other squadrons and at the request of Governor Flores, of Montevideo, fifty seamen and marines were landed for the pro-

tection of foreign residents and the custom-house. On the succeeding day, affairs having quieted, the detachment was withdrawn. On the 19th of the same month another force was landed and remained on shore until the 26th, in consequence of the disturbances occasioned by the assassination of Flores.

Early in the year, at the request of Secretary Seward, the *Wasp* was dispatched to the capital of Paraguay for the purpose of bringing away the American minister resident, Mr. Washburn. When she arrived at the seat of war in the Parana River, the passage of the vessel through the blockading fleet was refused by the Brazilian authorities, and after waiting some months and failing to convince them of the right of a neutral man-of-war to ascend the river as far as Asuncion for the purpose stated, that vessel returned to Montevideo. In August the Brazilian authorities withdrew their objection and the *Wasp* again ascended the river, which is of difficult navigation, owing to its tortuous course, and shifting sand-bars. Only the smaller class of naval vessels can ascend to Asuncion, on the Parana River, in the interior of South America, 930 miles from Montevideo. On the 10th of September, at Villeta (below Asuncion), the *Wasp* took on board Mr. Washburn and family and conveyed him to Buenos Ayres.

The North Pacific squadron was under the command of Rear-Admiral H. K. Thatcher until August 6th, when he was relieved by Rear-Admiral Thomas T. Craven. The squadron consisted of the *Pensacola*, 20 guns; *Mohongo*, 10; *Lackawanna*, 7; *Saginaw*, 6; *Resaca*, 8; *Ossipee*, 6; *Jamestown*, 15; *Cyane*, 18. The west coast of Mexico, the commercial ports of Central America, and the Sandwich Islands, have been frequently visited during the year. The importance of the whaling and commercial interests at the Sandwich Islands is shown by the fact that at one time in November, 1867, forty-two American flags were flying from that number of whaling and merchant vessels in the harbor of Honolulu, while but six flags of all other nations could be seen.

In June last, Rear-Admiral Thatcher, in the flag-ship, visited the Northwestern coast, touching at Port Townsend and Esquimaux. Several vessels of the squadron have visited the newly-acquired Territory of Alaska. The *Ossipee* conveyed the commissioners from San Francisco to Sitka, and was present and participated in the ceremonies incident to the transfer of the flag. The *Resaca* and *Jamestown*, although sent there primarily for the influence of the cold climate in disinfecting them of yellow fever, afforded such protection to citizens as was desired. In April last the *Saginaw* was dispatched to Alaska, where she remained several months, for the purpose of making explorations and surveys, and of determining the most suitable harbors and anchorages on the coast, and in the adjacent islands. The *Suwanee*, under orders for the same point, was

wrecked on the 9th of July, by running on a hidden rock in Shadwell Passage, while in charge of a coast-pilot. The officers and crew succeeded in landing on the nearest beach. The vessel soon broke up, but Rear-Admiral Thatcher, who was at the time at Esquimault, made the best practicable terms for saving the engines and other articles.

The South Pacific squadron was under the command of Rear-Admiral Dahlgren until July 14th, when he was relieved by Rear-Admiral Thomas Turner. The squadron consisted of the Powhatan, 17 guns; Tuscarora, 10; Kearsarge, 7; Dakota, 7; Nyack, 6. The operations of the squadron have been confined to the west coast of South America, in consequence of the disturbed condition of political affairs, and the disasters from physical convulsions.

On the night of the 10th of January, General Prado, ex-President of Peru, and other officers, came alongside the Nyack, and requested asylum from personal violence, which he apprehended from the revolutionary party. He also requested transportation to Chili. His requests were complied with, and he was safely landed at Valparaiso.

The disasters to the naval vessels in consequence of physical convulsions have been of an unprecedented character. They occurred during 1867, in the West Indies, and in 1868, on the west coast of South America.

A violent earthquake, which occurred in the harbor of St. Thomas, and in that vicinity, on the afternoon of November 18, 1867, caused the stranding of the United States steamer Monongahela, and two other vessels of the squadron barely escaped serious injury. The *De Soto*, in the harbor of St. Thomas, was swept from her moorings by the force of the waves, both chains snapping, and was thrown violently upon the iron piles of a new wharf, but fortunately the next wave carried her again into deep water, and she sustained but little injury. The *Susquehanna*, in the same harbor, succeeded in getting away from her dangerous position without damage.

The *Monongahela*, which at the time was anchored off Frederickstadt, island of St. Croix, was carried by a wave over the warehouses and into one of the streets of the town. She came back with the returning sea and was left on a coral reef at the water's edge. Fortunately, but five of the crew were lost, and no very serious injury was sustained by the ship. As it was deemed practicable to relaunch her, the officers and crew remained by the vessel. The first attempt failed, but on the 10th of May a successful effort was made. She was safely launched, and left St. Croix on the 13th of June, arriving at New York the 29th.

On the 13th of August, 1868, a violent earthquake visited the western coast of South America, by which two of the vessels of the South Pacific squadron were lost to the service. The storeship *Fredonia* had, in consequence of the prevalence of yellow fever at

Callao, been moved up to Arica, and was there with the *Waterree*, quietly riding at anchor. A short time after the shock of the earthquake was felt, the sea receded, leaving the *Fredonia* on the bottom, and a moment after the waters rolled in with such power as to break her to fragments. Twenty-seven officers and men were drowned—three officers, who were on shore, and two seamen who were rescued, being all that were saved.

The *Waterree* was thrown ashore, and left high and dry, about 500 yards from high-water mark. She was badly strained, and her position was such that the expense of any attempt to launch her would have exceeded the value of the vessel. Under these circumstances, it was deemed for the best interests of the Government to sell her, and the necessary directions were accordingly given. But a single man was lost from the vessel—a seaman in charge of the captain's gig, on the beach, who was carried out to sea by the waves.

Rear-Admiral Turner was at Callao in his flag-ship, the *Powhatan*, when this calamity occurred, and as a matter of security steamed out of the harbor until the next morning. On learning of the disastrous results of the earthquake at Arica, he proceeded to that point. The *Powhatan*, on application of the authorities of Peru, was permitted to convey surgeons, nurses, etc., for the relief of the thousands of sufferers at Arica. The commanding officer of the *Waterree* also furnished such aid as he could to the destitute inhabitants, with provisions from the ship's supply. The senior officer at Valparaiso promptly responded to an application of the Chilean Government, by placing the *Tuscarora* at the service of the authorities to convey provisions and other necessities to the sufferers along the coast.

In estimating the condition in which the navy of the United States should be maintained, it is asserted that, in the event of a war with any maritime power, the battles would be fought on the sea and not on the land—by fleets and not by armies. No nation of Europe could transport any considerable military force across the ocean, and if the attempt were made it would be speedily arrested. Notwithstanding the experience of the past, the circumstances of the navy have not been brought up to this standard. None of the navy yards possess the area and appliances, nor have they the necessary establishments and machinery for manufacturing engines and armature, nor the materials that should be collected in anticipation of the national wants. In no one of the navy yards is there more than a single dry-dock, and there are but six in all—three built of stone, and three floating docks. The dock-yards of France and Great Britain, at Cherbourg and Portsmouth, each contains a greater number of dry-docks than all the Federal yards combined.

Congress, by reducing the day's labor of those who work for the Government to eight hours instead of ten, imposed on the department, as a necessity, the employment of a larger number of hands to execute the same amount of work; and if it had been intended that the per diem compensation for a working day of ten hours in outside establishments should, under the statute, fix the rate of wages in navy yards, twenty per cent. would have been added to the cost of labor.

The estimates for labor for the current year were based on the standard which had always previously been recognized and observed; but Congress, while diminishing the appropriations below the estimates, also lessened the amount of labor to be daily rendered by each individual workman. While, therefore, the department was furnished with less means, it was compelled to employ one-fifth more laborers than in preceding years for the same amount of work.

The Naval Academy, during the year, was under the charge of Admiral Porter. The number of graduates at the close of the academic year was seventy-nine; the number of admissions forty-nine; the total number of midshipmen at the academy at the close of the year was two hundred and eighty-six. Several midshipmen have been appointed from States recently admitted to representation in Congress, but subsequent to such admission.

The importance of the States on the Pacific coast, the increasing intimacy of their citizens with the islands of that ocean, the growing trade with China and Japan, and the varied interests of commercial enterprise which are opening from the Indian Ocean to the islands of the North, require that a more complete and systematic survey should be made of the North Pacific Ocean. The Brooks or Midway Islands were discovered a few years ago and recently surveyed by order of the Navy Department. The charts of the survey represent two islands enclosed in a lagoon, forming a perfectly secure harbor, accessible to vessels drawing less than twenty feet, and affording an abundant supply of pure, fresh water. These islands, which are uninhabited and unoccupied, are situated about midway between California and Eastern Asia, on the track of the mail steamships, and furnish the only known refuge for vessels passing directly between the two continents.

It is represented by the naval officers who made the survey, and also by Rear-Admiral Thatcher, that the bar at the entrance of the harbor might be deepened at a very small expense, and a port vastly superior to Honolulu be thus opened to mariners, where a depot might be established for the supply of provisions, water, and fuel to the ocean steam lines, and a refuge afforded to merchant-ships navigating that ocean.

The resources and expenses of the navy have been as follows:

The available resources for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, were.....	\$103,465,754
By request of the Navy Department there was carried to the surplus fund of the Treasury on the 30th September, 1867.....	65,000,000
Leaving subject to draft.....	\$38,465,754
There remained in the Treasury on the 30th June, 1868.....	18,345,360
Showing an expenditure during the fiscal year of.....	\$30,120,394
The resources for the fiscal year 1868-'69 are as follows:	
Balance in the Treasury.....	\$18,345,360
Appropriations, act June 17, 1868.....	17,356,350
Total.....	\$35,701,710
There has been designated to be carried to the surplus fund.....	1,129,694
Leaving unexpended and available for the fiscal year 1868-'69.....	\$34,572,016
The estimates for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, are as follows:	
Pay of officers and seamen of the navy.....	\$7,389,726
Repairs of buildings, docks, and incidental expenses in navy yards.....	1,285,996
Pay of civil establishment in navy yards, hospitals, etc.....	425,839
Ordnance, repair of magazines, etc.....	450,000
Coal, hemp, and equipments.....	1,320,000
Navigation and navigation supplies.....	207,500
Naval Academy.....	210,584
Naval Observatory and Nautical Almanac.....	40,500
Repair and preservation of vessels.....	3,790,500
Steam machinery, tools, etc.....	1,305,000
Provisions and clothing.....	1,672,500
Repairs of naval hospitals and laboratories.....	46,000
Contingent expenses.....	1,674,500
Support of marine corps.....	1,174,767
Total.....	\$30,992,602

NEBRASKA. Covering an area of more than seventy thousand English square miles, this young State is yet very thinly settled. The number of inhabitants scarcely amounts to fifty thousand. She possesses, however, not a few cities and towns—as Omaha, Nebraska City, Lincoln, and others. The most profitable occupations of the people seem to be agriculture and the raising of cattle.

Lincoln sprang up, as it were, out of the prairie, in midsummer, 1867, and before eighteen months had elapsed was grown to such an extent in buildings and residents that, on this account as well as the prospective benefits resulting from its local position to the whole community, the people by a majority of votes declared it to be the capital of Nebraska. In accordance with this decision the seat of government, which, during her territorial condition and the first two years of her existence as a State, had always been in Omaha, was by the end of 1868 removed from the last-named place and permanently located in Lincoln. A suitable building destined for that purpose had been in course of erection for some time, and a portion finished, to accommodate the Executive, and both Houses of the Legislature for opening and holding their respective sessions at the beginning of 1869.

From the numerous railway lines projected, and even partly executed, in other States around Nebraska, but chiefly from the works in course of construction for the Union Pacific Railroad, which runs along on the north bank of the Platte, and so traverses the State in the

middle, through her whole length from east to west, her speedy growth would appear as the necessary effect of this cause, even though she possessed no internal resources of her own. On the contrary, they are many and great. An unmistakable proof of such being the fact is the progressive increase in the amount of taxable property within her limits, which, during the last three years, has been steadily increasing. The assessment for 1867 was four millions above that for 1866; and the assessment for 1868 is nearly double the whole amount assessed for 1867. The official statement for 1868, made by the State Auditor and published in 1869, exhibits the total assessments for the last three years. It indicates also the names of some among the counties to which the largest sums of county assessments belong, or which possess the largest quantity of certain kinds of property in comparison with other counties, as follows:

Assessment for 1868 (Gage and Kearney Counties not in).....	\$31,981,691 37
Increase over 1867.....	14,145,809 80
Douglas County assessment.....	\$8,066,779
Otoe " ".....	3,191,200
Cass " ".....	1,895,432
Nemaha " ".....	1,881,349
Richardson " ".....	1,577,007
Assessment of 16 counties north of Platte, 14 south " (Gage and Kearney not in).....	\$16,863,180 15,118,511
Total.....	\$31,981,691
Assessment of U. P. R. R. (excepting land),	\$8,015,550
Assessment of 1866.....	\$13,563,025
" 1867.....	17,835,881
" 1868.....	31,981,691
Otoe County, amount of entered lands,	285,704 acres.
Richardson " " " " ".....	260,350 "
Nemaha " " " " ".....	220,134 "
Cass " " " " ".....	215,015 "
Douglas " " " " ".....	173,462 "
Richardson County, number of horses.....	2,862
Cass " " " " ".....	2,835
Otoe " " " " ".....	2,435
Nemaha " " " " ".....	2,096
Douglas " " " " ".....	1,417
Cass " " " " ".....	cattle. 7,066
Otoe " " " " ".....	5,404
Nemaha " " " " ".....	4,856
Washington " " " " ".....	2,769
Douglas " " " " ".....	2,378
Dakota " " " " ".....	2,678
Burt " " " " ".....	2,638
Hall " " " " ".....	2,312
Otoe " " " " ".....	mules. 333
Richardson " " " " ".....	318
Cass " " " " ".....	218
Lincoln " " " " ".....	162
Douglas " " " " ".....	144
Richardson " " " " ".....	sheep. 4,969
Cass " " " " ".....	3,794
Otoe " " " " ".....	2,580
Pawnee " " " " ".....	1,621
Nemaha " " " " ".....	1,503
Saunders " " " " ".....	1,244
Richardson " " " " ".....	swine. 6,298
Cass " " " " ".....	4,609
Nemaha " " " " ".....	4,524
Otoe " " " " ".....	2,806
Pawnee " " " " ".....	1,171
Washington " " " " ".....	1,165
Burt " " " " ".....	1,111

The condition, resources, and wants of Nebraska are pretty fully exhibited in Governor Butler's message delivered to the Legislature at the opening of its session, in Lincoln, on January 7, 1869. This was the first regular meeting of the General Assembly under the

constitution since Nebraska was organized under a State government, and admitted as such into the Federal Union. In financial matters, she is represented by the Governor in a previous message to be almost clear of debt.

The lands given by the General Government to Nebraska for internal improvement, school buildings, and other purposes of public interest, Governor Butler states to be more than three and one-fourth millions of acres, which Congress, by an express provision in the grant, forbids to be sold under \$1.25 per acre, while a law of the State has fixed its minimum price at \$5.00. The selection and entry of these lands in the name of Nebraska having now been completed, the Governor says that "the land interests of the State have thence assumed grand proportions." As "not less than 250,000 acres of these lands, in addition to a large quantity of the school lands, will be brought into market within the next two years," he intimates the necessity of creating a distinct office for this branch of the executive department, "for the successful management of the interests of the State in the disposition of them, and in the handling and investment of the funds derived."

The accounts of the moneys due by the Federal Government to the State for military services have been settled, except a remainder of about \$15,000, for which the Governor asks that an agent should be sent to Washington to prosecute the claim and collect the amount. The same agent, he adds, should be empowered to receive the sum of \$12,000 due by virtue of the act of Congress giving the State five per cent. on the receipts from the sale of public lands within her boundaries. The Governor states that he himself had recently settled the account of this percentage at Washington, and that the forementioned sum "is now lying in the national Treasury, because no one has been authorized to receive it for the State."

Besides the great sources of wealth which Nebraska possesses to an eminent degree in the quality and quantity of her soil adopted both for cultivation and pasture, vast beds of coal have lately been discovered and ascertained to exist near the surface in Pawnee County, and generally in the southern and middle portions of the State. Beneficial as such a discovery would be anywhere to people of all conditions, producers, manufacturers, merchants, or only consumers, it is peculiarly so to Nebraska, where wood is scarce, and in whose weekly lists of prices, published in the papers of June, 1868, and January, 1869, coal is quoted at 14, 16, 20, 26, and 30 dollars per ton, according to quality, and the shorter or greater distance of the places from which it is imported thither; whereas it has been ascertained that their own coal at the mine can be bought at \$5, which cannot fail to be greatly reduced, as easy means of transportation are opened.

There is also, within sight of the capital, "a

rich and apparently inexhaustible supply of a pure and easily-manufactured salt." As the lands, contiguous to the springs, have been assigned by the State "to aid in the development of the full capacity of the springs, and to furnish a sufficient area for the convenience of salt manufacture," the Governor recommends, as an economical measure, "that so much of said lands be sold or given as may be required for that object, and that a tax of two cents on every bushel of salt made shall be exacted and received by the State." He adds that responsible persons "are ready to invest, in these springs, any required sums, if the opportunity is presented to them," as competent men have examined the springs and declared that "brine can be obtained in quantities equivalent to upward of one thousand bushels of salt per day."

In regard to internal improvements, the Governor urges upon the Legislature the execution of several works of public utility, but chiefly the building of four bridges at as many favorable points across the Platte, namely, near its mouth, at Ashland, Columbus, and Grand Island, assigning for their construction the proceeds from the sale of State lands. The quicksands, wide, shallow, and changeable bottom of said river, are a great barrier to the communication between the citizens inhabiting the northern and southern sections of the State which the Platte divides. These bridges would be the means of fully realizing the benefits which should accrue to the State from the Union Pacific Railroad running on the north bank of the river, and which, otherwise, would be nearly exclusively confined to her northern section, and thus half lost. But the most signal benefit resulting to the State from the construction of those bridges is, that the easy passage afforded by them across the river would bring the inhabitants of her northern and southern sections into frequent and more close contact with one another, and thus be the direct means of gradually lessening and in a short time dispelling altogether that sort of estrangement and reciprocal bad feeling which now, on account of that geographical separation, exist between them.

As the Secretary of the Interior has refused the stipulated payments to the Union Pacific Railroad Company on the ground that the culverts built for the road are not solid, Governor Butler suggests to the Legislature "to memorialize Congress and the Secretary upon the subject," stating as a well-known fact "that the culverts were built of the best materials then at hand, that they have not failed, and are now being replaced as fast as possible with stone structures."

To shorten distances and facilitate communications between remote points in the interior of the State, by connecting them through railway lines of her own, the Governor urges upon the Legislature to give their

utmost attention to the subject, and dispose of it by determining upon and encouraging "a system of railroads which will bring the greatest prosperity to the State."

The principal want of Nebraska, however, is immigration. On this account, Governor Butler complains that, while "other States have their chartered immigration societies, and their salaried agents abroad furnished with ample means, whose business it is to make known their respective advantages," and invite immigrants, by offering them every facility and inducement to settle within them, "Nebraska, with millions of undeveloped wealth in her soil and minerals, and with a climate and commercial facilities unsurpassed by any new inland State, has done almost nothing." He recommends "that immediate and efficient measures be taken to avail ourselves of this most effectual and desirable means for the early development of our material resources."

The speedy enrolment and organization of the militia for immediate and active service might be regarded as another want. It is represented by the Governor as being of absolute necessity, especially to secure the frontier settlements from Indian depredation and massacre, as the southeastern borders of the State have been repeatedly visited, and with no military force near to help the injured. He states that the survivors among these having come to the capital and appealed to him in their extremity, he could only furnish them with arms and ammunition, and advise them to organize and "help themselves as best they could;" and that, in the fall of 1867, a company of those who had been plundered of their stock and all goods, and compelled to abandon their homes, was by his order "mustered into the service of the State, and served two months, patrolling the country and guarding the settlements against attack." He asks that an appropriation should be made "to compensate them for their time and expense during that period." He earnestly recommends, at the same time, that immediate provision should be made for the organization of the regular State militia, the experience of the past having abundantly taught that, however friendly disposed and willing to render prompt assistance the Federal commander and troops of the Platte Department might be, "it is not the part of prudence to rely on the General Government alone to protect the frontiersman" from Indian attacks, these being sudden and of brief duration, as they are destructive.

In this connection we may notice here that "the Nebraska Legislature has passed a joint resolution, memorializing Congress to remove the Pawnees from their present reservation near Columbus." It has also agreed upon a bill providing a general herd law."

Upon this occasion, and aiming at a thorough organization of the Executive Department, Governor Butler represents that "the

care and preservation of the military records, the correspondence on military affairs, the care of the ordnance, arms, and ammunition, belonging to the State, make it necessary that the office of Adjutant-General be created and provided with a suitable salary."

He seems also to hint at the utility of creating the office of Attorney-General, when he says that he has employed counsel in behalf of the State, whose bill for fees will be laid before the Legislature, and asks them to set apart for the future a sufficient sum as "important questions, which can be settled only by litigation, and in which the State has important interests, have been suffered to lie, because there was no appropriation to defray the expenses attending their adjudication."

Concerning the education of youth and public instruction in general, though there are schools and school-houses in Nebraska, she seems not to have given the subject that attention and care which it deserves. According to the Governor's statement, the different portions of the State "complain of the inefficiency and injustice of our school laws." And while he does not sanction, but rather condemns, such complaints as untrue in most cases, yet he calls on the Legislature, saying: "These complaints are so numerous that the feeling prevails that we have no established public school system, nor even settled policy of public instruction. It is therefore devolved upon you to give to the State a school system that shall be in its operation equitable and efficient, complete in all its parts, and as a whole harmonious."

He also requests them to consider and decide upon the expediency of establishing a school-building fund, to be distributed among the districts which have occasion for a school-house, and apportioning it in equal sums, "not to exceed two-thirds or three-fourths of the minimum cost of buildings of lowest grade, to be fixed by him."

Governor Butler anticipates that a general fund, besides securing "in every district a school-house creditable to the State," would also remove the injustice done to the inhabitants of precincts lately formed out of portions of larger ones, as they, after having borne their share of the burden for erecting the school-houses in the old precincts under the system of precinct taxation, would be compelled to build the schools of their new precincts unaided.

As to the State Normal School at Peru, for the completion of whose building the last General Assembly appropriated at the May session three thousand dollars, the Governor states that the sum has been expended for that purpose, and that "the institution is now in successful operation." Referring to the suggestions made by the Board of Education in their report to the State Auditor, he urges on the Legislature the necessity of making "full provision for the successful management and

efficiency of this branch of the State educational system."

After stating that "the grounds on which the old State-house stands were given by the citizens of Omaha to be used by the Territory for the erection thereon of the capitol," now that the seat of government has been transferred to Lincoln, the Governor says: "I recommend that they be granted to the city of Omaha, to be used for a high-school, on the condition that, when they shall no longer be used for that purpose, they shall revert to the State."

He requests the Assembly to take effective measures to secure school reports with full and accurate statistics, giving a definite idea of the condition of the schools, as well as of the efficiency of the system; such information being indispensable both to legislate upon and superintend the schools in an efficient manner.

He finally recommends the creation of local and general superintendents of the schools as independent offices. He represents them to be a want long and generally felt, and suggests that to the General Superintendent's office an ample salary should be attached, "sufficient to secure the constant services of our best men."

The Governor asks an appropriation for the State Library, chiefly to enlarge its law branch, by purchasing the best recent works on elementary law, and above all to complete the sets of its Law Reports, as some volumes which belong to them respectively were accidentally lost in the transportation.

He strongly urges an effectual provision for securing the publication of the Law Reports of Nebraska; representing that such publication is both honorable to the State by enabling her to send her own reports to other States who furnish her with theirs, and advantageous to the administration of justice within her limits, especially in the inferior courts. These are frequently in doubt, and hesitate to pronounce on cases before them, "from the difficulty of ascertaining what are the decisions made in superior courts."

In regard to works of charity toward the unfortunate among her people, Nebraska has made provision for the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the insane, by causing the latter to be taken care of, and the former educated in well-known institutions abroad, at her charge.

The insane are sent to the Iowa Hospital at Mount Pleasant for their treatment, eleven new subjects having been sent thither within the last two years, in addition to those who then were there. The average yearly expense at the hospital is \$280, the aggregate amounting at present to \$5,350. To this must be added the expense of conveyance, reckoned at about one hundred dollars for each subject. On these grounds the Governor intimates "that the time has nearly arrived when economical considerations alone will require that these unfortunate people shall find an asylum under the

control and within the borders of their own State. I recommend this subject to your consideration, suggesting that provision be made for the erection, within the next two years, of a Hospital for the Insane."

He urges upon the General Assembly the erection of a State Penitentiary, as a public necessity; stating that the escapes of criminals from the places of their detention have been so frequent till within a short time that "sentence of imprisonment was little more than a farce;" and that at present they "are confined in overcrowded county jails, frequently in cells under ground, badly ventilated, damp, and unwholesome." He recommends "that the Legislature take such action as may be necessary to effect the early building of the penitentiary, and that the State convicts be employed in the construction."

Pursuant to a call previously published by the Republican State Central Committee, the Republican State Convention met at Nebraska City, on April 29, 1868, when they nominated their candidates for Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor, Treasurer, and three presidential electors, and before adjourning adopted, as their platform, the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we point, with pride and satisfaction, to the history and record of the great national Republican party of the United States—and ask for it the confidence and unfaltering support of our fellow-citizens:

1. Because it has saved the Republic from overthrow by putting down the most wanton and wicked rebellion, urged in the interest of slavery and oppression, ever known to the history of the world.

2. Because it has stood, like a "wall of fire," between the oppressed and their relentless and unrepentant oppressors, as it still demands that, in the reconstruction of the rebel States, loyal men only shall control.

3. Because it has given to the country a homestead law, thus providing free homes for free men, and providing "land for the landless without money and without price."

4. Because it has chartered and endowed the great Pacific Railroad, thus uniting, with iron bands, the Atlantic with the Pacific, and bringing through the State the commerce of China and India, in exchange for the commodities and productions of American labor, skill, and enterprise.

5. Because it is the vivifying power which imparts to the efforts of the struggling friends of freedom, throughout the world, their light, their heat, and their highest value.

Resolved, That, we heartily approve of and accept as just the doctrine of universal amnesty and impartial suffrage, believing that in its application will be found a just rule for a permanent settlement of the great question of reconstruction.

Resolved, That, recognizing the doctrine that allegiance is alienable, our national Government should protect American citizens abroad, whether native or foreign born, and any outrage committed on the person of an American citizen by a foreign Government should be resisted at every cost, at all hazards.

Resolved, That the nation is deeply indebted to the soldiers and sailors who gallantly defended it in the late war of the rebellion, and that the memory of those who perished in the conflict should and will be held in grateful remembrance, and their widows and children should be tenderly cared for by the nation; that those who returned and are in our midst we congratulate, and tender them the assurance of

our honor and regard, and trust they will aid in perpetuating the liberties of the Constitution of the country they perilled their lives to save.

Resolved, That the Republican party was organized for the preservation of the life of our nation, and for the purpose of establishing equality to all before the law; and that while, as a party, we favor all movements tending to promote public morality, yet we are opposed to all prohibitory laws and statutes interfering with the national customs of any portion of our citizens, as subversive of sound morality and as unnecessary abridgments of the liberties of the person guaranteed the people by all republican constitutions.

The Democratic State Convention also was held in Omaha, on the 5th of August, 1868, and nominated their candidates for State officers and the presidential electors.

The qualifications required of a voter in Nebraska are as follows:

Every male citizen of the United States, and he who has filed his declaration of intention to become such, and who has attained the age of twenty-one years, and shall have been an actual resident of this State for six months, of the county twenty days, and of the precinct ten days next preceding the election, is a voter at all elections in this State, excepting as per provision made by section fifty-three of the election law.

All male persons, who can show the registrar that the above facts will exist the day preceding the election, are entitled to registration.

Any foreign-born male coming to the United States before twenty-one years of age, and whose father files his declaration of intention to become a citizen before his children are twenty-one years old, is thereby made a voter.

Any foreign-born male who has served in the United States army, and can show an honorable discharge, is a voter.

NETHERLANDS, THE, a kingdom in Europe. King, William III., born February 19, 1817; succeeded his father, March 17, 1849. Area, 13,890 English square miles; population (according to the calculation of the Royal Statistical Bureau), in 1866, 3,552,665; at the close of 1867, 3,592,416. An official census is taken every tenth year; the result of the last censuses was as follows: 1859, 3,293,577; 1849, 3,056,879; 1839, 2,860,450; 1829, 2,613,487. The large cities are, Amsterdam, 267,627; Rotterdam, 117,107; the Hague, 89,068. The population of the Dutch colonies is as follows: East Indies (1866), 20,523,742; West Indies, 84,486; coast of Guiana, about 120,000; total, 20,728,228. In the Dutch East Indies there was, in 1866, a European population of 36,124 (of whom 29,768 were born in the colonies); exclusive of 11,492 soldiers and their descendants (886). The number of Chinese in the same colonies was 241,533. The budget for 1868 fixes the expenditures at 99,665,824 guilders, and the receipts at 94,865,321 guilders. The public debt, in 1868, was 968,243,913 guilders. The army, in 1867, consisted of 61,318 men; the army in the East India colonies, of 27,168 men. The fleet, on July 1, 1868, consisted of 135 vessels, with 1,325 guns. The imports, in 1866, amounted to 528,970,000 guilders, and the exports to 436,590,000 guilders. The merchant navy, on December 31,

1866 consisted of 2,178 vessels, together of 510,379 tons. The movement of shipping, in 1866, was as follows:

FLAG.	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Dutch..	3,342	597,586	3,337	607,920
Foreign.	5,126	1,316,541	5,079	1,341,143
Total..	8,468	1,914,127	8,416	1,949,063

According to an official return, the whole length of the railways in Holland, on December 31, 1867, was 1,071 kilometres (five-eighths of a mile each). In 1868, 200 more were added, and on the 31st of December the total was 1,271. The increase has been entirely on the state network, which shows thus far 708 kilometres.

The official organ of the Government, on January 3, 1868, published a report of the Council of Ministers proposing the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies, followed by a royal decree ordering that the Chamber be dissolved accordingly. The new elections took place on the 22d of February, and the general result was, the election of 35 ministerial candidates, 27 of whom previously belonged to the House, and 38 opposition candidates, 31 of whom were old members. The new session of the States-General was opened on the 25th of February by a royal commission, consisting of the Ministers of the Interior and Finance. The opening speech said:

The Government considers that its conduct of foreign policy has been advantageous to the country. It was with regret, but after mature reflection, that it decided upon dissolving the former Chamber. There was at present a new Chamber, one-fifth of which consisted of new members. The Government and the representatives (continues the speech) have now to guarantee that agreement between the executive and legislative powers which is necessary to strengthen confidence in our public institutions. If the Government receives the support of the States-General the session will be fruitful. Let us all unite in affection toward our sovereign and in care for his faithful people, and the country will profit by our labors.

The Second Chamber elected M. Van Reenen president, who, on accepting the post, delivered a speech in which he advised a conciliatory spirit to all parties. On the 2d of March, M. Thorbecke brought forward a resolution respecting the recent dissolution of the Chamber. He delivered a speech showing that the frequent dissolution of the Chamber was unconstitutional and uncalled for. Several other Liberal members condemned the conduct of the ministers, who, they said, were guilty of an abuse of the King's name. The Minister of the Interior and the Minister for Foreign Affairs defended the Government, the latter requesting the Chamber to suspend its judgment until the discussion of the budget. On the 4th of March M. Blusse proposed the following resolution: "The House, having heard the statements of the ministers, is of opinion

that the country's interests did not require the last dissolution of the Chamber." On the 21st of March this resolution was adopted, by 39 votes against 34. On the 28th of April the Second Chamber rejected the estimates of the Minister for Foreign Affairs by 37 to 35 votes. The ministry immediately tendered their resignation to the King. Their resignation was accepted. Attempts to form a new Cabinet with M. Van Reenen and Baron Mackay having been abandoned, the task on May 23d was intrusted to the old leader of the Liberal party, M. Thorbecke, who succeeded. The new ministry was officially announced on the 3d of June, but the list was not completed until the 8th of June. It was composed as follows: C. Fock, Minister of the Interior; J. M. Roest van Limburg, Foreign Affairs; P. P. van Bosse, Finance; F. G. R. H. van Silver, Justice; E. Dewaal, Colonies; J. J. van Mulken, War; L. G. Broex, Marine. The ministry of Public Worship was dispensed with.

In November there was a serious riot at Rotterdam, but it was promptly quelled by the troops. Twenty-two persons were killed.

NEVADA. The election which was held in this State during the year was for the choice of presidential electors, a member of Congress, judges of the Supreme Court, members of the Legislature, and local officers. The Republican ticket prevailed by a majority of about 1,400. The Legislature contained in the Senate 15 Republicans and 5 Democrats; in the House 36 Republicans and 3 Democrats. The views of the conventions of the respective parties in the State corresponded with those of similar conventions in other parts of the country, except on the question of suffrage. On this subject, the Republican Convention adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That being, as a party, in favor of intelligent suffrage only, we heartily indorse the action of our National Convention in its position of leaving to Nevada and other loyal States the undisputed right to regulate the question of suffrage for themselves.

In the Assembly, elected as above mentioned, the word "white" was stricken from the Constitution of the State by a vote of nearly two to one.

A question of some national interest came up in Nevada, which was decided by the United States Supreme Court during the year. The plaintiff in error was agent of the Pioneer Stage Company, at Carson City, and was ordered by the sheriff of Ormsby County to make a statement of the number of passengers conveyed out of the State in April, 1865, in accordance with the ninety-first section of the revenue act of Nevada, which levies a capitation tax of one dollar upon every person leaving the State by any railroad, stage-coach, or other vehicle, engaged or employed in the business of transporting passengers. The agent, refusing to comply with the order of the sheriff, was committed for contempt, but after-

ward released on a writ of *habeas corpus*. The Supreme Court of Nevada decided that the law in question was constitutional, but the United States Supreme Court reversed the judgment of the court below, with instructions to enter judgment in accordance with this opinion.

Mr. Justice Miller, who delivered the opinion, after examining the subject in its constitutional relations, took the general ground that citizens in one part of the country have the same unrestrained right to travel as citizens in any other part of the United States. He reviewed the question in a national aspect, referring, among other things, to the fact that Washington is the seat of a great Government, Congress makes laws, the judiciary expounds them, and the President directs its thousands of employes in the transaction of business. They may be called to Washington for instructions, or other citizens may be appointed to office in Washington, or such public officers may find it necessary to leave their respective localities to attend to Government business in other States. If restrictions be imposed upon their travel, it is apparent that the design of a free Government, where every man has a right to emigrate, cannot be efficiently carried out. And so of business of all kinds in the States, whether connected with the Government or not. If one State can impose a capitation tax on passengers leaving it, or passing through its territory, so can another, or all the States may thus restrain or impede travel, and interfere with commerce between the States. In further support of the views of the majority of the court, he said the Government, under such State laws, could be seriously embarrassed in the transportation of troops and supplies, and quoted numerous legal authorities to sustain the opinion. Chief-Justice Chase and Associate-Justice Clifford dissented as to some of the principles advanced in the opinion.

The construction of railroads is already attracting attention among the people. The Central Pacific is about completed through the State. Another enterprise is the Virginia and Truckee Railroad, to connect with the Central Pacific at Reno, on the Truckee River, passing through Washoe City, Carson City, and the richest agricultural valleys to Virginia City. The engineers are engaged in the necessary surveys. Arrangements have been made for the iron and rolling stock, and nothing remains to engage the attention of the company but the speedy grading of the road and the laying of the track. Another road is contemplated from Oroville, California, to Virginia City, and a portion of the capital is taken up.

The mining operations throughout the State have improved during the year, although the yield of some districts has declined. Of the new fields which have been discovered, the most promising is known as the White Pine. This district comprises an area of about twelve miles square, in a bold chain of hills bearing

the same name, whose general altitude varies from six to nine thousand feet, though several high ridges reach an elevation of eleven thousand feet. It lies one hundred and twenty-five miles east of south from Elko, and about the same distance south of east from Austin. Elko is on the Central Pacific Railroad, some four hundred and sixty miles east of Sacramento, and at present is simply a collection of tents, at the mouth of the south fork of the Humboldt. Stages already run between Silver City and Boise, to Elko, and thence to Hamilton, in the White Pine district. The discovery of the silver lodes—regarded as the richest ever known in the world—was made by an Indian and a man named Eberhardt, and the mine located in January, 1868. A shaft was sunk at the point of discovery, out of which some good ore was taken, but nothing to indicate the immense value which has since been developed. In May following, a discovery was made, about a hundred feet east of the shaft, of exceedingly rich ore, and work was commenced with vigor. The nearest reduction-works were at Newark, some twenty-five miles distant, and Austin, one hundred and twenty miles distant; and the ore was shipped to both these points. The first lot, worked at Austin, paid at the rate of fourteen hundred dollars per ton.

The Eberhardt is located on the southern slope of Treasure Hill, and development has shown that it runs nearly east and west, rather than north and south, as located; yet that portion which is at present yielding so abundantly is called the South Eberhardt. The workings have been extended until two distinct and well-defined walls appear, which are one hundred and eighty-four feet apart, and between which the ore is enclosed. The vein matter is a conglomerate of quartz, calcspar, limestone charged with metal, and boulders of barren limestone, a majority of which contain from eight thousand to twenty thousand dollars per ton in silver; none of the lower grade is at present worked, and nothing less than three hundred and fifty dollar ore has yet been sent to the mill, and by far the greater portion has yielded from eight to twelve hundred dollars per ton. The mine lies in a limestone formation; the workings during the summer were in an open cut, but during the fall two shafts were sunk which were covered with a substantial building, and through which the workings are conducted. The deepest shaft is but eighty or ninety feet down. There was in sight in the mine, on January 1st, as estimated by competent judges, between four and five hundred tons of milling ore. Small lots of ore have been selected and smelted that yielded from four to seven dollars per pound; and the company had on hand about seven tons of ore that will yield from five to seven thousand dollars per ton in silver. Since the opening of the mine, in May last, according to the books of the company, an amount of ore has been

taken out and reduced, that has produced four hundred and sixteen thousand two hundred and fifteen dollars (\$416,215) in silver bullion. They had on hand, stored at their ore-house, at the mill, four hundred tons of ore, and at their ore-house on the mine, one hundred tons more, estimated to yield a half million dollars in bullion.

The ore is mostly a chloride of silver, and consists largely of that class known as horn silver, and produces bullion of the highest grade, ranging from nine hundred to nine hundred and eighty-five fine. No trace of gold has been found in the bullion. As the ore is already a chloride, it requires no roasting, and can be reduced at one-half the cost that is usually incurred in reducing the ores. The first thirty days' run of the company's mill, which has but ten stamps, produced one hundred and forty-eight thousand two hundred and seventy-eight dollars in bullion (\$148,278).

NEW HAMPSHIRE. The public affairs of this State during the year 1868 have continued to flow in their regular course, yet showing a marked tendency to general prosperity. This seems deducible from the reports of the State officers on the matters belonging to their several departments, and chiefly from the message delivered by Governor Harriman to both Houses of the Legislature, at the opening of the session on June 4, 1868.

The sound financial condition of the State appears from the fact that her bonds are easily disposed of at par, and even above it. Of her whole debt, amounting on June 1, 1867, to \$3,747,776.98, the sum of \$260,364.98 was paid in the following year, so that it now remains at \$3,487,411.97. This includes the floating debt, which has been reduced to less than \$400,000. Other bills to the amount of some \$15,000 were also paid during the same period, which had accrued before June, 1867, but were presented for adjustment afterward, and there are at present no matured bills outstanding. The Governor anticipates that the State debt will be lessened this year at least \$300,000 more. And, as the above-mentioned \$260,364.98 had been paid on it in 1868, notwithstanding the State tax was \$125,000 less than the year before, he suggests for 1869 "a further reduction in the tax to be assessed of \$100,000." The State, county, and town debts amount in the aggregate to \$11,000,000, paying interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum.

On account of bounties advanced by the cities and towns of New Hampshire during the late civil war, the General Government had paid last year to the State \$58,245. Efforts are now made to obtain the small balance which remains due. The sum of \$14,000 was also received from the Federal Government, in part payment for uniforms purchased by the State for her militia, and the rest will be allowed on the presentation of the required evidence which is now being collected. The Governor avers: "We have received a larger per cent. on our

whole war claim than has been allowed to any other State."

Concerning the present organization of the volunteer militia, its number, equipment, and discipline, the distribution of its companies into different localities within the State, and the utility derived from its service to the whole community, the Governor refers with satisfaction to the report of the Adjutant-General. "The report gives a clear and practical view of the volunteer militia. It is many years since we have had so efficient and reliable a force in our State. The military force comprises thirty companies, which will be formed into three regiments before the next annual encampment. The uniforms and equipments for the whole force are new and in good condition, and are all paid for. By a change made in the military law last year, it is made the duty of the Quartermaster-General to furnish transportation for the troops when they go into encampments, instead of allowing each person five cents a mile each way for travelling-fees. Under this arrangement there will be a great saving of expense under the head of mileage. The cost of maintaining the State militia will now be very small as compared with last year.

"The beauty of our military system is in its efficiency and its small expense. With us, one person performs the duties of adjutant, quartermaster, inspector, commissary, and surgeon-general. There is no other State where more than two of these five positions are filled by one individual. The only compensation of our officers and privates is one dollar and fifty cents a day while on duty."

Besides military matters of present practical interest, the greatest part of the Adjutant-General's report—some four hundred pages—is devoted to a military history of New Hampshire from 1812 to 1861, a former report having treated the same subject from her first settlement as an English colony in 1623 to 1812. This last-named period is referred to by the Governor in his present message, stating that the first volume, containing the provincial records from 1623 to 1686, was published and distributed last year in obedience to the order of the Legislature; that the second volume, a continuation of the history of the Province from 1686 to 1710, is now in press; and that "materials for the third volume are in course of preparation." The military history of New Hampshire, from its beginning in the seventeenth century to the present time, will be thus complete. By an act of the Legislature, approved July 4th, 2,500 copies of the Adjutant-General's report were ordered "to be procured for the use of the State."

A work of eminent public utility to New Hampshire, namely, the revision, amendment, and codification of the general statutes, ordered by the Legislature in 1865, was finished last year by those to whom its execution had been intrusted. The Governor expresses his gratification that "the great body of the public laws has

now been condensed within the limits of a single volume of six hundred and seventy-six pages," the constitutions of New Hampshire and of the United States, besides the marginal notes of reference, a glossary of technical words, and a copious index of ninety-five pages included. Hereupon he observes that "laws should not be repealed nor amendments made more frequently than the essential good of the people may demand."

This was soon brought to a practical test. By the end of the month in which the advice was given, a joint resolution of both Houses repealed the usury law then in force, making it dependent on the will of the parties to agree on a higher rate of interest than the one prescribed by law. On July 3d, the Governor returned the bill unsigned, and accompanied it with a message declaring the act not justified by any public demand, the great mass of the people being satisfied with the law as it is, and desiring no change. He stated, on the other hand, that such a measure, being clearly in the interest of capitalists and money-lenders, was fraught with danger to private individuals as well as the State, since her creditors would have thence a most plausible occasion to demand the payment either of a rate of interest higher than six per cent., or of the principal. This veto, wherein the Governor says that it is the first time in which he must disagree with the legislative body, gave occasion to a hot debate in the House of Representatives; but his reasons seem to have been appreciated by a large majority among the members, since his veto was finally sustained by a vote of 162 yeas against 96 nays, and the usury law stands unrepealed.

Governor Harriman calls the attention of the Legislature to the state of public instruction in general and the condition of the common schools in particular, deploring that the Normal School and Teachers' Institute, which once existed in the State, had been injudiciously abolished. He urges the necessity of reviving it as soon as possible.

To improve the system of popular education, some effectual measures had been taken by the General Court at its last session, and several changes introduced, the most important of them being the creation of a general superintendence of public instruction as an independent office and a distinct branch among the executive departments. The new superintendent, though he had entered upon the duties of his office only a few months before, by the beginning of June, 1868, submitted his first report, which exhibits the present condition of the public school system in New Hampshire, its wants and defects, in detail, and points to the proper means of supplying and correcting them in order to ameliorate and complete the system. The Governor refers the Legislature to this report, highly praising it for its fulness and accuracy as well as for the soundness and apparent utility of its suggestions. He

recommends them as worthy of being acted upon and put in execution. The report, containing a summary of statistics in regard to the public schools, teachers, and pupils in New Hampshire, except some ten cities and towns which had made no returns, is as follows: The number of school districts reported are 2,287; decrease for the year, 22; number of schools, 2,487; number of scholars attending, 77,138; decrease for the year, 709; average attendance, 52,476; decrease for the year, 590; number of children between four and fourteen years not attending anywhere, 3,228; increase for the year, 414; number of male teachers, 477; number of female teachers, 2,465; average wages of male teachers per month, \$34.64; average wages of female teachers per month \$19.78; whole length of summer schools in weeks, 22,292; whole length of winter schools in weeks, 22,241; average length of the schools in weeks, 16½; estimated value of school-houses and lots, \$1,130,698; increase for the year, \$133,865; estimated value of school apparatus, \$13,327; number of unfit school-houses, 427; decrease for the year, 55; expenditures in building and repairing school-houses, \$86,192; increase for the year, \$10,226; compensation paid school-committees, \$10,246; increase for the year, \$395; number of volumes in libraries reported, 55,079; amount raised by tax for support of schools, \$282,606.58; increase for the year, \$39,890.62; amount raised by tax beyond what the law requires, \$66,528; increase for the year, \$8,010; amount contributed in board, etc., to prolong the schools, \$24,599.41; increase for the year, \$4,596.92; total amount expended for schools, exclusive of school-committees' compensation, \$333,465.62; increase for the year, \$43,158; average amount to each scholar, \$3.69; number of visits of school-committees, 11,804; number of visits of prudential committees, 2,518.

For the promotion of agriculture and the mechanic arts in New Hampshire, the Federal Government, by act of Congress, dated July 2, 1862, donated to the State 150,000 acres of the public lands, or their equivalent in scrip. Governor Harriman informs the Legislature that the scrip was sold for \$80,000, and that, in compliance with the requirements of the grant, an Agricultural College, embracing instruction in the mechanic arts, has been established at Hanover, in connection with Dartmouth College. As appears from its programme, published in August, 1868, this new "institution will be open for the reception of students on the 4th of September next. The course of study covers three years, with two terms a year, answering to the fall and spring terms of the Dartmouth College. The fall term is from the 4th of September to the 26th of November; the spring term from the 8th of January to the 18th of April. Opportunity is thus given the students to spend the summer months at home, and, if they please, in such agricultural or mechanical em-

ployment as will be both remunerative and practically profitable. Topics are to be given them at the close of the spring term, on which, from observation, experiment, or study, during the summer, papers are to be prepared for the fall term." In the division of the varied studies to be pursued during the triennial course, the programme provides "for three classes, junior, middle, and senior. Only the junior class is to be formed in 1868, taking the studies of the first year. A partial course may be pursued by any who choose." The requisites for admission are, "at present, only the studies pursued in the common schools. Candidates must be at least sixteen years of age, and, with testimonials of good moral character, will be required to pass a satisfactory examination in English grammar, geography, and arithmetic."

By a joint resolution of the Legislature, approved July 3, 1868, the Governor was authorized "to appoint a State geologist, whose duty it shall be to commence and carry on, with as much expedition and dispatch as may be consistent with minuteness and accuracy, a thorough geological and mineralogical survey of this State, . . . make an annual report of his progress to the Secretary of State, who shall submit the same to the Legislature, and forward from time to time such specimens of mineralogical substances as may be proper and necessary to form a complete cabinet collection of specimens of the geology and mineralogy of the State; one complete set to the Secretary of State, for preservation at the capital, and one complete set to the Agricultural College, to be used in the instruction of the young men who may resort thither for an agricultural education." They appropriated at the same time a yearly sum of \$3,500 "for the purpose of carrying into effect the provisions of this act."

A suitable room for the State Library, with shelving for 15,000 volumes, having lately been fitted up at a cost of \$3,000 appropriated for it in the previous session of the Legislature, the Governor requests them to provide for the purchase of books, especially those for "reference in law and legislative matters, and of the missing volumes in law reports." He also asks them to forbid the removal of books from the library. By a joint resolution, approved July 3, the sum of \$500 was appropriated "for the purpose of supplying missing volumes and filling incomplete sets of the statutes and digests." The removal of books from the library was also forbidden, with some necessary exceptions, limited to the time when the Legislature is in session, and subject to such conditions as the trustees may impose.

In respect to charitable institutions, the Board of Visitors of the New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane, the Board consisting of the Governor, the Executive Council, the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives, presented to

the Legislature their official report for the year ending May 1, 1868, stating that "they have made a personal examination of the condition of the patients, buildings, farm, and finances of the institution, and find it highly prosperous and satisfactory. The patients afford every appearance of being well and kindly cared for. The new building for the accommodation of excited female inmates has been finished, and will be furnished and ready for occupancy in a few weeks. Additional room is greatly needed for lodging apartments for employes of the asylum, for a new and larger kitchen, for a cellar, and for a convenient chapel. The finances are in a sound condition, and the institution is now, as it has ever been, self-supporting; being no charge to the State, except for the erection of such buildings as are necessary for the successful prosecution of its beneficent work." In order to meet the pressing wants of a new kitchen, a cellar, sleeping-rooms for employes, and a more spacious chapel, the trustees recommend the erection of a building of brick, three stories in height, seventy-five feet long and forty-eight feet wide. The estimated expense of the designed structure is \$17,000, which amount is asked of the Legislature. This appropriation is recommended also by the Governor in his message, besides a further one of \$5,000 expended in the erection of the above-mentioned new building for excited female patients, beyond the amount previously provided for. Both these sums have been appropriated by an act of the Legislature approved June 24th. As to the expense of the asylum and the number of its inmates, the reports of the treasurer and superintendent give the following items: "On the first day of May, 1867, the number of patients was 246. Of these 122 were males, and 124 females. The number on the roll May 1, 1868, was 235, eleven less than one year before, though the number of women was only one less. The decrease in the number of inmates is attributed to the removal of patients to county almshouses, as these establishments go into operation, for the purpose of reducing the cost of their support. The Asylum was opened in 1843, and the whole number of patients ever admitted is 2,579. On the 1st of May, 1867, there was a balance in the treasury of the institution of \$44.97. During the ensuing financial year there were received from various sources \$64,942.41. Whole amount expended during the year, \$63,351.73, leaving cash on hand May 1, 1868, \$1,635.65."

By two other acts, approved July 2d and 4th respectively, the Legislature appropriated \$2,000 "for the education of indigent deaf and dumb persons of the State, at the American Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Hartford," with \$500 more for others laboring under the same misfortune, to be educated "at such other similar institution as the Governor and Council may select;" and \$2,700 "for educating the

indigent blind, or partially blind persons of the State at the Institute for the Blind in Boston." All such persons are to be elected and approved by the Governor.

Governor Harriman praises the management, discipline, and financial condition of the State Prison, stating that it earns at present, "and will continue to earn, a thousand dollars a month above expenses," and that its workshop, having lately been extended by authority of the Legislature, "is now one of the best shops to be found in the country." He asks an appropriation "to pay off an old debt against the prison, and to pay for certain fixtures recently put in;" and recommends "the addition of eighteen cells" as pressingly wanted. These wants are also spoken of in the report of the warden and inspector for the year ending May 1, 1868, and in those of the chaplain and physician, furnishing some not uninteresting facts relating to the State Prison of New Hampshire, as follows: "The number of convicts at the date of the report was 135, five of them females. From the tables of prison statistics, it appears that the present roll of convicts is the largest ever recorded. The whole number committed since the opening of the prison in 1812 is 1,406; number discharged, 669; pardoned, 473; removed to the Asylum for the Insane, 6; died in prison, 91; escaped, 19. Of those now confined three are committed for life, three for thirty years, one for twenty-five years, and one for twenty years. A majority of the remaining terms vary from one to seven years. Five of the convicts are Government criminals.

"The expectations, in regard to the advantages to be derived from the new contracts for the labor of the prisoners, are fully realized. The committee from the Governor's Council state that a careful estimate for the last two months goes to convince them that the prison, for the next year, will earn \$8,000 above its ordinary expenses.

"The commutation law passed by the last Legislature has been productive of the most favorable results. By this enactment, every month of exemplary conduct on the part of a prisoner gains him a certain amount of time to be deducted from the term of his sentence. It is thought that nine-tenths of the inmates will so deport themselves as to secure the whole amount of commutation allowed by the law. Every convict who avails himself of the benefits of this provision is released in advance of the expiration of his original term of imprisonment and thus retains the rights of citizenship."

The Governor speaks well of the State Reform School, affirming that it continues to do the good work for which it was instituted twelve years ago, in reclaiming the erring youth from their wayward course, and educating them to become useful members of society to their own advantage as well as that of the whole community. He earnestly recommends

its wants to the favorable consideration of the Legislature, which, by a joint resolution approved June 24th, appropriated for it the sum of \$12,000. It appears that "the State Reform School at Manchester has cost \$17,236 during the year, a balance against the establishment of \$7,718 above all resources, except State appropriations. During the last school year there were 111 boys and 24 girls in the school, and the average time each spends is a little more than two years."

As to banking institutions, Governor Harriman informs the Legislature that they are generally sound and carrying on a profitable business. He dwells particularly on the condition of the savings banks, of which there are in New Hampshire thirty-one, their deposits amounting, in the aggregate, to \$14,250,000, \$3,250,000 more than in the previous year. A motion having been offered and advocated by many members of the Legislature, at the last session, to increase the tax on deposits in these banks from three-fourths of one per cent., as it now is, to two per cent., the Governor warns them against the probable dangers of such a measure, lest it should drive the money out of the banks and out of the State, or so disperse it as to elude the vigilance of the tax-gatherer. He recommends an increase of the rate of said tax no higher than one per cent., which would secure to the State an income of above \$140,000. He also recommends a graduated scale, fixed by legislative enactment, regulating the percentage allowed the savings banks treasurers in lieu of salaries, as these now swell in some cases to seven, eight, and nine thousand dollars a year, to the detriment of depositors, whose dividends are diminished thereby.

The Board of Insurance Commissioners state in their annual report that there are twelve mutual insurance companies now in operation in New Hampshire, doing a safe business, the increase of which they anticipate. Besides these, there are thirty-two foreign fire and twelve foreign life insurance companies doing business in the State. Their agents have complied with her laws by presenting to the commissioners the detailed statements of their respective assets and liabilities, "the amount of capital stock actually paid in, the outstanding risks, and the premiums thereon, the amount of premiums received during the preceding year in the State, and the amount of losses paid therein during the same period." The reports of the several fire insurance companies of other States show the aggregate amount of cash premiums which they received in New Hampshire the past year to be \$223,804.44; the aggregate amount which they have paid in this State for losses during the same time is \$213,859.59, showing a balance of premiums of \$9,944.85. The report of the several life insurance companies located out of the State, but doing business therein, shows an aggregate amount of cash premiums received in New Hampshire for the past year of \$370,701.91;

the aggregate amount paid for losses within the State for the same time is \$100,413.64, showing the excess of premiums to be \$270,-288.27.

Concerning the resources of the State, "as presented in her agriculture, manufactures, and forests of wood and timber," the Governor complains that "thus far in her history the State has furnished no substantial encouragement for their development." Referring to the reason set down at length in his previous message, he urges on the Legislature the earnest consideration of the subject. Though her agriculture and manufactures are generally in a reasonably prosperous condition, yet, to keep pace with other States, he recommends that she ought to use all the means in her power to push them in their forward progress. He says: "In the department of agriculture, and particularly in that branch of it which includes wheat-growing, we need to redouble our efforts;" stating that the cost of wheat flour annually consumed in New Hampshire amounts to six million dollars, and that "nearly all of this vast sum is paid to producers out of the State," when it might be retained within by raising wheat sufficient for home consumption upon her soil. By proper measures taken on the part of the Legislature, he avers that such a result can be easily obtained, there being in the State 30,000 farms of an average extent of 123 acres, amounting to 3,690,000 acres; whereas 90,000 acres, or only three acres to each farm, if devoted to wheat-culture, would furnish all the flour consumed in the State, allowing the moderate yield of fifteen bushels to the acre. He applies the same considerations to the money sent out of the State for other grain, and especially to supply her people with corn-meal, not one-half of the staple consumed by them being produced within her limits.

He urges upon the Assembly to encourage, by wise and liberal legislation, the development of the numerous sites of water-power in New Hampshire, the construction of railway lines wherever needed, and hold out proper inducements to invite outside people and capital to settle in the State.

Good care is taken by the State to multiply the fish in her waters. From the report of the commissioners to whom that interest has been intrusted, it appears that "since the passage of the laws prohibiting the catching of various kinds of fish in their spawning seasons, there has been a marked increase of the species so protected," and that, "since their last report in June, 1867, the work of stocking our waters with sea and other fish has made very satisfactory progress. The propagation of fish from their eggs and the introduction of black bass into several of our lakes and ponds are being carried forward under the direction of the commissioners. Fishways are already completed over the dams at Lawrence, Lowell, and Manchester, thus leaving the Merrimack and Pemigewasset free for the salmon to the upper

waters of the latter river as far as Woodstock. There are assurances that fishways will soon be completed over all the dams on the Winnepesaukee River. The amount appropriated last year for the general purposes of the enterprise has been nearly all expended, and a similar appropriation of \$1,500 will be needed for the ensuing year." These endeavors of the State are well seconded by her citizens in their private capacity, the commissioners stating that "a decided interest has been awakened in the State, which has led to the creation, by private enterprise, of quite a number of fish-breeding establishments in various parts of New Hampshire."

With regard to political matters, the Republicans in the State outnumber the Democrats largely. The latter affirm, however, that at the election for Governor on March 10, 1868, their own candidate would have been elected, or was really elected, but the result appeared otherwise in consequence of the "gross fraud" practised by the Republicans, whom they charge with having tampered "with the check-lists throughout the State—erasing legal voters and substituting illegal ones—refusing to inscribe the names of qualified voters, and placing upon the lists the signature of any citizen who would vote for Harriman;" adding that "the amount of money expended to influence men to vote the Republican ticket, or to refrain from voting the Democratic, was immense—much more than can be raised for a similar purpose in November." In this point, however, the Republicans returned the charge upon the Democrats by publishing in the papers of April 1, 1868, that "to carry the recent election in New Hampshire, money without stint was poured into the State by the Democratic party. The vast influence of official patronage was brought to bear."

The New Hampshire Democratic State Convention met at Concord on January 20, 1869, when they adopted, as a standing protest, the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of New Hampshire, in convention assembled, declare their adhesion to certain principles by them hitherto maintained, and which in victory or defeat they will never surrender: First, the paramount and binding authority of the Constitution over all departments of government and all States of the Union, to the extent of the powers therein granted; second, the exemption of every State from any interference or control not clearly warranted by the Constitution; third, the right of every State to an equal participation in the government, as guaranteed by the Constitution; fourth, the separation and proper independence of the executive, legislative, and judicial departments, as provided by the Constitution; fifth, no privileged classes and no privileged capital; sixth, an honest and economical administration of the government for the good of the people, and not in the interest of monopolies and thieves and plunderers of the public Treasury and the national domain.

Resolved, That while all existing contracts entered into in good faith should be fully kept in the letter and spirit of the contract, Congress should impose such just and equal taxes upon all Government bonds and United States securities as will compel their hold-

ers to bear their just share of the burden of government, and all bonds hereafter issued should be made subject to State and municipal taxation at the same rates as other property.

Resolved, That the Democrats of New Hampshire hereby pledge their earnest and united efforts to insure the election of the candidates this day nominated.

The resolutions of the Republican State Convention, convened nearly at the same time, were more full, and decidedly expressed the views of the Republican party in the Eastern States. The total vote for Governor was 77,077; of which Walter Harriman received a majority of 2,523. For President the total vote was 69,426; of which the Republican electors received a majority of 6,956. The majority in favor of a constitutional convention was 127. In the Legislative body there were nine Republican Senators and three Democratic, also 194 Republican Representatives, and 138 Democratic.

NEW JERSEY. The Legislature of New Jersey assembled at Trenton on the second Tuesday in January, and continued in session until the 17th of April, during which time no less than 813 bills were disposed of, and several important joint resolutions adopted. With regard to the general results of this legislation, one of the local newspapers says: "If the Legislature had done nothing more than to rescind the mischievous legislation of the last two years, and to reinstate the people in the enjoyment of their long-accustomed rights and privileges, it would have deserved the commendations of the public; but besides this, it has settled some of the vexed questions that have always attended the conflicting rights of the State and the people, and left the course of future legislation comparatively unembarrassed." How all this was accomplished does not distinctly appear. One of the most important acts, rescinding past legislation, was the passage of a joint resolution withdrawing the assent of the State to the Fourteenth Amendment of the Federal Constitution. This resolution was preceded by a preamble, which set out with the following declaration:

The Legislature of the State of New Jersey, having seriously and deliberately considered the present situation of the United States, *do declare and make known*, That the basis of all government is the consent of the governed; and all constitutions are contracts between the parties bound thereby; that until any proposition to alter the fundamental law, to which all the States have consented, has been ratified by such number of the States as by the Federal Constitution makes it binding upon all, any one that has assented is at liberty to withdraw that assent, and it becomes its duty to do so when, upon mature consideration, such withdrawal seems to be necessary to the safety and happiness of all. Prudence dictates that a consent once given should not be recalled for light and transient causes; but the right is a natural right, the exercise of which is accompanied with no injustice to any of the parties; it has, therefore, been universally recognized as inhering in every party, and has ever been left unimpaired by any positive regulation.

It then declares that the amendment was not proposed by the requisite two-thirds of both

Houses of Congress, "at least seventy representatives from ten States of the Union" being excluded, "upon the pretence that there were no such States in the Union," and New Jersey herself, having been "practically denied its equal suffrage in the Senate;" and proceeds to arraign the national legislative body for its subsequent "usurpations" in passing "pretended laws for the establishment in ten States of martial law, which is nothing but the will of a military commander, and therefore inconsistent with the very nature of law, for the purpose of reducing to slavery men of their own race in those States; or, compelling them, contrary to their own convictions, to exercise the elective franchise in obedience to the dictation of a faction in those assemblies" (the two Houses of Congress). This document then contains the following array of objections to the proposed amendment:

It proposes to make it a part of the Constitution of the United States that naturalized citizens of the United States shall be citizens of the United States; as if that were not so without such absurd declaration.

It lodges with the legislative branch of the Government the power of pardon; which properly belongs, by our system, to the Executive.

It denounces and inflicts punishment for past offences by constitutional provision, and thus would make the whole people of this great nation, in their most solemn and sovereign act, guilty of violating a cardinal principle of American liberty, that no punishment can be inflicted for any offence unless it is provided by law before the commission of the offence.

It usurps the power of punishment, which in any coherent system of government belongs to the judiciary, and commits it to the people in their sovereign capacity.

It degrades the nation by proclaiming to the world that no confidence can be placed in its honesty or morality.

It appeals to the fears of the public creditors by publishing a libel on the American people, and fixing it forever in the national Constitution as a stigma upon the present generation, that there must be constitutional guards against a repudiation of the public debt; as if it were possible that a people who were so corrupt as to disregard such an obligation would be bound by any contract, constitutional or otherwise.

It imposes new prohibitions upon the power of the State to pass laws, and interdicts the execution of such parts of the common law as the national judiciary may esteem inconsistent with the vague provisions of the said amendment, made vague for the purpose of facilitating encroachments upon the lives, liberties, and property, of the people.

It enlarges the judicial power of the United States so as to bring every law passed by the State, and every principle of the common law relating to life, liberty, or property, within the jurisdiction of the Federal tribunals; and charges those tribunals with duties to the due performance of which they, from their nature and organization, and their distance from the people, are unequal.

It makes a new apportionment of representation in the national councils, for no other reason than thereby to secure to a faction a sufficient number of the votes of a servile and ignorant race to outweigh the intelligent voices of their own.

It sets up a standard of suffrage dependent entirely upon citizenship, majority, inhabitancy, and manhood, and any interference whatever by the State, imposing any other reasonable qualification, as time

of inhabitaney, causes a reduction of the State's representation.

The resolution itself is in these words:

1. *Resolved by the Senate and General Assembly of the State of New Jersey*, That the joint resolution approved September 11th, Anno Domini eighteen hundred and sixty-six, relative to amending the Constitution of the United States, be and the same is hereby rescinded, and the consent on behalf of the State of New Jersey to ratify the proposed fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States is hereby withdrawn.

2. *And be it resolved*, That copies of the foregoing preamble and resolution, certified to by the President of the Senate and Speaker of the General Assembly, be forwarded to the President of the United States, the Secretary of State of the United States, to each of our Senators and Representatives in Congress, and to the Governors of the respective States.

3. *And be it enacted*, That these resolutions shall take effect immediately.

Having been submitted to Governor Ward for his approval, these resolutions were returned by that official to the Senate, in which body they had originated, with his objections, stated at considerable length. Such resolutions, he said, had no validity. The ratification having already been made, no further action could be taken by the State, unless the matter were again submitted by Congress. No time was set for ratification by a sufficient number of States, and therefore New Jersey could not avail herself of any right to withdraw her assent because of delay by other States. Notwithstanding the Governor's objections, the resolutions passed both Houses by a two-thirds majority, and were forwarded to the proper authorities at Washington. They were submitted to the consideration of the House of Representatives by Charles Haight, a member from New Jersey, and were returned to that gentleman before the reading of them had been completed, under the following resolution:

Resolved, That the resolutions of the Legislature of New Jersey, purporting to withdraw "the assent of the said State to the Constitutional Amendment, known as the Fourteenth Article," be returned by the Speaker of the House to the gentleman who presented them, for the reason that the same are disrespectful to the House, and scandalous in character; and that their title only shall be referred to in the journal and in the *Congressional Globe*.

When this action of the House of Representatives was made known in the Senate of New Jersey, that august body vented its resentment in the following set of resolutions, which were promptly acquiesced in by the Assembly and sent to the President, "to encourage him in his efforts against a disloyal Congress."

Be it resolved by the Senate, the House of Assembly concurring, That the return of the joint resolution of the Legislature, withdrawing the assent of this State to the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, entitled Article Fourteen, to the Representative who presented the same, by virtue of the resolution of the House to that effect, and the passage of a resolution, pronouncing the joint resolutions of New Jersey "disrespectful to the House and scandalous in character," when only a portion of the paper had been read, was a violation

of the national and constitutional rights of the people of this State, oppressive, arrogant, and imperious.

That the manner in which the said joint resolutions were received, demonstrates the wholesome truths contained in them. It confirms the statement that "the origin and objects of the said proposed amendments were unseemly and unjust, that the necessary result of its adoption must be the disturbance of the harmony if not the destruction of our system of government," that the object of Congress was to absorb to itself all executive, judicial, and legislative power necessary to secure to itself immunity for the unconstitutional acts it had already committed, and those it had since inflicted on a too patient people.

Resolved, That if it be true, as stated by the House of Representatives, that the joint resolutions sent to them by this Legislature were "disrespectful to the House and scandalous in character," they were only disrespectful to the House, inasmuch as they recited its acts, and scandalous only because they recited the scandalous proceedings of Congress.

Resolved, That the order made "that the title of the resolutions should only be referred to in the journal and *Congressional Globe*," after a portion of the resolutions had been read, made the record untruthful and *unfaithful*. It recorded not what transpired, but what the prevailing faction desired to be recorded. It was an effort to close the ears of the people at large, as they had closed their own, to a fair and constitutional statement of grievances; to a recital of their own actings and doings; by demolishing the record and making it only a partial witness of the proceedings.

Resolved, That the statement made by the mover of the resolution on the floor of the House of Representatives, that it was done "as a rebuke to a disloyal Legislature," should have been sufficient to have prevented any representative from this State from voting for said resolution. That we, on the part of the Legislature of New Jersey and all the people of the State, deny the truth of the statement that the Legislature is disloyal, or ever has been, but pointing proudly to the record for the evidence of our past devotion to the government of our fathers, and constitutional liberty, we solemnly appeal to the people of this State to maintain, unabridged, the sacred right of freedom of speech and petition, so grossly violated by the action of the House in the presentation of these resolutions; and to that end we call on them so to speak at the polls, that the House of Representatives will be obliged to hear, be they never so unwilling, and so to record the protest of New Jersey against the unconstitutional acts of the present Congress, that no resolve of the House of Representatives can mar the record.

On the general question of negro suffrage the House of Assembly adopted the following, by a vote of 35 to 7:

Whereas, The Republican State Convention, which assembled at Taylor Hall, in the city of Trenton, on the 22d of July, 1867, did adopt, among others, the following resolutions, viz.:

"*Resolved*, That pledging ourselves for the eradication of the word "white" from the constitution of New Jersey by every legal and honorable means, we also call upon Congress to take measures to induce or compel all the States of the Union to establish a joint and uniform rule of suffrage, excluding all distinctions of class, and race, and color, so that the citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States, and the United States shall redeem its original promise to guarantee to every State in the Union a republican form of government.

"*Resolved*, That the Republican party of New Jersey, encouraged by the past, and proud of the record of its Executive, and its legislative, and its Senators, and Representatives in Congress, cheerfully accept the issue of impartial suffrage, as one of the most

important questions to be adjusted in the approaching campaign, confident that it will be sustained by the calm judgment and patriotic sentiment of the people of the State, and the gracious approval of Almighty God."

And *whereas*, upon so vital an issue, New Jersey should not occupy an uncertain position, therefore be it

Resolved, By the House of Assembly of the State of New Jersey, that we deem it incompatible with the best interests of the people of the United States to place the negro upon a political equality with the white man, by extending to the negro the elective franchise.

Resolved, That we are unalterably opposed to the establishment of negro suffrage in New Jersey by congressional legislation, because we hold that each State has the exclusive right to regulate the qualifications of its own voters.

Resolved, That we are opposed to striking out the word "white" from the constitution of New Jersey, by an amendment thereto.

The registry law of New Jersey was repealed by the Legislature and a new election law enacted, to take its place. This provides for a division of the townships and city wards of the State into election districts, each of which shall contain not more than eight hundred voters. The division is to be made by the mayor and Common Council of cities and the committees of townships, who are also to choose a clerk and their judges of election for each district to perform the duties already prescribed by law for "clerks and judges of election in wards and townships which are not divided into election districts." In addition to these duties, the clerk at each polling-place in incorporated cities and towns is required to enter on the list the place of residence of each person offering to vote; and, if such person refuses to state the street and house in which he resides, his vote is to be rejected. These are the only new features in the law.

The Republicans of New Jersey held a Convention at Trenton on the 18th of March, to choose delegates to the National Convention of the party, which was to meet at Chicago in May. Resolutions were adopted, asserting:

1. The right and duty of Congress to declare the terms on which the rebel States shall be restored, and commending their efforts to that end, although thwarted at all points by a faithless Executive.

2. That in repudiating the consent of New Jersey to the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, the Democratic Legislature transcended their powers and reversed the expressed will of the State, and they appeal from this action to the people.

3. Indorsing impeachment as the only constitutional mode of removing an Executive who abrogates the Constitution, and desiring he shall have a fair and speedy trial.

4. Anticipating and desiring the early establishment of the revolted States upon a sound and permanent basis, and a resumption of national prosperity.

5. Favoring General Grant for the presidency—deserving, as he does, the highest honors of his country for his services in maintaining her honor and her institutions in all his official acts.

6. Warned by sad experience, they ask that the candidate for the vice-presidency may be a man of unblemished character and incorruptible integrity.

7. Indorsing the official acts of Governor Ward.

The regular convention, for the nomination of candidates for Governor and other State officers, met at Taylor Hall, in Trenton, on the 9th of July. John J. Blair, a citizen of Blairstown, in Warren County, was unanimously nominated for Governor, and a Board of presidential electors was named at the same convention. The platform of the party, as laid down on this occasion, was embraced in the following series of resolutions:

Resolved, That we indorse fully and heartily the declaration of political principles promulgated by the National Convention of the Republican party, and the nominations then made of Ulysses S. Grant as President and Schuyler Colfax as Vice-President of the United States, and we pledge to them our most hearty and active support, feeling assured that with such standard-bearers, and the principles they represent, New Jersey will not hesitate to give them her electoral vote.

Resolved, That the proposition of the Democratic party to pave the way for the extinction of the national debt by compelling national creditors to accept in payment of the national obligations a depreciated currency and to tax Government securities, when they were disposed of with the specific agreement that they should not be taxed, is a dishonest and infamous measure, tending directly to destroy our national credit, depreciate the value of our country's securities, and dishonor us in the eyes of the civilized world, and that such action is but in accordance with the efforts of the Democratic party during and since the rebellion to destroy the credit of our Government.

Resolved, That the people of New Jersey owe it to themselves to drive from power in this State the so-called Democratic party, who, by removing the obstacles to fraudulent voting, by attempting to undo the ratification of the Fourteenth Article of the Constitution, by which only the Union could be safely constructed, and by their wasteful expenditure from the public funds of the State during the last session of the Legislature, have proved false to the interests committed to their charge and utterly unworthy of the public confidence.

Resolved, That we congratulate the country, and especially the people in the States lately in revolt against the Government, on the rapid restoration of those States to their former position of equality of representation and rights in the Union on the basis of justice, equality, and the intrusting the powers and administration of government only to the hands of loyal and patriotic citizens, and that the thanks of the people are due to our Senators and Representatives in Congress assembled who have faithfully accomplished this difficult and important national work.

Resolved, That the brave boys in blue nobly upheld the flag of the Republic amid the storms of war. We call upon them to rally once again around the standard of the great soldier who led them to victory, feeling assured that with their aid we will again weave the conqueror's chaplet around the brow of the hero and patriot who conquered the hosts of the rebellion.

Resolved, That we recognize and appreciate the eminent and faithful services of Hon. Marcus L. Ward, Governor of the State, during his term of office, and we heartily tender him the thanks of the Union Republican party of this State for the same.

The Democratic Convention, for the appointment of delegates to the National Convention, was held at the capital of the State on the 10th of June. The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Democracy of the State of New Jersey, by their representatives here assembled, proclaim their continued adherence and devotion to the

Constitution of the United States, with all its limitations of power upon the Federal Government.

Resolved, That it is the right of each State to determine for itself all questions relating to suffrage, and that any legislation of Congress upon this subject, affecting the States, is in violation of the Constitution and an infringement upon the reserved rights of the States.

Resolved, That the history of the Republican party, as at present controlled by its radical leaders, is characterized by a series of gross violations of the rights guaranteed by the Constitution to the States and to individuals, and at the same time a record of the most flagrant acts of tyranny and corruption that ever disgraced a civilized and Christian people.

Resolved, That the only hope of the country is the restoration of the Democratic party to power. Under its wise and conservative rule, the people have ever prospered, and, on the contrary, its defeat has invariably been the source of disaster and misrule.

Resolved, That we are opposed to all forms of repudiation of the national indebtedness, and insist that the pledged faith of the Government, at home and abroad, be maintained inviolate.

Resolved, That the gratitude of the people of New Jersey is due to those brave men who maintained the honor of the flag, by sea and by land, in the war for the preservation of the Union.

Resolved, That as this is the first time that the Democracy of the State have met by their representatives in convention since the close of the administration of the Hon. Joel Parker, it is deemed appropriate to give expression to the general approval of his conduct as Governor of this State, in the most trying period of the country's history, when with the prudence and wisdom of good statesmanship he fulfilled all the obligations of the State to the Federal Government, and at the same time upheld the civil and political rights of the people, and maintained the supremacy of the civil over the military power.

Resolved, That we pledge our unwavering support to the nominee of the National Democratic Convention to assemble in the city of New York on the fourth day of July next; that, without intending in any way to instruct our delegates, New Jersey would feel honored by the nomination of ex-Governor Joel Parker as a candidate for the office of President of the United States.

Another convention of the Democracy was held in July for the purpose of nominating candidates for Governor and electors, and of "expressing the sentiments of the party upon the issues presented for the decision of the people in the coming campaign." The expression of sentiments was contained in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we heartily indorse the nominations of Horatio Seymour and Frank P. Blair, Jr., for President and Vice-President of the United States, and the platform of principles enunciated by the National Convention of New York.

Resolved, That we congratulate the people of New Jersey upon their spontaneous repudiation of the Republican proposition of last year, to strike out the word "white" from the State constitution and to establish political equality between the white and black races in this State.

Resolved, That the Democracy of New Jersey, accepting the settlement of slavery effected by the war, and by the consent of the Southern States to the Constitutional Amendment abolishing the institution, do, nevertheless, insist upon the right of all the States, under the Constitution, to regulate their own domestic affairs in their own way, without congressional interference.

Resolved, That the Democratic party of this State remember with pride and gratitude the gallant services of her volunteer soldiers and sailors in the late

war, and will faithfully redeem all the pledges made in their behalf.

Resolved, That the representatives of the Democracy this day assembled pledge to the nominees of this convention their undivided support, believing that their election will redound to the welfare of the State and the prosperity of the country.

The State election occurred on the same day with the presidential election in November, and resulted in the choice of the Democratic candidate, Theodore F. Randolph, for Governor, by a majority of 4,618. The whole vote was 163,284, Randolph having 83,951, and Blair 79,333. The whole vote cast for presidential electors was 163,122, of which 80,121 were in favor of the election of Grant, and 83,001 for Seymour, giving the latter candidate a majority of 2,880 votes. Five members of Congress were chosen, three of whom were Democrats and two Republicans. The new Legislature contains thirty-two Democratic members in the House and twelve in the Senate, and twenty-eight Republicans in the House and nine in the Senate. A Senator in Congress is to be chosen by this body in 1869, in place of Mr. Frelinghuysen.

The State received \$269,613.46 during the year from the various railroads, in the form of transit duties levied upon railway corporations. The question of putting an end to this form of taxation has been brought to the attention of the Legislature by a memorial of the "United Delaware and Raritan Canal Company, Camden and Amboy Railroad and Transportation Company, and New Jersey Railroad and Transportation Company;" and Governor Randolph, in a message to the Legislature of 1869, recommends the enactment of a law, "upon the acceptance of which by the companies now paying transit duties (if such acceptance be requisite), all payments by them of such duties, whether upon passengers or freights, shall cease."

The receipts and disbursements of the State Treasury during the fiscal year ending November 30, 1868, were as follows:

	Disbursements.	Receipts.
State Fund.....	\$572,853 06	\$514,722 03
War Fund.....	932,912 65	978,493 85
School Fund.....	112,820 00	135,218 09
Agricultural College Fund	6,924 00	6,924 00
State Library Fund.....	1,004 15	1,050 00
Bank Note Redemption Fund.....	11,117 14	1,200 00
Balance in Bank December 1, 1867.....	24,157 23
Total.....	1,637,631 00	1,661,765 20

Leaving a balance of \$24,134.20 in bank, belonging to the following funds, viz.:

War Fund.....	\$5,012 97
School Fund.....	10,388 62
Agricultural College Fund.....	545 95
State Library Fund.....	346 12
Bank Note Redemption Fund.....	7,845 54

Total..... \$24,134 20

The indebtedness of the State on civil ac-

count, at the end of the same period, was \$93,270.71. The war debt still outstanding amounts to \$3,196,100. The apportionment of the appropriation for the support of public schools during the year is exhibited in the following schedule:

Amount of School Fund.....	\$35,000 00
Amount from State Revenue.....	65,000 00
Whole number of children in the State between the ages of 5 and 18, according to the census of 1867.....	230,518

COUNTIES.	Children.	Appropriation.
Atlantic.....	4,683	\$2,031 54
Bergen.....	7,404	3,211 90
Burlington.....	15,699	6,810 32
Camden.....	11,965	5,190 48
Cape May.....	2,323	1,007 73
Cumberland.....	9,108	3,951 10
Essex.....	30,270	13,181 30
Gloucester.....	6,436	2,791 97
Hudson.....	26,104	11,324 06
Hunterdon.....	10,849	5,706 36
Mercer.....	12,043	5,224 32
Middlesex.....	11,626	5,043 42
Monmouth.....	14,519	6,298 42
Morris.....	12,019	5,213 91
Ocean.....	4,364	1,893 13
Passaic.....	10,743	4,660 37
Salem.....	6,991	3,032 74
Somerset.....	6,787	2,922 55
Sussex.....	7,764	3,368 07
Union.....	8,985	3,897 74
Warren.....	9,886	4,288 60
Total.....	230,518	\$100,000 00

This is paid over to the county superintendents in three equal instalments, on the 15th of May, August, and November.

Just before the close of the last Legislature, a bill was introduced to incorporate a company to act with another, under a charter from the State of Pennsylvania, for the purpose of constructing a bridge across the Delaware River, between the cities of Camden and Philadelphia. The subject has occupied considerable attention since that time, and committees from the two cities chiefly interested have investigated the subject and published reports favorable to the feasibility of the proposed work. The river at this point is upward of 3,000 feet wide.

A decision was given in the Supreme Court of New Jersey, in which the rights of the Episcopal clergy were defined on the following points: 1. A minister of the Protestant Episcopal Church has either the possession of the church, or a right in the nature of an easement to enter therein, on all occasions set apart in the parish for divine services, and a substantial interference with such right will lay the ground for an action at law. 2. The English ecclesiastical law forms the basis of the law regulating the affairs of this denomination of Christians. 3. In order to vest the pastor with the ordinary rights in the temporalities pertaining to his office, it is not necessary for the congregation to be incorporated, nor that the title to the church school should be lodged in such congregation.

A subject occupying a large share of the attention of the present Legislature (1869) is that of reform in the government and discipline of the State Prisons. The last Legislature authorized a commission to visit various penal and reformatory institutions throughout the country, for the purpose of gathering such information as might form the basis of a more efficient system of government for the New Jersey State Prison. This commission has submitted a report at the present session, and several bills have been introduced providing for various improvements in this important matter.

NEW YORK. The Constitutional Convention of New York, which met on the 4th of June, 1867, and reassembled after an adjournment of two months, on the 12th of November, continued its sessions for several weeks in the year 1868. The work during that time was chiefly in the hands of the Committee on Revision, and some important changes were made. The suffrage clause, as finally adopted, removes the property qualification required of negroes, by the old constitution, and admits them to the exercise of the rights of citizenship on a footing of equality with the whites. A registration of all qualified electors is required to be completed four days before the election, and no one is allowed to register who has not lived thirty days in the town or ward and ten days in the election district where he proposes to vote. The provisions relating to the administration of the State canals abolish the Canal Board and the offices of State Engineer, Canal Commissioner, and Canal Appraiser, and give to the Governor authority to appoint a Superintendent of Canals, with four assistants, to hold office five years. The Court of Claims is to be composed of five judges, appointed by the Governor. The judicial article, as modified, leaves the election of judges to the people, but provides that the terms of the appointment by executive action shall be submitted to the vote of the people in 1873. The judicial term of office is to be fourteen years. There are to be four Justices of the Supreme Court instead of three, and the clerk of the Court of Appeals is to be chosen by the judges. An unpaid clerk of five persons holding office for ten years, and a clerk who is to have a salary, are to be in charge of the prisons of the State, with the right of inspection into jails and other penal and reformatory institutions as future legislatures shall define. The subject of the right of the Legislature to exercise authority over the government of cities was discussed, and various efforts were made to introduce a provision prohibiting and restricting such interference, but the matter was finally left as found. When the work of revising the constitution was finished, a law was introduced by the Legislature, which was then in session, providing for its submission to a vote of the people. This passed the Assembly, but was defeated in the Senate.

The Legislature of 1868 met on the first Tuesday in January, and continued in session 121 days, and finally adjourned on the 6th of May. A majority of the members of the Assembly were Democrats, while in the Senate the Republicans had a majority. The question of controlling certain departments of the administration of cities by commissions appointed at Albany was introduced by the following resolution, offered by Mr. Kiernan, of New York:

Whereas, The city of New York has, through the operation of special commissions created and appointed at Albany, been deprived of many of its corporate rights and privileges and made subservient to a government foreign to the provisions of its charter and not identified with its interests;

Resolved, That the Committee on the Affairs of Cities be requested to report, at as early a date as possible, what constitutional means may be adopted by the State Legislature to restore to the metropolis its ancient power and independence.

Nothing, however, was accomplished in this matter.

The following resolution received a unanimous vote in the Senate:

That our Government, recognizing no distinction between native-born and adopted citizens, should demand of other nations the immediate and unconditional release of all citizens of the United States illegally held in military service, or in custody for pretended political offences, not committed on their soil; and that it is the duty of the Government to enforce that demand, if necessary, with all the power of the nation.

On the last day of the session the Committee on the Condition of the Country reported the following, which were adopted in the Assembly:

Resolved, That the aggressions of Congress upon the rights of the States and the functions of coordinate branches of the Government indicate a settled purpose to set aside the Constitution and to destroy the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That the independence of the judiciary is essential to the integrity of the Constitution and the rights of citizens, and that we protest against any act of Congress infringing on it.

Resolved, That the evidence elicited on the trial of President Johnson before the court of impeachment has established the innocence of that high functionary, and that his conviction would be regarded by the people as the false judgment of a partisan court, and as a crime against the form and being of a republican government.

The general legislation of the session related in a large measure to railroads, canals, and other matters connected with the commercial interests of the people. An attempt was made to abolish the offices of Auditor and Bank Superintendent, but these propositions failed in the Senate after having passed the Lower House. The Assembly also passed a bill repealing the Metropolitan Excise Law, but the Senate refused to sanction the proceeding, and three other bills intended to modify that statute were voted down in the same body. The modifications proposed were: 1. To give magistrates the power to remit the ten days' penalty for intoxication; 2. To exclude the rural towns of Queens County from the operation of

the law; and, 3. To give the Mayors of New York and Brooklyn authority to grant licenses.

The attention of the Legislature was directed to the railroads by the claims which several of them put in for pecuniary aid from the State, in the completion of their respective lines. There were at one time, before one or the other branch of the Legislature, bills for the following railroads:

Whitehall & Plattsburg Railroad, granting	\$250,000
Albany & Susquehanna	" 250,000
Buffalo & Washington	" 250,000
Dunkirk & Warren	" 200,000
Lake Ontario Shore	" 300,000
Southern Central	" 150,000
New York Northern	" 600,000
Rondout & Oswego	" 250,000
Utica & Black River, say for forty miles,	200,000
Midland, \$5,000, say thirty-five miles,	175,000
Buffalo, Corry, & Pittsburg road	200,000

The grounds on which their claims for help from the public treasury were based, were the value of the railroads of the State in developing the resources and promoting the material prosperity of the sections of country through which they passed. This generous legislation, however, received a check by the veto of the first of these bills which came before the Governor for his signature. This was the Whitehall and Plattsburg Railroad Aid Bill, which was returned to the Senate with the Governor's objections, on the 6th of April. The company engaged in constructing this road was organized in the early part of the year 1866, for the purpose of completing direct communications between New York City and Montreal, and of opening a way through one of the richest mineral districts in the State. Application for State aid was made at once, and a bill appropriating \$450,000 to aid in the construction of ninety miles of the road at \$5,000 a mile, passed both branches of the Legislature, but was vetoed by the Governor. In 1867 an appropriation of \$250,000 was made with the sanction of the Executive, and in 1868 another application came for a quarter of a million dollars to aid in carrying on the work already begun. The Governor's reason for vetoing the bill which proposed to grant the aid desired was, the necessity for retrenchment and economy. He said:

It must have come to the attention of all, that during the past year the people have been more restive under the burdens of taxation than at any previous period since the close of the war. Business has been unsettled, trade has been depressed, industry partially paralyzed, and values have become more irregular and less reliable. Profits have diminished, and until the great financial questions are firmly decided, and a permanent policy established, the horoscope of the future cannot be surely and confidently cast. This condition, which the repeated lessons of history and our past experience as a people might have taught us to expect would mark the period immediately following a great war, duty and prudence alike demand shall not be disregarded. The State can no more be prosperous without economy in the conduct of its affairs than individuals. A continued large debt is dangerous to our social and republican institutions. Our first care, therefore, should be to ascertain how the

volume of debt can be diminished, and guard against its extension; how the measure of taxation can be reduced, and retrenchment made more rigid and systematic.

In view of these considerations, he thought the great public works of the State should wait until better times. A strenuous effort was made in the Senate to pass the bill notwithstanding the objections of the Governor, but without success, and the other claims for State aid in behalf of railroads were allowed to rest.

A committee was appointed in the Senate to investigate certain charges of mismanagement brought against the Erie Railroad. The principal ground of complaint was a resolution adopted by the directors on the 19th of February, for the issue of bonds to the amount of ten million dollars, convertible into stock of the company, and the conversion of the bonds into stock for purposes of private speculation. Two reports on this matter were submitted. The majority of the committee arrived at the conclusion that the issue of bonds had been obtained by Mr. Daniel Drew, to be used for his personal gain, "utterly regardless of the interests" of other stockholders in the company, and that Mr. Eldridge, the president, and Messrs. Fisk and Gould, directors, were concerned and probably interested with Mr. Drew in these "corrupt proceedings." The report closed with the following resolution:

Resolved, That the fraudulent abuses developed by the investigation of the management of the present directors and officers of the New York & Erie Railroad Company demand that increased penalties for such offences shall be imposed for the protection of stockholders and the community, and the special committee conducting such investigation be, and they are hereby, instructed to report a bill making it a felonious offence for any director or officer to fraudulently issue stock of the company in which he holds such trust, or to convert to his own purposes the proceeds of any stock or bonds; or to fraudulently take or carry away to another State, or with like intent keep and retain them to evade legal process in this State, the moneys or effects of such company.

A minority report was submitted, which commended the general management of the Erie Railroad, and declared that there was uncontradicted evidence that the right of the Board of Directors to pass the resolution of February 19th was not doubted or questioned either in the Executive Board, or Board of Directors, and was therefore not a wilful violation of the law. It then recommended that an act be passed legalizing the \$10,000,000 of stock as well as various other acts of the directors which had been complained of as illegal. The action recommended by a minority of the committee was favored in the Senate.

In the Assembly, on occasion of the adoption of a committee report adverse to a bill which had been framed in the interest of the Erie Railroad, the following communication was submitted to the House:

ASSEMBLY CHAMBER, April 1, 1868.

To the Hon. Speaker of the Assembly:

I, E. M. K. Glenn, a member of this House, from my seat in this House, do charge as follows:

1. I charge that the report on the Erie Railroad Bill was bought.

2. I charge that a portion of the vote on this floor, in adopting the said report, was bought.

3. I charge that members of this House were engaged in buying their fellow-members.

4. I charge that a portion of the vote on the Harlem Milk Bill was bought.

5. I charge that some of the committees of this House charge for reports.

6. I charge corruption, deep, dark, and damning, on a portion of this House.

I ask the adoption of the following:

Resolved, That the Speaker appoint a committee of five to investigate the foregoing charges, that three of the committee be taken from that portion of the House that voted no on the Erie Railroad report, and two be taken from that part that voted aye, and that the committee have power to employ counsel and send for persons and papers; the committee to sit in this chamber during the recess of the Legislature. The committee may employ a clerk.

Mr. Glenn's motives in making these charges having been called in question, he declared that he made them in behalf of no company or corporation. He had been offered five hundred dollars for his vote, and knew a man who had been offered twelve hundred dollars. He claimed in the name of justice that this matter be "probed to the bottom." A committee was appointed to investigate these grave charges, but Mr. Glenn declined to serve on that committee on account of the feeble state of his health, but asked that he might be represented by counsel in supporting the accusations which he had made. This privilege was not allowed, but a committee was appointed to carry out the investigation. Mr. Glenn being summoned before that committee, was unwilling to give his testimony, because it would implicate one of the men before whom he was required to testify; and on the following day he accused that member of the committee by name before the Assembly of offering him five hundred dollars for his vote, and asked that he be relieved from taking part in the investigation. The committee decided that there was no ground for the charges either against the gentleman named or any other member of the House, and Mr. Glenn thereupon sent in his resignation in a letter of some length, in which he reiterated the charges already made. It was decided not to receive this document, as the House had nothing to do with the resignation of members, if they saw fit to vacate their places. In the discussion on this subject, the general opinion of members appeared to be that the member who was so indignant at the offer of five hundred dollars for his vote must be insane.

The canal system of New York contributes in no small degree to the commercial prosperity of the State. The total length of these public works, with their feeders, is 894 miles; the total length of navigable rivers and lakes, connected by canals, is 381 miles, thus giving the State about 1,275 miles of navigation. The number of bridges on these canals is 1,318, and the number of locks is 166. The value of the work done during the fiscal year 1868 was

\$688,505.77. The management of the canals has been for several years the subject of some animadversions from all classes of the citizens. The most violent complaints have been made of the inefficiency and corruption of the Contracting Board, whose province it has been to keep the canals in a proper state of repair. It was said that contracts were frequently concluded at excessive rates, while moderate offers were made and rejected, and that a constant course of corrupt dealing prevailed between the Contracting Board and parties to whom they gave the "job" of prosecuting repairs. The result was an enormous outlay, while the canals were every day becoming dilapidated and filled with obstructions. The Legislature of 1867 appointed a select committee to examine into the management of the State canals, and continued its existence through the recess. A large amount of testimony was taken, and a report made to the Constitutional Convention, in pursuance of a resolution of that body calling for information on the subject of these investigations. These reports were published, and public attention still more intently drawn to the subject. The feeling became quite prevalent that the Contracting Board wholly failed to accomplish the object for which it was constituted, and should be abolished. A Canal Convention assembled at Albany on the 25th of February, and discussed the importance to the State of her system of canals and the interest of the community in their proper management. The following is the first of a series of nine resolutions adopted by the convention, suggesting radical changes in the administration of these valuable public works:

1. *Resolved*, That we regard the present contract system of keeping the canals of the State in repair as entirely subversive of the interests of the State and of those engaged in canal commerce, and subservient alone to the advantage and profit of the contractors, as detrimental to the welfare of commerce, and ruinous alike to the canals and their interests, and to those who have invested their enterprise and capital in the transportation of property through these channels of communication; and we therefore call upon the Legislature of the State to repeal the laws under which the State canals are kept in repair by contract, and to enact others which shall provide for their repair by superintendents, or some other responsible agents, so that they may be kept in navigable condition during the season of navigation, and rendered available to the demands and interests of commerce.

The action recommended by the convention, was—1. A repeal of the act of 1857, relating to the Contracting Board; 2. The passage of a bill then pending in the Senate, providing for a new system of management; 3. The abrogation of existing contracts for repairs; and, 4. The institution of legal proceedings against any person who had fraudulently obtained money on canal contracts with the State. There were also several other recommendations relating to the details of what the convention regarded as a proper system of management. The State canals also formed the

leading topic of conversation at the meetings of several Boards of Trade.

The subject came before the Legislature in two forms: 1. In the shape of a bill to abolish the Contracting Board, and make some other changes in the mode of administration; and, 2. In the impeachment of Robert C. Dorn, Canal Commissioner, for high crimes and misdemeanors. Soon after the opening of the session, numerous petitions were received in both branches of the Legislature, praying for reform in the management of the canals. Bills were introduced, both in the Senate and the Assembly, to meet this demand of the people, but different plans were proposed in the two Houses. The Assembly bill proposed to do away with the offices of Auditor of the Canal Board and of the Canal Commissioner, as well as to abolish the Contract Board, while the Senate favored less radical changes. Finally, a committee of conference was appointed, and unanimously agreed on a measure, abolishing the Contracting Board, and retaining the office of Auditor. Commissioners of repairs were to be appointed by the Canal Board, whose bills were to be audited and paid by three paymasters appointed by the Commissioners of the Canal Fund. This bill was adopted in the Assembly without a dissenting vote, but for some unexplained reason the Republican Senators met in caucus and determined that it should not become a law. The bill was accordingly defeated in the Senate, and the subject was left by the Legislature in the same position in which they had found it. When the Republican State Convention met at Syracuse, a communication was received from a committee appointed by the Canal Convention "to take charge and watch over the interests of the State canals, and to protect and preserve their revenues and the commerce of this State by all laudable agencies," urging upon the attention of the delegates the importance of a "wise, economical, and honest management of our commercial lines of water intercommunication." The closing paragraphs of the document were in these words:

It is patent to us, and from the experience of the recent past cool reflection will also convince you, that the first duty in selecting our executive and legislative agents is to provide beyond a future contingency:

1. For the early improvement of the canals—that they shall be put and kept in perfect repair and condition, so as to give an unobstructed channel-way for boats drawing six feet of water upon the leading canals of the State.

2. That the canal revenues shall be protected and preserved from fraud and corruption which prey upon the treasury without bringing compensating benefits to commerce or the State.

Without a radical change in the management of the canals, there cannot be such a reform in their condition as will insure to commerce such facilities as are needful, and without which it will be impossible to preserve to the State its commercial supremacy.

These positions were enforced in the State Canal Convention by arguments equally impressive and unanswerable, and with an earnestness which indicated the settled purpose of the delegates and of those they

represent to render every other subject subordinate to the attainment of these vital ends.

The last Legislature failed us in accomplishing these ends. They can be reached successfully by wise selections of candidates from among the able men of the State who are known to be true and uncompromising friends of the canals and their commerce. And we again appeal to you that in your action in your party capacity you may be governed by these important considerations.

The convention, accordingly, introduced the following resolution into its platform of principles:

Resolved, That the commercial prominence of our State is largely due to its canals; that they should be managed with rigid economy and probity; that all abuses should be reformed; and that the best interests of the Commonwealth demand their judicious enlargement and improvement, so that their full capacity will be utilized, and that it is the duty of the General Government to interest itself in this great work.

The Democratic Convention expressed their view of the subject in the following:

Resolved, That in the State, as in the national Government, they demand economy in expenditure, strict adherence to the letter and spirit of the constitution, and the protection of the rights of the people against the encroachments of monopolies created by special legislation. That the canals of the State, which have contributed largely to the wealth and the commercial supremacy of New York, should remain the property of its citizens; that they should be kept in perfect repair and so improved as to meet the demands of a constantly-increasing commerce; that the tolls should be reduced so as to command the carrying-trade; and that the system of management provided for in a bill passed by the last Democratic Assembly and rejected by the Radical Senate should be adopted, so that corruption and speculation shall cease and the canal revenues be honestly applied to the maintenance of the canals and the payment of the debts incurred in their construction.

During the political canvass, however, the greater prominence of other issues caused that of the management of the canals to be in a great measure overlooked; but the public attention has been again directed to the subject, and it is confidently expected that the Legislature of 1869 will bring about a reform in this important branch of the State administration.

The impeachment of Commissioner Dorn was the result of the investigations of a select committee appointed by the last Legislature to examine into the propriety of bringing in articles of impeachment against any State officer. A report of considerable length was submitted, which closed with the following resolution:

Resolved, That Robert C. Dorn, Canal Commissioner, be and he is hereby impeached for high crimes and misdemeanors.

This was adopted, and managers of the impeachment were appointed by the Assembly. Eight articles of impeachment were framed, charging Mr. Dorn with corruption and fraud in several contracts which had been made for repairing the canals, and with appropriating public money to his own use and that of his favorites. The Senators and judges of the Court of Appeals sat as a High Court of Impeachment on the fourth Tuesday of May, and listened to

the evidence and arguments in the case. The trial continued about two weeks, but attracted very little attention, and the commissioner was acquitted, the largest vote against him on any article being eight to twenty.

Among the various conventions of the year, was one called for the purpose of "protesting against the action of the British Government with reference to the imprisonment of adopted citizens," which met in Albany on the 5th of February. A letter was received from Horatio Seymour, expressing his sympathy with the objects of the meeting, and a series of resolutions was adopted, among which were the following:

Resolved, That the American people have regarded with deep solicitude the course of the British Government toward naturalized American citizens—its arbitrary seizure and retention of them without trial, and the assumption of the British courts to disregard their plea of citizenship founded upon naturalization and to assert the doctrine of perpetual allegiance! That we protest against such assumptions as at war with the vital principles of free government, and we call upon the Administration at Washington to resist and repel them.

Resolved, That we demand of foreign governments no rights that we do not acknowledge on the part of our own. That, commensurate with the right of naturalization, we recognize the obligation of citizenship—the duty of the Government to restrain its citizens from unlawful acts and the right to protect them in their lawful pursuits.

Resolved, That the claim of military service asserted by some of the Continental nations of Europe, against naturalized citizens, their former subjects, is so unjust in itself, and so incompatible with the assumed duties of such citizens to the Government of their choice, that it becomes the duty of the Federal Government to demand the relinquishment of any such pretensions, and to enforce the position by all the authority of the Republic.

Resolved, That the doctrine of the perpetual and inalienable allegiance of a subject is incompatible with the growth of modern society, and the freedom of populations—and that the whole history of the people of these United States is a protest against it.

The Republicans held a convention at Syracuse, on the 5th of February, to appoint delegates to the National Convention at Chicago. A proposition was made in this convention to reorganize the Republican party in the city of New York, under the joint supervision and direction of Freeman J. Fithian and Thomas Murphy, the object being to exclude from the deliberations of the convention the radical delegation from that city. These delegates were, however, admitted by a vote of 256 to 54. Resolutions were adopted, reaffirming the devotion of the party to the principles of justice, legality, and nationality, declaring its approval of the reconstruction measures of Congress, and its "unalterable purpose to maintain untarnished and inviolate the public faith and national credit," and pronouncing in favor of U. S. Grant and R. E. Fenton, for President and Vice-President of the United States.

On the evening of the 3d of July a mass meeting of working-men was held at the Cooper Institute, in the City of New York, under the auspices of the National Labor

Union, which adopted the following resolutions among others:

Resolved, That the national honor must be preserved by paying its debts in good faith, and that every debt of the Government, not otherwise specifically contracted, shall be paid in the lawful currency of the United States; that the bonds, when redeemable, should be paid in legal-tender notes or exchanged for other bonds, at three per cent., convertible into lawful money, at the pleasure of the holders.

Resolved, That the public interest demands the withdrawal of the circulation of the national banks, and the substitution of legal-tender Treasury certificates in their stead.

Resolved, That no more of the public domain shall be granted to any corporation under any pretext whatever, and all the lands not disposed of should be withdrawn from the market and granted only in small quantities to actual settlers.

The Convention of Republicans, for the nomination of State officers and Presidential electors, met at Syracuse, on the 8th of July. John A. Griswold, of Troy, was nominated for Governor; Alonzo B. Cornell, of Ithaca, for Lieutenant-Governor; Alexander Barclay, for Canal Commissioner; Henry A. Bañnum, Inspector of Prisons; Campbell A. Young, Clerk of Court of Appeals. The following is the platform of the party as adopted at this convention:

Resolved, That we tender to Congress our warmest thanks for the intrepidity, sagacity, and foresight with which it has accomplished the great work of reconstruction; betrayed by a recreant President, assailed by the remnants of the rebel armies in the Southern States, and their natural allies in the Northern States, it has persistently and firmly completed its work, step by step, until nearly every State in rebellion once again sits in the council of the nation. The Congress which reconstructed the Union will live in history with the Congress that decreed the downfall of slavery, and be forever entitled to the esteem of the American people.

Resolved, That, in welcoming back to the Union our brothers of the South, we commend and sympathize with the spirit of magnanimity which has been exhibited to those who, whatever may have been their errors, show a loyal sympathy with the principles of impartial suffrage, and that we trust the spirit will be continued so long as it is invited by corresponding acts of loyalty, until every restriction and disqualification is removed from those who have been rebels, as well as those who have been in bondage.

Resolved, That the Republican party can never fail to give, to the brave men who defended the Union in the army and navy, the assurance of profound and grateful esteem. To have been a soldier of the Union is as proud an honor as to have been a soldier of the Revolution. The country owes to its soldiers and sailors its liberty, its glory, its very life; and we pledge ourselves to sustain every just demand they may make upon the people, prompt payment of their bounties, generous laws, and the assignment of the best lands under the homestead law, which are the best compensations that can be made for their devoted and self-sacrificing patriotism.

Resolved, That we demand from the General Government a pure and economical administration of the public affairs; the lessening of taxation; the prompt collection of the revenue; the reduction of the army and navy; a less prodigal management of the public land; and, as rapidly as consistent with the burdens now resting upon it, a return to specie payments; that we especially desire such a development of commercial, manufacturing, agricultural, and mining interests, as will enable us to increase our public wealth, and thus more easily pay our national debt.

Resolved, That the honor of the American people, as dear to us now as when we welcomed death and sorrow in defence of the Union, demands the payment of our National obligations according to their letter and spirit; and that we regard any attempt at repudiating these contracts, or evading their payment, as dishonoring us in the eyes of mankind, and a crime against the national honor, only surpassed by the crime of treason itself.

Resolved, That we welcome to our country the people of other lands, that we believe in generous laws of naturalization and immigration, and that no matter what country claims the birth-place of an American citizen, the flag should cover him with the majesty of our national power, and protect him in peaceable pursuits in any quarter of the world.

Resolved, That regarding the triumph of the Democratic party as the greatest calamity that could befall the American people, we proudly accept, as our candidates, Ulysses S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax. We accept them as the representatives of all that has been glorious and heroic in our war, and of the wisdom and the courage of Republican statesmanship. Their election will be an assurance that freedom will be maintained, justice enforced, and the national honor protected.

The Democratic Convention met at Albany on the 2d of September. By far the larger part of the delegates favored the nomination of John T. Hoffman for Governor, at that time Mayor of the City of New York, but a disposition having been shown by some of the party to bring forward the name of Henry C. Murphy as a rival candidate, that gentleman wrote a letter to the convention requesting that such a course might be avoided. Mr. Hoffman was nominated by acclamation, and Allen C. Beach was put on the ticket for Lieutenant-Governor. Oliver Bascom was the nominee for Canal Commissioner; David B. McNeil, for Inspector of Prisons; E. O. Perrin, Clerk of Court of Appeals. The platform ratifies the nominations and reaffirms the principles of the National Democratic Convention, and calls the special attention of citizens to the following propositions:

1. Immediate restoration of all the States to their rights in the Union under the Constitution, of which some of them are deprived by the unconstitutional and revolutionary measures of a Congress which is perpetuating disunion, and, by its usurpations of power, threatens the establishment of a centralized government in place of a Federal Union of equal States.

2. Amnesty for all past political offences, and the regulation of the elective franchise in all the States by their citizens, without any interference whatever by the Federal Government.

3. Payment of the public obligations in strict accordance with their terms—in gold, only when gold is nominated in the bond, and in the lawful currency of the country when coin is not specified.

4. Equal taxation of every species of property, including Government bonds and other public securities; the simplification of the system and the discontinuance of inquisitorial modes of assessing and collecting internal revenue.

5. One currency for the Government and the people, the laborer and the office-holder, the pensioner and the soldier, the producer and the bondholder.

6. Reform of abuses in administration; reduction of the standing army and navy; abolition of the Freedmen's Bureau, and all political instrumentalities designed to secure negro supremacy; restoration of

rightful authority to and the independence of the Executive and Judiciary, and the subordination of the military to the civil power.

7. Equal rights and protection for naturalized and native-born citizens at home and abroad, and the assertion of American nationality which shall command the respect of foreign powers and furnish an example and encouragement to people struggling for national integrity and constitutional liberty.

8. That the thanks of a grateful people are ever due to the soldiers and sailors who perilled their lives in defence of the Republic, and that their claims upon the Government and the people shall be held sacred and inviolable.

9. That the nation is under deep and lasting obligation to President Andrew Johnson, who, deserted by a party which proved faithless to the principles and pledges upon which it came into power, has respected his oath to maintain and defend the Constitution, and who will be honored in history as one of the most determined defenders of American liberty; and that Chief-Justice Chase, who, in the trial instituted to depose the Executive as an obstacle to partisan and revolutionary purposes, proved faithful to his high trusts, and restored the Judiciary to its ancient renown, is entitled to the gratitude not only of the Democracy of this State and nation, but of all friends of civil government.

In relation to State affairs the following was adopted:

Resolved, That all registration and excise laws should be uniform in their operation throughout the State; and that the execution of excise laws and the collection of fees under them should be made through the local authorities in the several counties.

The election took place on the first Tuesday of November, and resulted in favor of the Democratic candidates both for State officers and Presidential electors. The whole vote for Governor was 850,656, of which Hoffman received 439,301 and Griswold 411,355, giving the former a majority of 27,946. The entire vote cast for Presidential electors was 849,766, of which 429,883 were for electors pledged to vote for Seymour, and 419,883 were in favor of the election of Grant. Seymour's majority in the State was just 10,000. Thirty-one members of Congress were chosen, of whom thirteen are Democrats, and eighteen Republicans. The Legislature of 1869 has 17 Republicans, and 15 Democrats in the Senate, and 76 Republicans and 52 Democrats in the Assembly. In the City of New York there were 173,683 voters registered, 165,894 votes were cast for Governor, of which 112,522, or a majority of 69,150 were given for Mr. Hoffman. The full vote for Mayor in December was 95,944, of which A. Oakey Hall received 75,109, or a majority of 54,274 over Fred. A. Conkling, the Republican candidate.

The Court of Appeals pronounced a decision against the legality of political test oaths at the November term. The case arose under the act of 1867, providing for a convention to revise and amend the Constitution of the State, which excluded from the privilege of voting all persons who refused to take a prescribed oath. Judge Miller held the opinion that this was inconsistent with the clause of the Federal Constitution which declares that "no State shall pass any bill of attainder. *ex post*

facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts." His language on this point is:

This act declares that no person shall vote at the election for delegates to said convention who will not, if duly challenged, take and subscribe an oath that he has not done certain acts mentioned therein, and inflicts the penalty of political disfranchisement, without any preliminary examination or trial, for a refusal to take said oath. Thus the citizen is deprived, upon declining, of a right guaranteed by the Constitution and the laws, and one of the most inestimable privileges of a free government. There can be no doubt, I think, that to deprive a citizen of the privilege of exercising the elective franchise for any conduct which he has previously been guilty of, is to inflict a punishment for the act done. It imposes upon him a severe penalty, one which by the laws of the State is a part of the punishment inflicted after conviction for felony. It arbitrarily and summarily, and without any of the forms of law, punishes for an offence created by the law itself.

When the act in question was passed by the Legislature, there was no law in this State which condemned or characterized the conduct which is punished in this act, by depriving the citizen of the right of suffrage. This law created a new crime, and makes an offence which did not previously exist. It punishes for an act which was not a crime when committed. Besides, the statute in question, in violation of the rules of the common law, pronounces judgment of condemnation without evidence, without any opportunity to defend against the charge, and without any trial. It makes the party the accuser of himself, and his refusal to acquit himself, his own condemnation. It punishes for an offence, before an accusation is made and a trial had judicially, according to the constitution and the laws of the land. It compels him, in a direct violation of the Constitution of the United States, to be a witness against himself. His refusal to testify that he is innocent operates to produce his conviction, and seals his guilt. The object of the fifth amendment was to prevent the party from being called upon as a witness of his own guilt. To compel him to testify would violate this provision; and indirectly to make his refusal to testify a cause for punishment effects the same purpose. It is only an evasion of the provision cited.

The act prescribing this oath is also declared to be contrary to the provisions of the constitution of the State. The Judge says:

I am also of the opinion that the statute in question violates the constitution of the State of New York.

The first section of the second article of the constitution prescribes the qualifications of electors, who shall be entitled to vote "for all officers that now or hereafter may be elected by the people."

The second section of the nineteenth article provides for the submission of the question, whether a convention shall be called, "to the electors qualified to vote for members of the Legislature, and in case a majority of the electors so qualified voting at such election shall decide in favor of such convention for such a purpose, the Legislature shall provide for the election of delegates to such convention." This clause does not confer upon the Legislature any power to create disabilities not existing at the time under the Constitution, or to restrict the right of suffrage which the Constitution has established. It would be extraordinary if the Legislature had the right to determine who were entitled to the privilege of voting, and thus, in the exercise of an unlimited discretion, be able to disfranchise any class of citizens, when the right is already clearly established.

The statute also violates section one of article one of the constitution of this State, which declares that "no member of this State shall be disfranchised or deprived of any of the rights or privileges secured to

any citizens thereof, unless by the law of the land or the judgment of his peers." "The law of the land" does not mean a statute passed for the purpose of working the wrong, but the law which existed at the time when the alleged offence was perpetrated. The provision was intended to restrict the power of the Legislature (Wynehammer *agt.* The People, 13 N. Y., 393, 394, and 416, and cases cited). The section in question pronounces a judgment and disfranchises the elector without judge or jury, or any of the forms required by the ordinary course of legal proceedings.

It also violates section six of article one, which declares that no person shall be held to answer for a crime, except on presentment of a grand jury; and the second section of the same article, which secures the right of trial by jury in all cases in which it has heretofore been held inviolate.

At the beginning of the fiscal year, October 1, 1867, there was a deficiency in the revenues of the State of \$2,860,586.38. The payments made during the year amounted to \$10,208,198.46, thus giving \$13,068,784.84 to be provided for by taxation, while the receipts from that source were \$10,112,331.30, leaving a deficiency of \$2,956,453.54. This was afterward made up by the payment of \$4,000,000 due from the city of New York. The receipts of the year on account of all the funds of the State, with the exception of the canal and free-school funds, amounted to \$16,003,178.53, and the payments on the same account were upward of \$15,000,000, which left a balance of \$748,521.41. The State tax levied in 1868 was 5½ mills on each dollar of taxable property, and was distributed as follows: For schools, 1¼ mills; for general purposes, 1¼ mills; for canals, 1¼ mills; for bounty debt, 2½ mills; and for the Whitehall and Plattsburgh work, 1¼ mill; all of which yielded a total revenue of \$10,243,317.01.

The State debt, on the 30th of September, 1867, was \$48,367,682.22, classified as follows:

General Fund Debt.....	\$5,642,622 22
Contingent.....	130,000 00
Canal.....	15,733,060 00
Bounty.....	26,862,000 00
Total.....	\$48,367,682 22

On the 30th of September, 1868, the total funded debt was reduced to \$44,968,786.40, classified as follows:

General Fund.....	\$4,707,826 40
Contingent.....	63,000 00
Canal.....	14,249,960 00
Bounty.....	25,943,000 00
Total.....	\$44,968,786 40

The following statement shows the amount of the State debt on the 30th of September, 1868, after deducting the unapplied balances of the sinking funds of that date:

	Debt on the 30th September, 1868.	Balance of the Sinking Funds, Sept. 30, 1868.	Balance of Debt after applying Sinking Funds.
General Fund.....	\$4,707,826 40	*\$153,178 54	\$4,554,647 85
Contingent.....	63,000 00	15,517 82	52,482 18
Canal.....	14,249,960 00	4,017,382 43	10,232,577 57
Bounty.....	25,943,000 00	†1,913,408 87	24,029,591 13
Total.....	\$44,968,786 40	\$6,104,337 66	\$38,864,448 74

* Includes \$350,000 due October 1, 1868, and since paid.

† Deducting interest accrued to October 1, 1868, payable January 1, 1869.

The following statement exhibits the financial condition of the canals:

Canal Fund.

Balance on hand October 7, 1867.....	\$3,840,935 66
Received during the year.....	5,681,226 11
Total.....	\$9,522,161 77
Paid during the year.....	4,833,239 33

Balance September 30, 1868.....	\$4,688,922 44
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Revenues and Expenditures.

Receipts from tolls.....	\$4,417,559 50
Receipts from rent of surplus water.....	750 00
Interest on current revenues.....	33,791 69
Miscellaneous receipts.....	26,444 98
Total.....	\$4,477,546 17
Payments to commissioners for repairs.....	\$241,647 18
To contractors for repairs.....	775,118 74
To superintendents for repairs.....	291 02
To collectors for salaries, etc.....	76,761 11
To weighmasters.....	13,347 70
Miscellaneous.....	77,079 29
Total.....	\$1,184,245 04

Surplus revenues, mostly applied to the sinking funds.....	\$3,293,301 13
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The produce of the State salt springs of Onondaga for the year was 8,793,514 bushels, yielding a revenue of \$88,049.47 obtained at an expense of \$49,238, which leaves the net profit to the State at \$38,811.47.

The earnings and expenses of the State Prisons are as follows:

Earnings.

Sing Sing.....	\$125,363 78
Auburn.....	123,334 89
Clinton.....	238,428 55
Total.....	\$499,127 55

Expenses.

Sing Sing.....	\$303,364 36
Auburn.....	208,839 53
Clinton.....	420,003 31
Total.....	\$932,212 20

The following figures relate to the Public Schools:

Receipts.

Amount reported on hand, Oct. 1, 1867.....	\$1,197,924 70
Apportioned to districts.....	2,315,166 80
Proceeds of Gospel and School Lands.....	22,843 46
Raised by Local Taxation.....	6,311,186 12
From all other sources.....	633,346 58
Total.....	\$10,480,467 66

Expenditures.

For teachers' wages.....	\$5,586,546 42
For libraries.....	26,926 43
For apparatus.....	234,382 34
For colored schools.....	64,765 55
For school-houses, sites, repairs, furniture, etc.....	2,166,566 23
For all other incidental expenses.....	930,640 61
Amount reported on hand, Oct. 1, 1868.....	1,470,640 01
Total.....	\$10,480,467 66

Statistical.

Number of children of school age.....	1,464,424
Number of children attending school some portion of the year.....	971,512
Number of teachers employed in common schools for 23 weeks or more.....	16,530
Number of male teachers.....	5,883
Number of female teachers.....	21,870
Number of school districts.....	11,731
Number of school-houses.....	11,673
Number of volumes in district libraries.....	1,064,229
Amount of public money to be appropriated during current fiscal year.....	\$2,520,000

NORTH CAROLINA. The convention, which was called to frame a new constitution.

for the State of North Carolina under the reconstruction acts of Congress, met at Raleigh on the 14th of February, and proceeded to the work appointed for it without delay. Some little sensitiveness was displayed at first in a resolution, adopted on the second day of its session, that "no reporter for any newspaper be allowed upon this floor, who treats the convention or any of its members with disrespect, but that they shall, in case of offence in this respect, be excluded from the floor of the hall, and from the galleries." The "disrespect" which called forth this rule consisted in designating the colored members by the word "negro," placed after their names in the reports of the proceedings. The only important discussions which arose during the sittings of the convention were connected with the subject of equal rights for whites and blacks. In the constitution, as framed and adopted, no distinction of races is in any way recognized, though attempts were made, by the members opposed to the enfranchisement of negroes, to introduce provisions looking to various discriminations to be made by future Legislatures. The principal debate on this topic occurred on the consideration of the article regulating the suffrage, and on that making provision for the organization and management of public schools. One member made an elaborate speech to show "the physical and mental inferiority of the African race, which rendered it unfit to live on a footing of social and political equality with the whites."

In the Bill of Rights are these declarations :

SECTION 4. That this State shall ever remain a member of the American Union, that the people thereof are part of the American nation; that there is no right on the part of this State to secede, and that all attempts, from whatever source, or upon whatever pretext, to dissolve said Union, or to sever said nation, ought to be resisted with the whole power of the State.

SEC. 5. That every citizen of this State owes paramount allegiance to the Constitution and Government of the United States, and that no law or ordinance of the State, in contravention or subversion thereof, can have any binding force.

SEC. 6. To maintain the honor and good faith of the State untarnished, the public debt, regularly contracted before and since the rebellion, shall be regarded as inviolable and never be questioned; but the State shall never assume or pay, or authorize the collection of, any debt or obligation, expressed or implied, incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave.

SEC. 33. Slavery and involuntary servitude, otherwise than for crime whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted, shall be, and are hereby, forever prohibited within this State.

The elections for members of the General Assembly are hereafter to be held on the first Thursday in August of alternate years, commencing in 1870, and that body is to meet on the third Monday in November. There are to be 50 Senators and 120 Representatives, each holding office for two years. The term of office of all the executive officers of the Government is four years.

The only oath, prescribed for every person on his induction into office, is the ordinary asseveration that he will support the Constitution and laws of the United States and of the State of North Carolina, and that he will perform, to the best of his ability, the duties which he assumes in accepting the official position.

The article on the judiciary abolishes the distinction between actions at law and suits in equity, and provides for the establishment of a supreme court, superior courts, courts of justices of the peace, and special courts. The Supreme Court consists of a chief-justice with four associates, and exercises in general matters only an appellate jurisdiction. The judges of both the Supreme and Superior Courts are to be elected by the suffrages of the qualified voters of the State, and hold their positions for a term of eight years.

The elective franchise is conferred upon every male person, twenty-one years of age and upward, native in the country or legally naturalized, who shall have resided in the State twelve months next preceding the election, and thirty days in the county in which he offers to vote. No exception to this rule is made whatever, but "no person shall be allowed to vote without registration, or to register without first taking an oath or affirmation to support and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States, and the constitution and laws of North Carolina, not inconsistent therewith."

The only persons disqualified from holding office are: "First, all persons who shall deny the being of Almighty God. Second, all persons who shall have been convicted of treason, perjury, or of any other infamous crime, since becoming citizens of the United States, or of corruption or malpractice in office, unless such persons shall have been legally restored to the rights of citizenship."

On the subject of the right of suffrage and of eligibility to office, two minority reports were submitted by different members of the committee which had those subjects under consideration. One of these was in favor of introducing restrictions which would exclude a large portion of the blacks who had "recently emerged from slavery, and were unfitted, by previous education and habits of thought and self-reliance, for the intelligent discharge of the duties and responsibilities which would devolve upon them;" and the other proposed such limitations as would deprive those, who took a prominent part in the cause of the South in the late civil war, from participating in the rights of citizenship. Neither of these reports had any influence in shaping the provisions of the organic law of the State, and no reference is to be found in that instrument either to a distinction of races or to the loyalty or disloyalty of any class of citizens.

On the subject of education, ample powers are given to the Legislature to establish and support an effective school system, and pro-

vision is made for the management and maintenance of the State University. It is provided that the public schools shall be open, free of charge, to all children of the State between the age of six and twenty-one, and the General Assembly is empowered to enact that "every child of sufficient mental and physical ability shall attend the Public Schools during the period between the ages of six and eighteen years, for a term of not less than sixteen months, unless educated by other means." The advantages of the University are extended, "as far as practicable, to the youth of the State free of expense for tuition."

A homestead and dwelling not exceeding one thousand dollars in value, and personal property to the amount of five hundred dollars, are exempted from sale under execution or other legal process for the collection of any debt. The separate property of women, acquired before or after marriage, is secured to them free from liability on account of the debts of their husbands.

All able-bodied male persons between the ages of twenty-one and forty years, who are citizens of the United States, are made liable to duty in the militia, unless averse to bearing arms from religious scruples; and it is made the duty of the Legislature to provide for the efficient employment of this force, to execute the law, suppress riots or insurrection, and to repel invasion.

The following section renders the amendment of the constitution quite difficult:

SECTION 2. No part of the constitution of this State shall be altered, unless a bill to alter the same shall have been read three times in each House of the General Assembly, and agreed to by three-fifths of the whole number of members of each House, respectively; nor shall any alteration take place, until the bill so agreed to shall have been published six months previous to a new election of members of the General Assembly. If, after such publication, the alteration proposed by the preceding General Assembly shall be agreed to, in the first session thereafter, by two-thirds of the whole representation in each House of the General Assembly, after the same shall have been read three times on three several days in each House, then the said General Assembly shall prescribe a mode by which the amendment or amendments may be submitted to the qualified voters of the House of Representatives throughout the State; and if, upon comparing the votes given in the whole State, it shall appear that a majority of the voters voting thereon have approved thereof, then, and not otherwise, the same shall become a part of the constitution.

The principal objections made to the work of the convention, either by its own members or in the public prints, were based on its freedom from any provisions making distinctions among citizens on account of race, color, or previous condition. The convention concluded its labors with an ordinance providing for the first election, at which the vote was to be taken on its ratification, and adjourned on the 17th of March.

The ordinance of the convention, providing for the holding of the election at which the

vote of the people was to be taken on the ratification of the constitution, appointed the 21st, 22d and 23d of April for that purpose, and further provided that at the same election Senators and Representatives to the General Assembly, and all the State and county officers, as well as Representatives to the Congress of the United States, should be chosen. A certified copy of this ordinance was forwarded to General Canby, commander of the military district, and on the 23d of March he issued an order for holding the election, containing complete instructions for revising the registration of qualified voters, and for receiving and returning the votes. Among the instructions contained in his order, were the following:

9th. The sheriff and other peace-officers of each county are required to be present during the whole time that the polls are kept open, and until the election is completed; and will be made responsible that there shall be no interference with judges of election, or other interruption of good order. If there should be more than one polling place in any county, the sheriff of the county is empowered and directed to make such assignments of his deputies, and other peace-officers, to the other polling-places, as may in his judgment best subserve the purposes of quiet and order; and he is further required to report these arrangements in advance to the commander of the military post in which his county is situated.

10th. Violence, or threats of violence, or of discharge from employment, or other oppressive means to prevent any person from registering or exercising his right of voting, is positively prohibited; and any such attempts will be reported by the registrars, or judges of elections, to the post commander, and will cause the arrest and trial of the offenders by military authority. The exhibition or carrying of deadly weapons in violation of General Orders No. 10, of 1867, at or in the vicinity of any polling-places during the election herein ordered, will be regarded and treated as an additional offence.

11th. All bar-rooms, saloons, and other places for the sale of liquors by retail, will be closed from six o'clock of the evening of the 20th of April, until six o'clock of the morning of the 24th of April, 1868, and during this time the sale of all intoxicating liquors at or near any polling-place is prohibited. The police officers of cities and towns, and the sheriffs and other peace-officers of counties, will be held responsible for the strict enforcement of this prohibition, and will promptly arrest and hold for trial all persons who may transgress it.

12th. Military interference with elections, "unless it shall be necessary to repel the armed enemies of the United States, or to keep the peace at the polls," is prohibited by the Act of Congress approved February 25, 1865, and no soldiers will be allowed to appear at any polling-place, unless as citizens of the State they are qualified and are registered as voters, and then only for the purpose of voting; but the commanders of posts will keep their troops well in hand on the days of election, and will be prepared to act promptly if the civil authorities are unable to preserve the peace.

The State-officers to be chosen were a governor, lieutenant-governor, auditor, treasurer, superintendent of public works, superintendent of public instruction, attorney-general, five justices of the Supreme Court, and one judge of the Superior Court, in each of twelve judicial districts.

A disposition was shown, on the part of all

classes of people in the State to take part in the political canvass, and exert their influence for or against the new constitution. Delegates of the Conservative or Democratic party met in convention, at the call of their State executive committee, at Raleigh, on the 7th of February, and decided upon a plan of organization for the party throughout the State. The purpose of the convention, as expressed in the preamble to its declaration of principles, was "to consider the present anomalous condition of the State, and of the country, and to consult together upon the grievances which now afflict and threaten them (the Conservatives), and the course of action proper to be adopted in the trying circumstances which surround them." After declaring their "unalterable devotion to the principles of constitutional liberty," and their "fealty to the Government of the United States, as set forth in the Federal Constitution," and averring that they accept in good faith "the legitimate and legal results of the late war," and heartily desired peace and concord with their "sister States, and with the entire United States," they embodied the leading articles of their political faith in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That, regarding the Constitution of the United States as the source of all power in the administration of the Government, and that the powers of the Executive, Legislative and Judicial departments are equal and coordinate, as defined by that instrument, we do respectfully and solemnly protest against the enforcement upon our people of the reconstruction Acts and policy of Congress, as unconstitutional, unwise, and destructive to society, and violative of that great principle of American politics, that each State shall have the exclusive control of its own internal affairs.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this convention, that the great and all absorbing issue, now soon to be presented to the people of the State, is negro suffrage and negro equality, if not supremacy, and whether, hereafter, in North Carolina and the South, the white man is to be placed politically, and, as a consequence, socially, upon a footing of equality with the negro, and, in many localities, subject to his government as a superior. That we are utterly opposed to such change in our government and in our social relations, and that we do hereby earnestly recommend to the people of the State to manfully meet the issue now attempted to be forced upon them, and to use every proper means within their power to avert the impending mischief.

Resolved, That, while we are unalterably opposed to political and social equality with the black race, we yet have no unjust prejudices against that race; that we are determined, by just laws, to protect them fully in all their civil rights, and to confer upon them all privileges which can be done consistently with the safety and welfare of both races.

Resolved, That the distressed and impoverished condition of our people earnestly demands the speediest and wisest measures of relief that the Legislature can devise.

Resolved, That this convention recognizes, with feelings of gratitude, the heroic and patriotic efforts of the President of the United States, to restore the Union and harmony and good-will among the American people.

Resolved, That this convention regards the Supreme Court of the United States as the legitimate expounder, in the last resort, of the Constitution—

and believes that its rights and powers, in that respect, should be preserved intact, as established by law in the earlier and better days of the Republic, and that any serious impairment thereof, by legislation or otherwise, will be destructive to the best interests of the country, and dangerous to the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That, despairing of any restoration of the Southern States under the conduct of that organization which now controls the proceedings of Congress, waiving all former party feeling and prejudice, this convention does most unhesitatingly recommend and invite the coöperation of all the people of North Carolina with the Democrats and Conservative men of the North and West, who are now nobly struggling for the maintenance of the Constitution of the United States, and the restoration of the Southern States to their rights in the Union, on the solid foundation of harmony and peace.

The Republican Convention met at Raleigh on the 2d of March, and placed candidates in nomination for the offices to be filled at the election in April. The Republican candidate for Governor was Wm. W. Holden, and Thomas S. Ashe was nominated by the Democrats.

The whole number of voters registered in the State of North Carolina was 196,876, of whom 117,431 were whites and 79,445 colored. The whole vote on the constitution at the election of April, 1868, was 167,127; 93,118 votes were for ratification, and 74,009 against it, giving a majority of 19,109 in favor of adopting that instrument. The entire vote cast for Governor was 179,950; Holden received 96,499, and Ashe 83,451; Holden's majority, 13,048. There were seven members of Congress chosen, Republicans from the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth districts, and Democrats from the sixth and seventh districts. The constitution of the State Legislature is as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint-Ballot.
Republicans.....	38	82	120
Democrats.....	12	38	50
Republican majority.	26	44	70

The constitution of North Carolina met the approbation of Congress, and, on the 25th of June, an act passed that body to admit this, among other Southern States, into the Union as soon as the proposed amendment of the Federal Constitution should be ratified by its Legislature. In order that the vote might be taken on this matter, and that such laws might be passed as should be necessary in reorganizing the Government of the State, the General Assembly was convoked, by proclamation of the Governor elect, to meet at Raleigh on the first day of July. Judge Pearson, who was to administer the oath of office to the members of the Legislature, was informed by General Canby that no oath would be required except that prescribed in the constitution of the State. In order to facilitate the organization of the new State Government, the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor were removed by military order, and the persons appointed who had been lately elected to those positions. This order was to take effect on the meeting of the Legis-

lature, July 1st. This course did not meet the approval of Governor Worth, and he published the following protest, addressed to Governor Holden :

STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA, }
EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT, RALEIGH, July 1, 1868. }

Governor W. W. Holden, Raleigh, N. C. :
SIR: Yesterday morning I was verbally notified by Chief-Justice Pearson that, in obedience to a telegram from General Canby, he would to-day, at ten A. M., administer to you the oaths required preliminary to your entering upon the discharge of the duties of civil Governor of the State, and that thereupon you would demand possession of my office. I intimated to the judge my opinion that such proceeding was premature, even under the reconstruction legislation of Congress, and that I should probably decline to surrender the office to you.

At sundown yesterday evening I received from Colonel Williams, commandant of this military post, an extract from the General Orders, No. 120, of General Canby, as follows :

General Orders, No. 120.

[Extract.]

HEADQUARTERS SECOND MILITARY DISTRICT, }
CHARLESTON, S. C., June 30, 1868. }

To facilitate the organization of the new State governments, the following appointments are made:—To be Governor of North Carolina, W. W. Holden, Governor elect, vice Jonathan Worth, removed; to be Lieutenant-Governor of North Carolina, Tod R. Caldwell, Lieutenant-Governor elect, to fill an original vacancy, to take effect July 1, 1868, on the meeting of the General Assembly of North Carolina.

I do not recognize the validity of the late election, under which you and those cooperating with you claim to be invested with the civil government of the State. You have no evidence of your election save the certificate of a major-general of the United States army. I regard all of you as, in effect, appointees of the military power of the United States and not as "deriving your powers from the consent of those you claim to govern." Knowing, however, that you are backed by military force here, which I could not resist if I would, I do not deem it necessary to offer a futile opposition, but vacate the office without the ceremony of actual eviction, offering no further opposition than this, my protest. I would submit to actual expulsion in order to bring before the Supreme Court of the United States the question as to the constitutionality of the legislation under which you claim to be the rightful Governor of the State, if the past action of that tribunal furnished any hope of a speedy trial. I surrender the office to you under what I deem military duress, without stopping, as the occasion would well justify, to comment upon the singular coincidence that the present State Government is surrendered, as without legality, to him whose own official sanction, but three years ago, declared it valid. I am, very respectfully,

JONATHAN WORTH,
Governor of North Carolina.

The Legislature assembled on the appointed day, the members were sworn in, and both houses organized for the business of the session. On the second day the 14th amendment was ratified by a joint resolution of the House and Senate, and information of that fact transmitted to General Canby. On the 3d of July the following appeared :

CHARLESTON, S. C., July 3, 1868.

To his Excellency, W. W. Holden, Governor of North Carolina :

Your telegram, announcing the ratification of the Constitutional Amendment by the Legislature of North Carolina, has been received, and instructions

will be sent to-day to the military commanders in North Carolina to abstain from the exercise of any authority under the reconstruction laws, except to close up unfinished business, and not to interfere in any civil matters unless the execution of the law of June 25, 1868, should be obstructed by unlawful or forcible opposition to the inauguration of the new State Government.

The railroad appointments made by Governor Worth have been annulled.

ED. R. S. CANBY,
Major-General Commanding.

On the 4th Governor Holden was formally inaugurated, and exactly one week from that day the President of the United States announced by proclamation that North Carolina had complied with the condition prescribed by Congress for her restoration to an equal place in the Union of States. This consummated the reconstruction of the State of North Carolina.

There had been little occasion, during the six months prior to the meeting of the first Legislature under the new constitution, for any vigorous exercise of the military power. General Canby had on the 1st of January directed the organization of an armed police, to be employed, under the direction of the sheriffs, for the detection and prevention of crime in certain counties, which force was to be under the general supervision of the military authority. It was to be composed of "loyal citizens, white and colored, in the ratio of registered voters," who were required in all cases to be "intelligent, sober, and reliable men, of good moral standing in the community from which they are selected." In April a special order was issued, establishing a provost court for several counties of the State, to sit ordinarily at Raleigh, but liable to be called, for special purposes, to sit temporarily at different places. The jurisdiction of this court was restricted to civil cases, in which the sum in controversy did not exceed three hundred dollars, and to criminal offences which should be referred to it, except murder, manslaughter, assault with intent to kill, duelling, perjury, rape, and arson. The procedure of the court was to be "assimilated to that of magistrates under the laws of the State," and sentences and judgments were not to be executed until approved by the commanding general. The constitutional convention also relied on General Canby to carry into effect such ordinances as it saw fit to pass. These were few in number and of little general interest.

The Legislature, which met on the first of July, continued in session until the 22d of August, and passed a variety of laws, those of the greatest general interest being "An act to organize a militia of North Carolina," and "An act to provide for the registration of voters." Difference of opinion on questions of general policy still seemed to be based on the "distinction of race, color, or previous condition." No legislative action was taken founded on any such distinction, but the sentiments of the Conservatives on the subject are

illustrated in the series of resolutions which follow. These were not adopted by a majority of either House.

The General Assembly of North Carolina do resolve :

1. That we recognize the radical distinctions of color, blood, physical form, and peculiarities of intellect, between the white and negro races, and all efforts to destroy or abridge these distinctions are crimes not only against society and civilization, but against God himself.

2. That the common rule, as well as the experience of mankind, proves that the white race is superior to the negro, in physical and intellectual endowment, and that civilization and its future successful progress are safe only in the hands of the white race.

3. That the governments of the United States and of the several States were instituted by white men, have been administered by white men, and ought to be administered by white men, forever hereafter.

4. That it is the duty of this and all future General Assemblies of North Carolina so to shape their legislation as to secure the rights of life, property, and liberty, to all men residing in the State, without regard to race, former condition or color, but at the same time to recognize the natural distinctions of race.

5. That, in carrying out their purposes, it is the duty of this General Assembly, in providing for the establishment of a system of common schools for public instruction, to provide especially for the education of white children in schools separate from those provided for negro children.

6. That, in forming a militia system, special provision shall be made for organizing the white militia from the negro militia.

7. That stringent provision shall be made, by appropriate legislation, to prevent the intermarriage of the white and negro races in this State, and to punish the crime of miscegenation.

8. That these resolutions embody principles and a course of policy vital to the interests of the people of this State and of the whole Union, as well as to the interests of enlightened civilization and good and stable government, and all efforts to avoid or prevent a free, fair, and candid expression of opinion touching these principles ought to be, and will be, regarded as unfriendly to the well-being of society.

The subject of a system of public education occupied considerable attention, but nothing more was done than to adopt a resolution instructing the Board of Education to prepare and report a plan and code of laws for the "organization, government, etc., of the public free schools."

The following are the leading provisions of the militia act:

Every person liable, is required to serve, unless he pays a yearly contribution of two dollars, or is exempted under the certificate of a physician.

The Governor appoints and commissions all officers.

The white and colored militia are to be enrolled in separate companies, and "never be compelled to serve in the same companies."

The Governor is authorized to organize six regiments of infantry, three battalions of cavalry, and one battery of artillery, to be apportioned to three divisions into which the State may be divided, each to constitute a major-general's department.

The Governor has authority to request any five justices in a county to direct the colonel

commanding therein to detail a "sufficient force to preserve the peace and enforce the laws."

"No man shall be an officer or private in the detailed militia unless he be an elector of the State, and first take and subscribe the constitutional oath of office."

"The said detailed militia shall be under the command of the Governor and be subject to his orders, and may be sent to any portion of the State by him."

"Any officer of said detailed militia shall have power, and it shall be his duty, to use such force as may be necessary, to overcome resistance, in quelling riots or making arrests, and not otherwise."

"The white and colored members of the detailed militia shall not be compelled to serve in the same sections."

SECTION 22. The detailed militia organized under the provisions of this act shall not be used on any occasion or under any pretext for any other purpose than to execute the laws and to suppress resistance to the same, and it may be called upon by any peace officer for that purpose. And in case it be called into service to preserve the peace in any election, the force shall be used to secure a fair and untrammelled vote of all electors without regard to their political opinions, and no member of the force shall, while on active duty, be allowed to endeavor to influence the vote of any citizen, and any one offending against the provisions of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on indictment and conviction before any Superior Court, shall be fined or imprisoned, at the discretion of the Court, and shall forfeit any office or position that he may then hold under the laws of this State. Every justice of the peace or other peace-officer shall cause all offenders against this act to be immediately arrested, and held to bail to appear before the next succeeding Superior Court of the County to answer such charge.

The registration act regulates the appointment of registrars and judges of election, and gives explicit directions regarding the methods of proceeding. The following are the most important sections:

SECTION 6. Every male person born in the United States, and any male person who has been naturalized, twenty-one years old or upwards, who shall have resided in the State twelve months next preceding the election, and thirty days in the county in which he offers to vote, shall be deemed an elector, and shall be entitled to registration upon application.

SEC. 7. Except in cases provided for in section eleven, of this act, no person shall be allowed to vote at any election unless his name shall be found upon the registration books of the precinct in which he offers to vote, unless he shall take and subscribe the following oath: "I, —, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States, and the constitution and laws of North Carolina not inconsistent therewith; that I have been a resident in the State of North Carolina for twelve months, and in the county of — for thirty days, and that I have neither registered nor voted during this election in any other precinct." Such person, having taken this oath, shall thereupon be registered.

SEC. 8. It shall be the duty of the judge of elections to keep the registration books for their precinct at the place of holding the election during the day of such election, and to register therein the name of any legal voter, first administering the oath as provided in the last section, before receiving the vote of any elector not previously registered.

SEC. 6. Any person who shall, with intent to commit a fraud, vote at more than one time, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction, shall be imprisoned not less than six nor more than twelve months, or fined not less than one hundred nor more than five hundred dollars, at the discretion of the Court; and any registrar of voters or any clerk or copyist, who shall make any entry or copy with intent to commit a fraud, shall be liable to the same penalty.

SEC. 7. No registered voter shall be challenged on the day of election, but those offering to register on the day of election may be challenged, and every person applying for registration before the election may be challenged at that time in like manner.

The last two sections are from an act amending that which was first passed. The registration of legal voters under this law commenced on the 15th of October, in preparation for the presidential election in November.

Both political parties held conventions to ratify the nominations and approve the platform of principles made at their respective national conventions for President and Vice-President of the United States, and both acted in harmony with the same parties throughout the country in the excited campaign of the autumn.

The whole vote of the State in the presidential election was 165,841; of these 92,241 were for the electors nominated by the Republican party, and 73,600 for the Democratic electors; giving a popular majority in favor of the election of Grant and Colfax of 18,641.

Considerable was done in the course of the year toward resuscitating the material interests of the State, and establishing railroads from point to point. The Commonwealth is burdened with a debt which, on the 1st of October, amounted to \$19,208,945, including bonds issued for internal improvements to the amount of nearly \$4,000,000. The interest which matured on the 1st of October was promptly paid, and amounted to \$112,104. The interest falling due in the course of the present fiscal year, ending September 30, 1869, will amount to \$1,032,596, while the expenses of administering the State government for the same period are estimated at \$375,230, making the demands on the treasury \$1,407,826 for the year 1868-'69. To meet these, the Treasurer has \$50,034.84 on hand, and the remainder must be raised by taxation. The value of property in the State on which this revenue is to be levied is estimated at \$250,000,000.

The regular session of the General Assembly commenced on the 16th of November, and continued into the year 1869. The principal matters under consideration related to the finances of the State and the reestablishment of her material prosperity.

NOYES, GEORGE RAPALL, D. D., an American Unitarian clergyman, professor, and Orientalist, born in Newburyport, Mass.,

March 6, 1798; died in Cambridge, Mass., June 3, 1868. His early training and preparation for college were acquired under great difficulties, but by zeal and energy he surmounted them all, and entered Harvard College, and, having sustained himself in part by teaching during his course, graduated in 1818 with a debt of only \$150. This he paid from the salary received for teaching the academy at Framingham the year after his graduation. He then entered the Divinity School at Cambridge, and passed through the theological course of three years, but, having some pupils there, and desiring to prosecute further the philological and biblical studies in which he had become deeply interested, he did not seek a settlement at once, but remained in Cambridge as a private teacher and college tutor until 1827. He was ordained as pastor of a small Congregational (Unitarian) Society in Brookfield, Mass., October 31, 1827. The salary was inadequate for his support, but he remained in Brookfield for seven years, devoting his leisure to studies not immediately connected with the pulpit. In October, 1834, he was installed pastor of the First Congregational (Unitarian) Society in Petersham, Mass., where he remained until September, 1840, when he accepted the Hancock professorship of Hebrew and other Oriental languages of sacred literature in Harvard College, and the Dexter lectureship on biblical literature in the Divinity School, as successor of Dr. Palfrey. The year previous he had received the degree of D. D. from Harvard College. He continued in the discharge of the duties of this professorship until his death, officiating occasionally also as college chaplain and preacher. Dr. Noyes had been long conspicuous as the ablest Hebrew and Greek scholar and the most thorough proficient in sacred literature connected with the university, and ranking with the best in the country. He had devoted much of his time for many years to the translation of portions of the Old and New Testament scriptures, and their careful annotation. He published some years since translations of the poetical and prophetic books of the Old Testament, which he had recently revised, and to which he had added copious notes. These were published in four volumes, by the American Unitarian Association, in 1866 and 1867. His translation of the New Testament, on which he had bestowed many years of critical labor, was completed and passing through the press at the time of his death. It constitutes a fifth volume of his translations, and is a monument of careful and accurate biblical learning. Besides these, he had published a Hebrew Reader, and several occasional sermons and addresses, and had edited a volume of theological essays by various authors.

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OBITUARIES, AMERICAN.—*January 3.*—BARROWS, WILLARD, a civil engineer and author, died in Davenport, Iowa, aged 61 years. He was born in Monson, Massachusetts, in 1806, and passed most of his youth in New England. After leaving his home he became a teacher at Elizabethtown, N. J., but soon relinquished that occupation for the profession of civil engineering, in which he successfully labored until a few years ago. In 1835 he finished for the Government the surveys of the Choctaw Purchase in Mississippi, and after completing this work made, in 1837, an exploration to Cedar River, then scarcely known. In the fall of 1837 he was engaged upon the first surveys of Iowa. In 1840 he surveyed the islands in the Mississippi River, between Rock river and Quincy. During the suspension of the surveys he settled at Rockingham, but in 1843, when the surveys were resumed, he was sent into the Kickapoo country. From 1845 to 1850 he was unceasingly at work on Government and county surveys in Iowa. In 1850 he made a journey to the Rocky Mountains, an account of which he subsequently published. In 1854, he published "Barrows's New Map of Iowa, with Notes," and in 1859 wrote a historical sketch of Scott County. At the time of his death he was connected with a banking house in Davenport.

Jan. 3.—SHEARMAN, SYLVESTER G., Justice of the Supreme Court of Rhode Island, died in Providence, R. I., aged 66 years. He was born in North Kingston in 1802, was educated for the law, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Wickford. In 1843 he was elected a Representative to the General Assembly on the "Law and Order" ticket from his native town. In 1848 he was chosen Speaker of the House, and in May, 1855, was elected a Justice of the Supreme Court, the duties of which position he continued to discharge with faithfulness and fidelity until stricken down by the disease which terminated his life. He was a man of strong common sense and unquestioned integrity, and as a debater was remarkable for his readiness and homely wit.

Jan. 8.—GIUDICINI, GIUSEPPE, an architect, scenic artist, and fresco painter, died in New York City, aged 55 years. He was born at Bologna, Italy, in 1812. He began his studies under Prof. Basoli at the Academy of Design in his native town, and afterward studied at Rome and Milan. In 1832 he came to this country, as scenic artist to the first opera troupe that arrived under the management of Signor Montessor. He was the first artist that introduced fresco painting into this country, and nearly all the theatres of New York bear evidence of his talent.

Jan. 10.—BINGHAM, DANIEL H., a prominent lawyer and editor of Alabama, died at Florence, Ala., aged about 70 years. He was a native of Vermont.

Jan. 10.—COOLEY, Mrs. NANCY, died at Darrrtown, Butler County, Ohio, aged 108 years and 17 days. She was born in Virginia in 1759, and emigrated to Kentucky, where she married, and soon after removed with her husband to Ohio, when it was a wilderness.

Jan. 11.—REEB, Lieutenant-Commander JOHN HENRY, U. S. N., was drowned at the mouth of the Osaka River, Japan. He entered the service in Sept., 1859, and, during the war, he took part in many of the most important naval operations—at New Orleans, Vicksburg, the engagement with the ram Arkansas, the siege of Port Hudson, the iron-clad operations off Charleston and Stone River, etc., etc. He was flag-lieutenant of Admiral Bell's squadron, and in attempting, in company with the admiral and thirteen men, to cross the bar at the mouth of the Osaka, the boat was capsized, and all on board were drowned, with the exception of three men.

Jan. 13.—HASSELTINE, Miss ABIGAIL C., an eminent teacher, died at Bradford, Mass. She was a woman of superior intellect and extensive attainments, and, for a period of fifty years (1815–1865), was preceptress of Bradford Female Academy, educating several thousand young ladies, many of whom have subsequently filled important stations. She was a sister of Mrs. Ann Hasseltine Judson, the first wife and sharer in the toils and trials of the distinguished missionary, Dr. Adoniram Judson.

Jan. 13.—STEELE, General FREDERICK, late commander of the Military Department of the Columbia, died at San Mateo, Cal. He entered the army in 1843, and served with distinction in the Mexican War, having been twice brevetted for gallant and meritorious services—first at the battle of Contreras, and again at the battle of Chapultepec. During the late civil war he held several important commands, and was distinguished in numerous engagements, being promoted to the rank of major-general of volunteers, and brevet major-general in the army. At the siege of Vicksburg, he commanded the Fifth Division of Grant's army, and headed many of the most important storming parties during the siege. He subsequently had command of the Department of Arkansas, which he held until the close of the war. In 1865 he was transferred to Texas, and placed in command of the troops on the Rio Grande, but during the same year was appointed to the Department of the Columbia.

Jan. 16.—HASKINS, Mrs., died at Camden, Ohio, at the advanced age of 116 years. She

was born in Burlington, Vt., in 1751, and lived on Long Island when the British invaded New York.

Jan. 19.—**CAMPBELL, JOHN H.**, a prominent lawyer and politician of Philadelphia, died in that city. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and represented the Third District in Congress between 1845 and 1847, when he declined a renomination, though pressed by his constituency to accept it.

Jan. 19.—**DICK, JAMES T.**, an artist of great promise, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 34 years. He was a native of New York, and a son of A. L. Dick, whose engraving of "The Last Supper" gained him an enviable position among artists. The subject of this sketch manifested from infancy a love for art, and at the age of fourteen, while on a visit to England with his father, entered as a competitor for the prizes of the Manchester Academy of Design, and carried off a majority of them. Among his most popular productions are "Cooling Off," "Leap-Frog," and "At Mischief." Mr. Dick was one of the organizers of the old Brooklyn Art School, from which sprang the present Art Association, and was also one of the founders of the Academy of Design.

Jan. 20.—**DILL, VINCENT LEMUEL**, the oldest practical stereotyper in America, died in Brooklyn, E. D., aged 73 years. He was one of the first to cast stereotype plates in this country.

Jan. 21.—**DAVIS, JAMES**, an eminent Vermont lawyer and politician, died at St. Albans, Vt., aged 85 years. He was born in North Kingston, R. I., and removed to St. Albans in 1810. In 1829 he was a member of the Constitutional Convention, and of the Executive Council in 1830. In 1843 and 1844 he was Assistant Judge of the County Court. He also served five years as Judge of Probate.

Jan. 21.—**VANDERBERGH, FEDERAL, M. D.**, an eminent homoeopathic physician, died at Rhinebeck, N. Y. He was born in Beekman, Dutchess County, N. Y., May 11, 1788; studied medicine and entered upon the practice of his profession with a license in 1808. In 1815 he removed to Geneva, N. Y., and in 1822 changed his residence to the city of New York. In 1826 he received the degree of M. D. from the medical department of Yale College. In 1833 he adopted the system of Hahnemann, known as homoeopathy, and continued in the practice thereof until his death.

Jan. 24.—**LORD, REV. NATHAN L., M. D.**, a missionary and physician of the Madura Mission, A. B. C. F. M., and previously of the Ceylon Mission, died in New York City. He was born in Norwich, Conn., December 8, 1821. In 1829 he removed with his family to Fairview, Pa., and in 1837 to Ellsworth, Ohio; was educated at the Western Reserve College, where he graduated in 1847, and after completing a theological course was employed for a time as agent and financial secretary of the college. Having decided to devote himself to the mis-

sionary work, he was ordained in October, 1852, and sailed with his wife for Ceylon. After six years of faithful labor, the failure of his health compelled him to return to this country, where he spent nearly four years, during a portion of which time he performed with great acceptance the duties of a district secretary of the Board of Missions, in the southern districts of the West. He also attended several courses of medical lectures, receiving the degree of M. D. at Cleveland, Ohio. In 1863 he sailed with his wife and children for the Madura Mission, but the climate of India was unfavorable to his debilitated state, and, his wife also being in feeble health, he was compelled again to return to the United States, reaching New York in June of 1867. With a view of prosecuting his medical studies he arranged his plans for spending the winter in the city, but the termination of his disease was sudden and unexpected.

Jan. 26.—**DEAN, AMOS, LL. D.**, an able jurist and author, died in Albany, N. Y. He was born at Barnard, Vt., Feb. 16, 1803, and received his collegiate education at Union College, where he graduated in 1822. Having made choice of the legal profession, he commenced his study under Jabez D. Hammond and Judge Alfred D. Conkling, two names of great eminence in the State history. On his admission to the bar, he formed a partnership of long continuance with Mr. Azor Taber, and soon attained a high reputation for his profound legal attainments. In 1833 he projected the Young Men's Association of Albany, of which he was a lifelong friend and supporter. In 1834 he delivered before it an interesting course of lectures, subsequently published. He prepared numerous treatises on law subjects, all of which have been recognized as standard works on their respective topics. In 1851, at the organization of the law school, he was appointed a professor, and he had also filled the chair of Medical Jurisprudence in the Albany Medical School, we believe, from its organization in 1839. He had been engaged for some years upon an extensive and elaborate work on the "History of Civilization," which his death leaves incomplete.

Jan. 26.—**HARNEY, J. H.**, an editor and author, died in Louisville, Ky. He was the author of an excellent treatise on Algebra, with the hardest problems ever inserted in a mathematical text-book. For many years he had been connected with the daily press, and at the period of his death was editor of the *Louisville Democrat*.

Jan. 26.—**MOTT, JAMES**, husband of Lucretia Mott, the Quaker preacher, died in Brooklyn, L. I. He was born at Manhasset, Long Island, in 1788, but when a very young man removed to Philadelphia. During the religious controversy which so long troubled and ultimately divided the Society of Friends, Mr. Mott took an active part in support of the "Liberalists." He was also a cordial sympathizer with the

opponents of negro slavery, and in 1820 signed the famous "Declaration of Sentiments" which initiated, under the leadership of William Lloyd Garrison, the movement for the emancipation of the colored race. The last days of his life were devoted to the maturing of plans of government and instruction for the Friends' College at Swathmore, near Philadelphia.

Jan. 30.—HUNTINGTON, CHARLES PHELPS, an eminent jurist of Massachusetts, died in Boston. He was born in Litchfield, Connecticut, May 24, 1802, was fitted for college at Hopkins Academy, in Hadley, Mass.; graduated at Harvard University in the class of 1822, and studied law in Northampton, Mass., where he practised his profession for several years. Subsequently he removed to Boston, where he acquired a high reputation as a jurist, and was appointed Judge of the Superior Court in Suffolk County.

Feb. 1.—LEESER, ISAAC, a learned Jewish rabbi and author, died in Philadelphia. He was born in Neukirch, Westphalia, in 1806, and in 1825 emigrated to the United States, where he engaged in commerce. In 1829 he became rabbi of the principal synagogue of Philadelphia, and subsequently acquired an extensive reputation by his contributions to literature, referring principally to Jewish history and theology. For some years he edited *The Jewish Advocate (The Occident)*. Among his published works are: "The Jews and the Mosaic Law" (1833); "Discourses, Argumentative and Devotional" (1836-40); "Portuguese Form of Prayers" (1837); a "Descriptive Geography of Palestine;" and a translation of the Hebrew "Holy Scriptures," according to Jewish authorities (1856).

Feb. 2.—MARIGNY, BERNARD DE MANDEVILLE, a citizen of New Orleans, of French extraction, died in that city, aged 84 years. He was born in New Orleans in 1784, and descended from a rich and titled family of Normandy. Inheriting an enormous estate, including large tracts of land in different parts of his native city and State, he indulged in unbounded prodigality in his youth. When Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, sought an asylum in this country, Mr. Marigny entertained him with liberal hospitality in his princely mansion, and the intimacy thus established was not forgotten when the former became King of France. Mr. Bernard Marigny very early assumed a prominent part in the politics of the State. He was a member, perhaps the last survivor, of the convention of 1812, which framed the first constitution for the State. During the war with England, and when the State was invaded, he was in the Legislature, and was an active member of the Committee of Defence. He continued a member of the Legislature for twenty-four years, and was always regarded as the most prominent and efficient champion of the old creole party and as a very earnest and active Democrat. When a convention was called in 1845, to revise and

amend the constitution of 1812, Mr. Marigny was elected a member of it, and bore a conspicuous part in the advocacy of the more liberal features of the new government, which superseded that he had assisted to create in 1812. Besides these public duties, Mr. Marigny filled various other public stations in the Federal and State governments. During his long career, his liberal and prodigal habits made great inroads upon his once vast estate.

Feb. 3.—LYONS, JAMES GILBOURNE, D.D., LL.D., an Episcopal clergyman and educator, died in West Haverford, Pa. He was a native of England, but emigrated to America in 1844, and began his clerical labors at St. Mary's Church, Burlington, N. J. In 1846 he removed to Philadelphia, and established himself as a teacher of the classics. His success as an educator procured for him the position of principal of the Haverford Classical School, which he held at the time of his death.

Feb. 4.—GILLIAMS, JACOB, M.D., an eminent physician and naturalist of Philadelphia, died there, aged 84 years. He was a native of Philadelphia, and, upon the completion of his medical studies, entered upon a long and successful practice, which he did not relinquish until a few years previous to his death. He was a proficient in the natural sciences, and especially in ornithology, which brought him into companionship with Audubon, Wilson, Rushenberger, and others. In connection with Charles Lucien Bonaparte and a few others, he established in 1816 the MacLurian Lyceum in his native city, which, however, was short lived; but the Academy of Natural Sciences, which he also assisted in founding, has attained a wide renown. The hall which it occupies was built at his expense.

Feb. 6.—HERRICK, HON. ANSON, a New York politician and editor, died in New York. He was born in Lewiston, Me., January 21, 1812; received a common-school education, and at the age of fifteen years was apprenticed to the business of a printer. In 1836 he settled in New York City, and in 1838 commenced the publication of a weekly journal now called the New York *Atlas*, of which he became editor and proprietor. He received from President Buchanan the appointment of Naval Storekeeper for New York, which he held until 1861. In 1862 he was elected Representative from New York to the Thirty-eighth Congress, serving on the Committees on Revolutionary Pensions and Expenditures in the Navy Department. He was also a delegate to the "Philadelphia National Union Convention" of 1866.

Feb. 7.—DE WITT, RICHARD VARIOL, a prominent citizen of Albany, died in that city, aged 68 years. He was a native of Albany, and descended from a family of some military renown, his father and uncle having been distinguished officers of the Revolution. He graduated at Union College, and studied law, but gave his attention mostly to literary and artistic pursuits. He made himself familiar

with the principles of architecture, and produced some fine specimens of oil and water-color paintings; was one of the founders of the Albany Institute; established and maintained a line of steamboats on the Cayuga Lake; contributed largely to the construction of the Ithaca and Oswego Railroad; was vice-president of the State Cincinnati Society, and was one of the founders of the first Sunday-school in Albany.

Feb. 10.—RICHARDSON, REV. JOHN F., Professor of Latin Language and Literature in the University of Rochester, and an author, died in Rochester, aged 60 years. He graduated at Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., in 1827, and studied law at Rochester, N. Y. He had just been admitted to the bar in 1830, when, under the labors of Rev. Charles G. Finney, he was converted, and, with a classmate, Rev. Grover S. Comstock, subsequently a missionary to Aracan, resolved to abandon the legal profession and study theology. The two proceeded to the Hamilton Theological Institution, now Madison University, and, after a two years' course there, entered the ministry. Though a profoundly religious man, and possessed of a most gentle and tender nature, Mr. Richardson's tendencies were so strong toward a quiet and studious life, and devotion to classical studies, that he very early turned his attention to teaching, and, on the organization of the University of Rochester in 1851, was appointed to the professorship of Latin Language and Literature, which he held to his death. He had published one or two small text-books on subjects connected with classical study, which are highly appreciated by scholars.

Feb. 12.—GAMBELL, WILLARD P., an eminent lawyer and jurist of Kansas, died at Lawrence, Kan., aged 37 years. He was born and educated in New York, but, after a short residence in Michigan, removed to Leavenworth, Kan., where he at once became one of the leading men in the State. His acute logical powers and brilliant intellect placed him at the head of the bar. At a great pecuniary sacrifice he served one or two terms in the House, and also one in the State Senate, where his abilities were thoroughly appreciated. His death was sudden and unexpected.

Feb. 13.—OKEE-WAH, MRS. MARGARET, an Indian woman of the Ottawa tribe, died in Bay Settlement, Wisconsin, at the advanced age of 123 years. She had been married three times, and her eldest son, who survives her, is 97 years old, and is blind and infirm. In June, 1830, she became a Catholic, and was baptized by the Rt. Rev. Dr. Fenwick, then Bishop of Cincinnati. She retained her faculties until her death.

Feb. 16.—FENDALL, PHILIP R., an eminent advocate, of Washington, D. C., died in that city, aged 73 years. He was born in Alexandria, Va., in 1794, graduated with distinction at Princeton College in 1815, and was admitted to the bar in Alexandria about 1820. Some years

later he removed to Washington, D. C., where he soon attained a very high rank in his profession, and filled the important office of District Attorney from 1841 to 1845, and from 1849 to 1853. His practice in the highest courts was extensive, and included many of those great historical cases which have had an influence on our time. He ranked for years as the ablest advocate of the capital. He was also a man of extensive literary culture, and wrote much and ably on literary and political topics.

Feb. 16.—SIMPSON, AUGUSTUS W., a Western journalist, died at Kansas City, aged about 46 years. He was a native of Howard County, Mo., but in early boyhood removed to Booneville, where he resided until the close of the late war. He was for fourteen years editor and publisher of the *Observer*, an able and influential paper. In 1860 he was elected Public Printer, and, in conjunction with Mr. Ament, published the *State Times*. In 1865 he aided in establishing the *Commercial Advertiser*, in Kansas City, devoting to that paper his best energies until a short period before his death.

Feb. 16.—SWAIN, WILLIAM M., founder of the *Philadelphia Public Ledger* and the *Baltimore Sun*, died in Philadelphia, aged 59 years. He was a native of Onondaga County, N. Y., and was educated to the printing business, of which he became a thorough master, as well as one of the most successful newspaper publishers in the country. For eight years he was president of the Magnetic Telegraph Company, and for many years a director in the American Telegraph Company. He was largely instrumental in organizing, perfecting, and increasing the telegraph system of the United States, and was a man of great intellectual ability and force of character.

Feb. 18.—SEWALL, REV. SAMUEL, D. D., a Congregational clergyman, antiquarian, and author, died in Burlington, Mass. He was born in Marblehead, Mass., June 1, 1785; studied at the academy of his native town; graduated at Harvard College in the class of 1804, and took a theological course at Cambridge. In 1814 he was ordained pastor of the Congregational church in Burlington, which relation he held until his death. He was fond of antiquarian studies, and had just finished a full and complete history of the town of Woburn, and for some years had been engaged upon a history of the Sewall family, but did not live to complete it. In 1836 Dr. Sewall was elected a member of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

Feb. 22.—GANNON, MARY, an actress, died in New York City, aged 39 years. She was a native of New York, and commenced the life of an actress when a little child. At six years of age she played at the old Bowery Theatre, and successively at the Franklin, National, Niblo's, and the Park Theatre. Subsequently she performed for some years in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Charleston, returning to New York in 1848, and entering upon an engagement at the Olympic. In 1849 she became the

wife of George W. Stephenson, a young lawyer, whose death, a few years after, necessitated her return to the stage as a means of support. From that time she was always a great favorite as a comedy actress. She was possessed of much versatility of talent, quick perceptions, unbounded generosity, and a sweet and gentle nature which irresistibly won the love and respect of all who were brought into contact with her.

Feb. 24.—HALL, GEORGE WASHINGTON, an eminent teacher, died in Troy, N. Y. He was born at East Haddam, Conn., July 29, 1792; graduated at Yale College in 1803, studied theology, and in 1805 was settled over the Presbyterian church in Cherry Valley, N. Y., where he remained two years. Soon after he removed to New York City, and having experienced a change in his religious views, and become Unitarian in his convictions, he relinquished preaching for teaching. In 1815 he taught in Georgia, and the two following years in Boston. In 1818 he opened a school for boys at Mount Vernon, Westchester County, and soon after went South for his health, and taught at Rutherford, N. C. Upon his return to New York in 1821, he opened a large boarding-school for boys, which obtained great celebrity, and was afterward known as the "Washington Institute." In 1829 his failing health compelled him to dispose of his school and retire to a farm at Shrewsbury, N. J. In 1831 he returned to New York and resumed the charge of the Institute for five years. The last thirty years of his life were spent mainly at Ballston Spa, N. Y.

Feb. 25.—TAYLOR, BENJAMIN OGLE, an accomplished scholar and prominent citizen of Washington, D. C., died in Rome, Italy. He was born at Annapolis, Md., May, 1796, and was descended, through an honorable lineage, from some of the most distinguished families of Virginia and Maryland. His academical education was received at Phillips' Academy, Exeter, and in 1815 he graduated at Harvard University. In 1817 he visited Europe as an *attaché* of the American ambassador, Hon. Richard Rush, to the court of St. James. In England he received much attention from old family friends, and also in Paris, and, after a protracted tour in Germany and Italy, returned to this country, laden with rare acquisitions of knowledge. Not far from the year 1830 he left his ancestral estate at Mount Airy, Virginia, and took up his residence in Washington, where the hospitalities of his elegant home were widely known. During the late war his losses in landed and personal property in the Southern States were very heavy. In May, 1866, accompanied by his wife and son, he sailed for Europe, for the benefit of his health, and, after spending some months at Leamington Spa, England, went on the Continent, where he remained until his death. Mr. Taylor was a frequent contributor to the journals of the day. For several years he was a correspondent of

the New York *Spirit of the Times*, under the signature of "Observer," and more recently of the "Field, Turf, and Fireside," under the signature of "Viator." The *National Intelligencer*, *Richmond Whig*, and *Troy Whig* have also contained in times past many valuable contributions from his pen.

Feb. 29.—FORD, Hon. THOMAS H., ex-Lieutenant-Governor of Ohio, died in Washington, D. C. He was born in Rockingham County, Va., August 23, 1814, and when quite young removed with his family to the town of Mansfield, Ohio. Upon attaining his majority, he engaged in the practice of law, and also took an active part in the politics of his adopted State, connecting himself with the old Whig party. In 1855 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of the State, which position he filled with honor to himself and his constituency. In 1863 he removed to Washington, and, by his eloquence and legal attainments, soon entered the front rank of his profession. He was a faithful and earnest worker in the temperance reform, and had a strong hold upon the respect and love of the community.

Feb. —.—ASBOTH, Brevet Major-General (U. S. Vols.) ALEXANDER SANDOR, died at Buenos Ayres, S. A. He was born in the county of Zala, Hungary, December 18, 1811; studied at Oedenburg, served for a time in an Austrian regiment, and subsequently passed through a course of legal studies at Presburg, and, having a taste for engineering, was employed upon various important hydraulic works in the Banat. He took part in the Hungarian war, and accompanied Kossuth to Turkey, sharing his confinement at Kutaieh, and, upon their release in 1851, accompanied that general to the United States, of which he became a citizen. At the commencement of the late war he was appointed chief of staff to General Fremont, under whom he subsequently served as commander of a division. Upon the removal of General Fremont from the West, Colonel Asboth was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, and assigned to the command of a division of General Curtis's army, with which he participated in the battle of Pea Ridge. In February, 1863, he was in command at Columbus, Ky., and in August, of the same year, he was assigned to the command of the District of West Florida, with headquarters at Fort Pickens. He was badly wounded in the Marianna fight in Florida, his left cheek-bone being broken, and his left arm fractured in two places. He was appointed a major-general by brevet, for his services in Florida, and in August, 1865, he resigned. In March, 1866, he was appointed minister to the Argentine Republic, going thither by way of France, in order to consult some French surgeons. The wound in his face was exceedingly painful, and the surgeons did not venture to attempt to remove the ball, which was lodged in his neck. This wound caused him continual suffering, and finally produced his death.

March 1.—HOLT, Judge J. J., died at Lavaca, Texas. He was a brother of Joseph Holt, late Attorney-General U. S., and was at one time Justice of the Tenth Judicial District of that State.

March 4.—BAXTER, PORTUS, died in Washington, D. C. He was born in Brownington, Vt.; received a liberal education, entered the mercantile business, and was elected a Representative from Vermont to the Thirty-seventh Congress, serving on the Committee on Elections; reelected to the Thirty-eighth Congress, and served on the same committee, and also on that of Expenditures in the Navy Department. In 1852 and in 1856 he was a presidential elector. Was reelected to the Thirty-ninth Congress, serving on the Committees on Elections and Agriculture. He was a Republican in politics, and an able defender of the interests and rights of the poor and oppressed.

March 5.—BURROUGHS, CHARLES, D. D., an Episcopal clergyman, died in Portsmouth, N. H. He was born in Boston, Mass., December 27, 1787; graduated at Harvard University in the class of 1806; studied theology, and was ordained priest in 1812. Having been chosen rector of St. John's Church, Portsmouth, he officiated in that capacity for nearly half a century. He was for nearly thirty years president of the New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane; was for nearly forty years annually elected president of the Portsmouth Athenæum; was elected in 1842 corresponding member of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and was president of the General Theological Library of Boston from the period of its establishment until his death. In 1833 the degree of Doctor of Divinity was conferred upon him by Columbia College.

March 6.—COOPER, Mrs. JULIA DEAN, an actress of high reputation, died in New York City, aged 37 years. She was educated by her father (himself an actor) for the stage, and made her first appearance at the old Broadway Theatre. Her success was a flattering one, and her reputation extended West and South, where she married a Mr. Hayne, of Charleston. Seven or eight years after, she moved to San Francisco, having been obliged to return to her profession for the support of her family. Subsequently she separated from her husband, and in 1866 married a Mr. Cooper, of New York. She was a lady of high literary culture and many private virtues.

March 6.—LINCOLN, Dr. ISAAC, an eminent physician in Maine, died at Brunswick, Me. He was born in Cohasset, Mass., January, 1780; graduated at Harvard College in 1800, and subsequently taught a grammar-school in Hingham two years, giving his leisure hours to the study of medicine. In 1804 he commenced practice in Topsham, Me., and in 1820 removed to Brunswick, where he was a successful practitioner for more than half a century. In 1831 he received the honorary degree of Doctor of

Medicine from Bowdoin College, of which institution he was overseer for more than sixty years.

March 11.—ANDREWS, Colonel TIMOTHY P., U. S. A., died in Washington, D. C., aged 74 years. When a young boy, without the knowledge of his father, he repaired to the Patuxent River, where commodore Barney's flotilla was confronting the enemy during the War of 1812, and, boarding the flag-ship, tendered his services to the commodore, in any position in which he could be useful. The commodore accepted his offer, and employed him as an aide, in which position he rendered valuable services. He subsequently was engaged in active service in the field, and in 1822 was appointed paymaster in the army. In 1847 he resigned to take command of the regiment of voltigeurs raised for the Mexican War. He was distinguished in the battle of El Molino, and brevetted a brigadier-general for gallant and meritorious conduct in the battle of Chapultepec. On the close of the war, and the disbandment of the voltigeurs, he was reinstated by act of Congress in his old situation of paymaster, and in 1851 was promoted to the position of Deputy Paymaster-General. During the late war, upon the death of General Larned, Colonel Andrews succeeded him as Paymaster-General of the army, and his unwearied devotion to the responsible duties of his position seriously affected his health.

March 22.—CARTER, JOSIAH MASON, an eminent lawyer and politician, of Connecticut, died at Norwalk, Conn. He was born in New Canaan, Conn., June 19, 1813; graduated at Yale College in 1836, and, after a course of study in the Law School in New Haven, was, in 1839, admitted to the bar in Fairfield County. From 1840 to 1847 he was engaged in the practice of his profession in New York City, when he removed to Norwalk, and formed a partnership with Thomas B. Butler, which continued until 1855, when Mr. Butler was transferred to the bench. He served three terms in the State Legislature, during the last of which he was Speaker of the House. From 1862 until his death, he held the office of State Attorney for Fairfield County, and was also, for a number of years, chairman of the Board of Education in the town of Norwalk. Mr. C. was once the candidate of his party for the office of Lieutenant-Governor, and twice declined the nomination of Judge of the Superior Court.

March 27.—FREEMAN, PEYTON RANDOLPH, died in Hanover, N. H., in the 93d year of his age. He was a native of Hanover, and graduated at Dartmouth College in 1796, being the last surviving graduate of that class, and the oldest alumnus of the institution in the order of graduation.

March 27.—GOODRICH, Rev. CHAUNCEY, a Congregational clergyman, died in New Haven, Conn. He was the eldest son of Prof. Chauncey A. Goodrich, and was born in Mid

dletown, Conn., July 20, 1817; graduated at Yale College in 1837; after which he spent two years as private tutor and in the Theological Department of the College. In August, 1843, he was settled over the Trinitarian Congregational Church in Malden, Mass., and in 1849 became pastor of the Congregational Church in Watertown, Conn., which charge he relinquished in 1856, on account of an affection of the throat. From this time he resided in New Haven, engaged chiefly in literary labors, especially in connection with the revised edition of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. He also prepared for and read some valuable papers to the New-Haven Colony Historical Society, of which he was secretary.

March 27.—QUIN, JAMES M., M. D., a distinguished homœopathic physician, died at Morrisania, N. Y. He was born in New York, in 1806; graduated at Columbia College with honor, and was for a time Professor of Latin and Greek at the college. Subsequently he studied medicine, and, after a few years' practice, became a convert to the doctrines of Hahnemann. His specialties were the diseases of the throat and chest, in the treatment of which he became quite skillful. He was also an accomplished musician, and an acute critic of both music and painting.

March 29.—GRAY, JOHN, reputed to be the last surviving soldier of the Revolution, died in Noble County, Ohio, aged 106 years. He was born at Fairfax Court-house, January 6, 1762. At sixteen years of age, he entered the Continental Army, and served till the close of the war of our Independence. He removed to Ohio before it was a State, and remained there until his death. A few years since, Congress granted him a pension of \$500 per annum.

March 30.—HARTSTONE, ex-Commander HENRY J., formerly of the U. S. Navy, died in Paris, France. He was a native of South Carolina; entered the United States naval service in 1828, and became passed midshipman in 1835, his warrant dating from the previous year. In 1838 he was attached to the Wilkes Exploring Expedition, but only went with the expedition as far as Callao. The next year he was promoted to a lieutenancy, and performed duty in different positions until 1851, when he was attached to the United States Coast Survey. In 1855 he was promoted to be commander, and the same year performed the service for which he is most noted, the rescue of Dr. Kane and his party from the Arctic regions. He was afterward engaged in taking soundings for the Atlantic Cable. At the outbreak of the war, at which time he was waiting orders, he resigned his commission, and was employed by the insurgents, mostly in special service; but in 1862 he became insane, and unfitted for active life.

March 30.—PARKER, Colonel EDWARD GRIFFIN, a politician and author, died in New York City, aged 42 years. He was a native of Massachusetts, graduated at Yale College,

studied law in the office of Rufus Choate, and, having been admitted to the bar in 1849, practised his profession in Boston until the commencement of the late war. He also took an active part in politics, and served in both Houses of the Legislature. On the opening of the war he entered the service as captain on General Butler's staff, and subsequently was adjutant-general and chief of staff of General Martindale during the time that the latter commanded the Department of Washington. At the close of the war he settled in New York, and at the time of his death had charge of the American Literary Bureau of Reference. Colonel Parker was the author of "The Golden Age of American Oratory" (Boston, 1857), and "Reminiscences of Rufus Choate" (New York, 1860). He was also a contributor to some of the leading literary journals.

April 1.—ASHBURN, Col. GEORGE W., a member of the Constitutional Convention of Georgia. He was a native of Georgia, and from the beginning of the war had avowed himself a Union man, and hostile to secession. He raised a company (afterward enlarged to a regiment) of Southern loyalists, which he commanded. After the war he returned to his home in Muscogee County, Ga., and advocated boldly and fearlessly the congressional plan of reconstruction, and by so doing, as well as by his active loyalty during the war, incurred the hatred of the rebels of the vicinity. In the autumn of 1867 he was chosen a delegate to the Constitutional Convention, and rendered important services in shaping and perfecting the constitution of the State. Though naturally a man of impetuous temper, and given to expressing himself with great violence, he maintained during the session of the convention the utmost self-control, and was uniformly mild and forbearing toward those who opposed the convention. At length, finding that he could not be provoked into violence, his enemies determined to murder him, and at first attempted to charge the murder upon the Republicans, but an investigation promptly undertaken by order of General Meade showed conclusively who his murderers were, although they had meantime made their escape.

April 1.—PARKER, JAMES, a prominent and philanthropic citizen of New Jersey, died at Perth Amboy, aged 92 years. He entered public life in 1806, as a member of the Assembly for Middlesex County, having been elected on the Federal ticket. His terms of service were continuous during all the sessions between 1806 and 1819, excepting that of 1811; and again, after a retirement of eight years, he consented for a special purpose to serve in the session of 1827-'28. During his legislative career Mr. Parker originated or perfected many important measures that have resulted greatly to the advantage of the public interests. Among them may be mentioned the establishment of the School Fund, which he labored during several sessions to effect, and at last with success,

the provisions of the laws as they now are, regulating the partition of real estate, and the allowing of aliens to hold real estate. The law which, in 1819, put a final stop to the local slave-trade, originated with him.

April 4.—SMYTHE, Prof. WILLIAM E., an accomplished scholar and teacher, Professor at Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me., died suddenly in Brunswick.

April 5.—HOWELL, Rev. ROBERT BOTLE C., D. D., an eminent Baptist clergyman and author, died at Nashville, Tenn., aged 67 years.

April 5.—MAGEE, JOHN, a wealthy and prominent citizen of Watkins, N. Y., died there, aged 74 years. He was a native of New York, and was a Representative from that State in Congress from 1827 to 1831, as a Jacksonian Democrat. He was one of the chief promoters of the Conhocton Valley Railroad, and a large owner of coal-mines in Pennsylvania. His fortune was estimated at \$400,000,000.

April 5.—STACY, Rev. NATHANIEL, an eminent and veteran Universalist minister, died in Columbus, Pa., aged 90 years. He was born in Massachusetts in 1778, studied theology with Rev. Hosea Ballou, at Dana, Mass., and commenced preaching in 1802. In 1805 he removed to New York State, and, after laboring there some years, preached in Pennsylvania, Michigan, and other parts of the country, much of the time being a pioneer in his denomination.

April 8.—BATCHELDER, JOHN PUTNAM, M. D., an eminent physician of New York City, President of the New York Academy of Medicine; died in New York. He was born in Milton, N. H., August 6, 1784, and was a great-nephew of General Israel Putnam. After a very thorough academical education, he commenced the study of medicine, and in 1807 was licensed to practise. He did not graduate and receive the degree of M. D., however, until 1815, when, after attendance on the lectures of Harvard University Medical School, he received his diploma. He commenced practice in Charlestown, N. H., removed thence to Pittsfield, Mass.; afterward to Utica, N. Y., and in 1843 to New York City. He was appointed Professor of Anatomy in Castleton College, Vt., in 1817, and soon after Professor of Surgical Anatomy in the Berkshire Medical Institution at Pittsfield. He was a successful surgeon, and performed many operations of great extent, and requiring extraordinary skill and daring. For many years he made the treatment of diseases of the eye a speciality. He published four small medical treatises, besides numerous essays, etc., in medical periodicals. He was President of the Academy of Medicine and of the New York Medical Association in 1858.

April 8.—LUNDY, Rev. FRANCIS JAMES, D. C. L., an Episcopal clergyman, died suddenly while engaged in his ministerial duties at St. Paul's Church, Newburg. He was a native of England, and graduated at Oxford, where he

received the degree of D. C. L. In 1836 he emigrated to Canada, and, having held several distinguished appointments in that country, went to New York in 1865 for the purpose of engaging in literary pursuits. Subsequently he took charge of Christ Church in Elizabeth, N. J., and had been but a short time in charge of the church at Newburg.

April 8.—PRENTISS, Commodore GEORGE ALDRICH, U. S. Navy, died near Charleston, S. C., aged nearly 60 years. He was a native of New Hampshire (second son of John Prentiss, of Keene, formerly editor of the *New Hampshire Sentinel*, now the oldest living editor in the United States), and entered the service as midshipman, March 1, 1825, from that State, and was first on duty at the Portsmouth Navy Yard. In 1827 he served in the sloop-of-war Lexington. After a three years' cruise he returned to the United States, and enjoyed a brief leave of absence, meanwhile being made a passed midshipman, June 4, 1831. The same year he was ordered to the sloop-of-war Boston, in the Mediterranean. He was promoted to a lieutenantcy, February 9, 1837; was attached to the receiving-ship Ohio, at Boston, in 1843; was made commander September 14, 1845, and was made commodore on the retired list July 16, 1860.

April 9.—BARTLETT, GEORGE, an eminent scholar and scientific journalist of New York, died in Providence, R. I. He was a gentleman of rare accomplishments and his scientific articles were copied in the first scientific journals of Europe. In the variety of his learning he had few equals.

April 11.—DORSHEIMER, PHILIP, formerly State Treasurer of New York, died in Buffalo, N. Y., aged 71 years. He had been a resident of Buffalo for nearly forty years, and had acquired a wide reputation as the proprietor of one of the leading hotels in that city. In politics he was a Democrat, until the organization of the Republican party, with which he at once identified himself, and became an active and influential member of that party. For many years he held the office of postmaster, and latterly that of collector of internal revenue for his district.

April 12.—COOK, JAMES M., formerly State Comptroller for New York, died in Saratoga, aged 60 years. He had for many years borne an active and honorable part in the political history of the State. After filling several important positions, he was elected to the State Senate in 1848; was reelected in 1850, and subsequently was chosen Comptroller, in which responsible position he exhibited the same capacity that had elsewhere won for him the highest respect and commendation. Upon the disorganization of the Whig party, with which he had always been identified, he united with the Republican party, in whose conventions and public movements he bore a conspicuous part. In 1864 he was again in the Senate.

April 16.—HALL, GEORGE, former Mayor of Brooklyn L. I., died in that city. He was born September 21, 1795, and was a printer by trade. The greater portion of his active life was devoted to the interests of Brooklyn, of which he was a trustee at the time it was incorporated as a city, and under the act of incorporation became its first mayor. In 1854 he was again elected mayor. He early took a strong stand for the cause of temperance, to which reform he devoted the best energies of his life. His philanthropy was one of the most prominent features of his character, and his generosity toward the needy often led him to be unjust to himself. His unflinching integrity and nobleness of purpose won the respect and love of all classes of the community.

April 17.—HOMANS, JOHN, M. D., an eminent and skilful physician of Boston, Mass., died in that city. He was born in Boston in 1793; studied at Phillips Academy, Andover; graduated at Harvard College in 1812; received his degree of M. D. in 1815, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Worcester, where he remained one or two years. From thence he removed to Brookfield, Mass., where he practised until 1829, when he returned to Boston. For several years he was president of the Massachusetts Medical Society.

April 23.—FIELD, JONATHAN EDWARDS, an eminent lawyer of Massachusetts, died at Stockbridge, Mass. He was a son of Dr. D. D. Field, and was born in Connecticut, July 11, 1813; graduated at Williams College in 1832 with the second honor of his class, and immediately after commenced the study of law in the office of his brother, David Dudley Field, New York. At the age of twenty he removed to Michigan, and soon after began the practice of law at Ann Arbor, and was one of the secretaries of the convention which accepted the act of Congress for the admission of Michigan into the Union. His health failing, after five years he returned to Stockbridge in 1839, where he resided until his death, engaged in the practice of his profession, and serving the public in several capacities at different times. In 1854 he was appointed by Governor Washburn, under an act of the Legislature, one of a commission to report a plan for the revision and consolidation of the statutes of Massachusetts. He served also as a member of the Massachusetts Senate in 1855, 1863, '64, and '65, and was for three terms president of that body, an honor never before conferred on one of its members. His courteous yet dignified manners and his profound legal attainments secured for him the respect and esteem of the members of the legal profession, and in the community in which he resided his death was universally regarded as a great public loss.

April 25.—BRONSON, CHARLES P., a noted lecturer on physiology and elocution, died in New York City aged 66 years. He was for

many years a teacher in elocution, and was the author of a work on elocution which had a circulation of 125,000 copies. The principal work of his later life was the preparation of a Bible, so printed as to show accent, rhetorical pauses, and emphatic words. This immense labor is complete, but has not yet been published.

April 25.—BUEL, HON. ALEXANDER W., died in Detroit, Mich. He was born in Rutland County, Vt., in 1813; graduated at Middlebury College in 1830, studied law, and in 1834 removed his residence to Michigan. In 1836 he was attorney for the city of Detroit; in 1837 was elected to the State Legislature, and again in 1847, and 1849 to 1851 was a Representative in Congress from Michigan, serving on the Committee on Foreign Affairs.

April 25.—MASON, REV. HENRY M., D. D., an Episcopal clergyman, died at Easton, Md. He had been rector of Christ Church in that town for thirty years.

April.—WARD, HORATIO, a banker of well-known philanthropy, died in London. He was a native of New York, but had resided many years in London. He left \$100,000 to the National Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Washington, D. C., and \$100,000 for the benefit of orphans made by the late war.

May 3.—PITTS, SAMUEL, editor of the *Detroit Advertiser*, died in Detroit, Mich., aged 58 years. He was born at Fort Preble, Portland harbor, Maine; graduated at Harvard College in the class of 1830; studied law, and practised his profession in Detroit twelve years. He subsequently engaged extensively in the manufacture of pine lumber, and withdrew entirely from his profession. He built up a very large business, realizing therefrom a handsome fortune.

May 3.—STOHLMANN, REV. CHARLES F. E., D. D., an eminent Lutheran clergyman, died in New York, aged 58 years. He was born near Buckeburg, Schaumburg-Lippe, in 1810, and emigrated to this country in 1833. For thirty years he was pastor of the St. Matthew's German Evangelical Lutheran Church in New York. He was widely known as a writer in the *Lutheran Herald*, and other German papers.

May 4.—RIPLEY, Miss MARIANNE, an eminent teacher and scholar, sister of George Ripley, died in Milwaukee, Wis. She was born in Greenfield, Mass., received a good New-England education, and was for some years the assistant of her father, who was engaged in the mercantile business. About the year 1836 she commenced teaching. Subsequently she joined her brother and some of his friends, who afterward became eminent in literature, in that utopian enterprise, the Brook Farm community, and gave to it her best energies and her most earnest labor. When this enterprise had utterly failed, she went to Concord, Mass. (in 1848), and opened a school, which was highly successful, until she was obliged to

abandon it in consequence of ill health. In 1865 she removed to Milwaukee, where she remained until her death. She was a woman of high intellectual attainments, and her sympathies were deeply enlisted in the cause of education.

May 5.—RIDGLEY, Commodore DANIEL B., U. S. Navy, died in Philadelphia, Pa. He was a native of Kentucky, but a resident of Baltimore. He entered the service in 1828, and was made commodore in 1866.

May 8.—POPE, Judge BURRELL THOMAS, died in Gadsden, Ala. He was born in Oglethorpe County, Ga., January 7, 1813; studied law in the office of Judge Clayton, of Athens, Ga., and was admitted to the bar in 1836. The following year he removed to Wetumpka, Ala., where he practised his profession until 1844, when he removed to Ashville, continuing his practice until 1867. From thence he went to Gadsden, Ala., where in the summer of 1867 he was appointed Judge of the Twelfth Judicial Circuit of Alabama by Major-General Pope, which office he filled faithfully and efficiently until his death.

May 12.—HARRINGTON, GEORGE N. ("George Christy"), a "negro minstrel" of decided talent, died in New York City, aged 40 years. He was born in Palmyra, N. Y. In 1847 he joined the Christy troupe, whose name he was induced to take, and very soon became one of the most popular minstrel performers in the profession. He visited California, and realized large profits from his performances, but his free and generous nature prevented him from accumulating property.

May 15.—WALCOT, CHARLES M., Senior, a comic actor and dramatic writer of much ability, died in Philadelphia, Pa., aged 60 years. He was a native of England, and studied his profession in his own country, but entered upon its practice in America. He won for himself much popularity in New York at the old Olympic Theatre and at Wallack's, as well as in different parts of the country. In 1866 he removed his residence to Philadelphia. Mr. Walcot was a very prolific playwright as well as a popular actor. Among his numerous dramas were the following: "Hiawatha, or Ardent Spirits and Laughing Water," "Washington," "Don Giovanni in Gotham," "David Copperfield," "Richard III. to Kill," "The Customs of the Country," and "Snip-Snaps."

May 19.—DEACON, BENAJAH, U. S. Marshal for New Jersey, died at Mount Holly, N. J. He was appointed to his office during President Lincoln's first term.

May 19.—WICK, Judge WILLIAM W., died in Franklin County, Ohio. He was born in Canonsburg, Washington County, Pa., February 23, 1796. He received a classical education, and was pursuing a collegiate course, when the death of his father threw him upon his own resources; he then devoted himself to teaching, giving his leisure hours to the study of medicine until 1818, when he was induced to adopt

the law as his profession. In 1820 he located for practice in Fayette County, Ind., and was the same year Assistant Clerk in the House of Representatives, and the following year Assistant Secretary of the State Senate. In 1822 he was President Judge of the Fifth Judicial District; in 1825 Secretary of State; in 1829, Attorney for the State; in 1839, a Representative in Congress, also in 1845 and 1847; in 1850, President Judge, and subsequently postmaster at Indianapolis four years. He served in the State militia as brigadier-general, quartermaster and adjutant-general. In 1867 he resumed the practice of his profession.

May 21.—DYCKMAN, Colonel GARRETT W., U. S. Volunteers, died in New York City. He was a native of New York, and commenced his military career in the Mexican War, which he entered as captain of Company K, First New York Volunteers, and participated in the siege of Vera Cruz, the battles of National Bridge, Cerro Gordo, where he was severely wounded in the shoulder, Contreras, etc., and was also engaged in the reduction of the city of Mexico. At the close of the war he was brevetted colonel for bravery and meritorious conduct; and on his return home he was elected Register of the County of New York. During the late war he served as lieutenant-colonel of the First New York Volunteers, and, on the retirement of Colonel Allen, succeeded to the colonelcy.

May 21.—LYON, Rev. JOHN C., a Methodist clergyman, author, and scholar, died at Catonsville, Baltimore County, Md., aged 66 years. He was the founder of the German Methodist Church in America, and was a minister of that church over forty years. He was a fine scholar and linguist, and the author of several theological works of note, and translator of many theological writers.

May 22.—FAGAN, Rev. PETER C., a Roman Catholic priest, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 34 years. He was well known for his charitable and philanthropic nature. At the time of his death he was pastor of St. Patrick's Church, Brooklyn.

May 27.—L'HERITIER, ANDRÉ, an editor and scholar, died in New York City, aged 28 years. He was a native of Paris, and, after completing his education at the Lycée Bonaparte, embraced the profession of journalism, and soon distinguished himself as an elegant writer. In 1858 he accepted an appointment as secretary to the French company whose intention was to cut a canal through the Isthmus of Nicaragua. The undertaking proving a failure, he returned to New York after two years' sojourn in the tropics, with shattered health, from which he never recovered. For the last four years of his life he was managing editor of the *Courrier des États Unis*.

May 31.—MCMURRAY, WILLIAM, a prominent New York official, died in that city. About 1853 he was elected State Senator from the fourth district, and served one term in the Le-

gislature. In 1864 he received from Governor Seymour the appointment of Commissioner of the Board of Metropolitan Police, and Treasurer of that Board, until 1866.

June 3.—SILLIMAN, GOLD SELLECK, an eminent lawyer and citizen of Brooklyn, L. I., died in that city, aged 91 years. He was a son of Gold Selleck Silliman, and an elder brother of Professor Benjamin Silliman, and was born in Fairfield, Conn., October 26, 1777, graduated with high honors at Yale College in the class of 1766; studied law, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Newport, R. I. In 1815 he removed to New York City, and entered into commercial business. On retiring from this, at an advanced age, he was appointed postmaster of Brooklyn, which office he retained several years.

June 6.—BULLITT, ALEXANDER C., a Kentuckian journalist, died at Louisville, Ky., aged 60 years. He was a native of Louisville, but removed to New Orleans about 1833, and soon after became editor of the *New Orleans Bee*, which under his management became an able and influential organ of the Whig party. In 1844 he assumed the proprietorship of the *Delta*. In 1848, in the struggle for the election of General Taylor, he took a leading position in the field of politics, and contributed with his pen to the success of General Taylor. He went to Washington with the incoming administration and took the editorial charge of the *Republic*, the organ of the Whig policy. On the death of General Taylor, Mr. Bullitt retired from the active duties of the press, and spent four years in European travel. From that period his contributions to the press were few.

June 8.—CUSHING, General STEPHEN B., formerly Attorney-General of the State of New York, died in New York, aged 55 years. He was educated for the law, and practised his profession in Ithaca, Tompkins County, N. Y., which county he represented in the State Assembly in 1852. In 1855 he was elected Attorney-General by the American party, and after the completion of his term resumed the practice of law in New York. He was an able jurist, and gifted with fine oratorical powers.

June 9.—MARSH, MARVIN M., M. D., a distinguished teacher and philanthropist, died at Carson, Ohio, aged 56 years. He was born in Pompey, N. Y., graduated at Hamilton College, Clinton, in 1836, with honor, and immediately commenced teaching in the Academy at Manlius, and afterward at Eaton, N. Y. Turning his attention to the study of medicine, he graduated honorably at the Albany Medical College in 1841, and entered upon his profession with so much zeal and devotion that he was prostrated by a dangerous attack of sickness in 1843, from the effects of which his constitution never fully rallied. During the late war he accepted from the U. S. Sanitary Commission the position of chief agent and general inspector in the department of the South. Into

this work he threw all his energies, and for more than two years, though broken in health, labored with unflagging zeal. At the close of the war, he was directed by the Commission to take charge of the newly-organized "Lincoln Home," in New York City, a position for which he was eminently qualified. In the spring of 1867, Dr. Marsh was appointed professor in the newly-organized Rutgers Female College of New York, but declined the position. His death was indirectly the result of being thrown from his carriage, which, in his enfeebled condition, gave a shock to his system from which he could not rally.

June 10.—CASE, Rev. JOEL TITUS, a Presbyterian clergyman, and editor; died at Victoria, Texas, aged 65 years. He was born in Ohio. After leaving college, he was an editor in Mobile, Ala., and subsequently in Galveston, Texas. In 1841 he accompanied the famous Santa Fé Expedition as geological journalist; but, through the treachery of the officers in command of his company, he was captured by the Mexicans and carried to Mexico, where he was imprisoned three months in chains. He effected his escape, and, returning to Mobile, resumed his editorial labors. In 1848 he returned to his native State, and, having pursued a course of theological study, received ordination in the Presbyterian Church (O. S.). He began his ministry in Texas, but, his health failing, he engaged in teaching, and was so occupied until his death.

June 11.—THOMAS, Rev. BENJAMIN C., a Baptist clergyman, and missionary to Burmah, died in New York City. He was a native of New Hampshire, and was by trade a carpenter, but upon his conversion decided to study for the ministry, and entered the academy at Worcester, Mass., graduated at Brown University, in 1847, and completed his theological course at Newton. Having been designated for the Karen mission at Tavoy, he was ordained in October, 1850, and sailed, with his wife, for Calcutta. His labors were constant, and extended over a period of eighteen years. In October, 1866, the missionary convention, at Rangoon, assigned him a new field of labor, the charge of the churches at Bassein; but, after a year of severe toil, his health demanded his immediate return to the United States, and he died the week of his arrival in New York.

June 12.—GARNER, PETER M., a pioneer in the antislavery movement, died in Columbus, Ohio, aged 58 years. In 1845, with two other citizens, he was seized by Virginians and taken to Richmond, and held in close confinement six months, on a charge of assisting slaves to escape from their bondage, at the end of which time he was released on his own recognizance.

June 15.—BRADLEY, WARREN IVES, better known as "Glance Gaylord," a gifted young author, died at Bristol, Conn., aged 21 years. His education was conducted by his uncle,

Prof. Newton Manross, under whose tuition he made rapid progress in literature and science. Within a space of three or four years he gave to the public thirteen books, besides numerous articles for papers and magazines. His "Culm Rock" took a prize of \$350, over seventy-two competitors. He was a young man of remarkable purity of character, and refinement of taste and feeling, but his physical strength was far from being commensurate with his mental vigor.

June 16.—ALLEN, HON. WILLIAM STICKNEY, an editor, formerly Secretary of the Territory of New Mexico, died in Franklin County, Mo. He was born in Newburyport, Mass., in April, 1805; studied at Phillips Academy, Mass., and graduated at Dartmouth College with honor, at the age of nineteen. In 1832 he represented the County of Essex, in the Massachusetts Legislature, and for nearly twelve years edited the *Newburyport Herald*. In 1837 he removed to Missouri, and was connected with different papers until 1856, when he took charge of the *St. Louis Republican*, with which he was connected until his death. In 1849 he was appointed Registrar of the Land-Office, under General Taylor's administration, and soon after was in the Missouri Legislature. In 1851 he was appointed Secretary of the Territory of New Mexico, under Fillmore's administration, and in 1855 was elected Justice of the St. Louis County Court.

June 17.—WALBRIDGE, HON. DAVID S., died in Kalamazoo, Mich. He was born in Bennington, Vt., July 30, 1802, received his education in the common schools of the town, and afterward was merchant and miller. In 1842 he moved to Michigan, and represented that State in Congress, from 1854 to 1859, entering the House as a Democrat, but disagreeing with the Democracy on the Territorial question, and joining the movement which led to the organization of the Republican party. From the period of Mr. Walbridge's resignation of his seat in Congress, to that of his death, he lived in retirement.

June 18.—COLLINS, MRS. SARAH, a venerable lady of Westfield, N. J., died there, aged 102 years. She retained her intellectual and physical faculties until a short time previous to her decease.

June 19.—DOTY, JOSEPH M., a journalist, died at Jacksonville, Fla. He was born at Martinsburg, Lewis County, N. Y., in April, 1820, but passed his early life at Ogdensburg; graduated at Union College, studied law, and was admitted to the bar. In 1844 he was appointed postmaster of Ogdensburg, and retained that position several years, when he resigned. Having had some experience in journalism, he removed, in 1847, to Buffalo, where he became connected with the *Courier*. Subsequently he was editor of the *Fernandina Courier*, in Florida, and the latter part of his life devoted himself to horticultural pursuits.

June 21.—TALCOTT, ENOCH B., died in Utica,

N. Y. He was born at Herkimer, N. Y., April 30, 1811; graduated at Union College, in 1836; studied law, and, on his admission to the bar, removed to Oswego, and entered upon the practice of his profession. In the years 1844-1848 he ably represented his senatorial district, then composed of the counties of Oneida, Oswego, Madison, Lewis, Jefferson, and Otsego, in the State Senate, which then, also, sat as a Court of Errors. In 1852 he was appointed collector of the port of Oswego, by President Pierce, and held that position for four years, discharging its duties with fidelity, and to entire satisfaction. He then resumed the practice of law. In the spring of 1866, Mr. Talcott removed to Utica, where he remained till his death.

June 22.—BRINSMADE, THOMAS C., M. D., an eminent physician of Troy, former President of the N. Y. State Medical Society, died suddenly at Troy, aged 65 years. He was Vice-President of the American Medical Society, President of the State Medical Society in 1867, and was one of the delegates to the Paris Scientific Congress in 1867. He was also President of the Board of Directors of the "Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute," and had for years taken a deep interest in its growth and success. As a physician, Dr. Brinsmade stood in the very front rank of his profession in the States.

June 22.—KIMBALL, HEBER C., one of the Mormon leaders, a member of the First Presidency, and next in authority to Brigham Young, died at Salt Lake City, aged 67 years. Of his early life little is known, till 1837, when he became a convert at Kirtland, Ohio, and was soon after sent with Orson Hyde, since assassinated, as a missionary to England for the new faith. On his return, a year afterward, he joined his fortunes with the Mormons in Ray County, Mo., and with that peculiar people bore persecutions and expulsions from that State and from Illinois, till the pilgrimage to Salt Lake inaugurated for the society comparative peace and decided prosperity. At this place he arrived in the autumn of 1846, and was made the head priest of the order of Melchisedek, with the religious title of Elder Kimball. From that time, till his death, he expounded Mormonism, inculcating, both by precept and by example, the peculiar views of that body.

June 26.—POE, ADAM, D. D., an eminent Methodist clergyman, died in Cincinnati, Ohio. He was born in Columbia County, Ohio, in 1804. His early years were spent upon his father's farm, and his education was obtained at the schools in the neighborhood, and under the direction of a Presbyterian clergyman, to whom he was greatly indebted for his literary tastes and the subsequent path of study which he followed. In 1827 he entered the ministry, and engaged heartily in the pioneer work, until, in 1835, he was made presiding elder. In 1852 he was elected assistant agent of the Western

Book Concern, and in 1860 principal agent. To this office he was reelected in 1864, and only his failing health in 1868 prevented his being commissioned again.

June 29.—**HOLE-IN-THE-DAY**, a distinguished Indian chief, head of the Chippewa tribe, was assassinated by Indians at his residence at Crow Wing, Minnesota, aged 40 years. He was a man of great influence, and one of the wealthiest men in Minnesota, his property being estimated at about \$2,000,000. At the commencement of the late Indian war in Minnesota, when some of the young Chippewa warriors were disposed to join the murderous Sioux in their assaults upon the whites, Hole-in-the-Day proved himself to be the friend of the white man, and by his eloquence and great influence restrained his people from aiding the Sioux, and persuaded them to espouse the cause of the white man. During one of his visits in Washington, upon his business as chief, he became interested in an Irish woman, whom he afterward married.

June 29.—**MOISE, E. WARREN**, a prominent politician of Louisiana, died at Jefferson City, aged 57 years. He was a native of Charleston, S. C., whence he emigrated to Woodville, Miss., and for a time engaged in the practice of medicine. Subsequently he removed to New Orleans, La., and took up the practice of law. He served several terms in the Legislature, in the Democratic interest, was repeatedly Speaker in the House, and was at one time Attorney-General of the State. After the secession of the State in 1861, he was Circuit Judge.

July 2.—**BAKER**, Brigadier-General **LAFAYETTE O.**, chief of the detective force during the late civil war, died in Philadelphia, Pa., aged 42 years. He was born at Stafford, Genesee County, N. Y., October, 1826. When twelve years of age he emigrated to Michigan with his father's family, but upon attaining his majority removed to New York City, where he remained till 1850, and then went to Philadelphia. In 1853 he migrated to California, and, when the state of society rendered the organization of a Vigilance Committee necessary, he was prominent among its members, his efforts contributing much to the final establishment of law and order in the State. In 1861 Colonel Baker returned to New York City, and during the late civil war was placed at the head of the secret detective service, his subsequent success proving him to be eminently qualified for that position. He was the author of a work on the Detective Service.

July 2.—**BOYD, JOHN H.**, died at Whitehall, N. Y. He was a native of New York, and a Representative in Congress from that State from 1851 to 1853. In 1840 he was a member of the State Assembly, from Washington County.

July 2.—**VAN BUREN**, Major **LAWRENCE**, died in Kinderhook, N. Y., aged 85 years. He was a brother of President Van Buren, and

was for many years postmaster of Kinderhook.

July 6.—**HULL, A. COOKE, M. D.**, a distinguished homœopathic physician of Brooklyn, N. Y., died at his summer residence in Catskill, aged 50 years. He received his classical education at Union College, N. Y., and subsequently graduated at the College of Physicians and Surgeons in New York. About 1848 he removed to Brooklyn, where he soon obtained an extensive practice, and became identified with the welfare and progress of the city. He was an eminent musical connoisseur, and, for many years, a prominent member of the Board of Directors of the Philharmonic Society. He was also a Director of the Academy of Music, Historical Society, and Art Association; and a member of the Board of Education. He was connected with the Homœopathic Society of Kings County, and was a regent of the Lunatic Asylum.

July 7.—**BENNETT, MILO LYMAN, LL. D.**, an eminent Vermont jurist, died in Taunton, Mass., aged 78 years. He was a native of Sharon, Connecticut; studied at Williams College and also Yale College, where he graduated in the class of 1811. He studied law at the Litchfield Law School, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Burlington, Vt., where he continued to reside until his death. Rapidly rising in his profession, he became, in 1839, one of the Associate Justices of the Supreme Court of the State, and retained that position for twenty years. As a judge he was careful and patient, prompt in his decisions, not very popular with evil-doers, but much respected by his brethren of the bench and bar. He was the author of several legal textbooks, the last of which was the "Vermont Justice." Judge Bennett received the degree of LL. D. from Dartmouth College, in 1851.

July 7.—**CAGGER, PETER**, a prominent Democratic politician and political leader of the State of New York, was killed by being thrown from his carriage in the Central Park, New York, aged 53 years. He was born in Albany, N. Y., of Irish parentage, was educated at St. John's (Fordham) and Montreal Colleges, and commenced the study of law at an early age. Entering upon the practice of his profession, he subsequently enlarged his plans for business, the firm becoming "Hill, Cagger, and Porter," afterward known as one of the most successful law firms in the State. By his devotion to his profession, Mr. Cagger accumulated a large fortune, and liberally dispensed to the needy and helpless. Though seeking no political office himself, he exerted a powerful influence in politics.

July 7.—**COLES, EDWARD**, one of the early Governors of Illinois, died at his residence in Philadelphia. He was born in Albemarle County, Virginia, December 15, 1786; graduated at William and Mary College, Va., in 1807, and in 1810 was appointed private secretary to President Madison, with whom he remained

six years. In 1817 he was sent to Russia by Mr. Madison, on a diplomatic mission, as auxiliary to the resident minister, to adjust certain difficulties that had arisen, either while James A. Bayard or William R. King was ambassador to that country. Returning in the following year, he soon after removed to Illinois, taking with him his slaves, whom he liberated. In 1822 he was elected Governor of Illinois, and served until 1826. Since 1833 he had resided in Philadelphia.

July 7.—FREEMAN, EDMUND B., an eminent jurist of North Carolina, died at Raleigh, aged 73 years. He was for thirty-five years Clerk of the Supreme Court of North Carolina, and no man in that State was more familiar with the statutes and decisions of its courts than himself.

July 9.—DISOSWAY, GABRIEL P., an author and antiquarian, died at "The Clove," Staten Island, N. Y. He was of Huguenot origin, and was born in New York, December 6, 1799. He graduated at Columbia College. Having married in Virginia, he resided several years in Petersburg, but subsequently returned to New York and engaged in mercantile business. He was a man of fine literary attainments, and a frequent contributor to the newspaper and periodical press. He was one of the founders of Randolph Macon College, Va., was a prominent member of the New York Historical Society, and an efficient manager of the American Bible Society.

July 11.—MILLER, Commodore JAMES F., U. S. Navy, died of African fever, at Charlestown, Mass. He was a son of General Miller, who distinguished himself at Lundy's Lane, and was born in New Hampshire, but became a citizen of Massachusetts, from which State he was appointed to the Navy in 1826. He cruised with Commodore Hull's squadron in the Mediterranean four years, and afterward went to the Western Coast of Africa, where he was prostrated by the African fever, from which he never fully recovered. He served in the Mexican War of 1848, and was afterward stationed off the coast of Brazil. In 1853 he was incapacitated from active service, and in 1855 was placed on the retired list. In 1861 he was made commodore.

July 12.—HOWARD, Colonel JOSHUA, U. S. A., a gallant soldier and formerly U. S. Marshal of Michigan; died at Detroit, Mich. He was born at Easton, Mass., April 17, 1793, and before the completion of his twentieth year was appointed third lieutenant in the 9th U. S. Infantry. In December, 1816, he was appointed second lieutenant of Ordnance, and ordered to the arsenal at Pittsburg, Pa. He afterward served at various posts, aided in the construction of two arsenals, and in 1834 received the commission of captain, resigning in 1835. In 1838 Captain Howard was elected a member of the Michigan Legislature, and was reelected in 1839. In 1841 he was appointed United States Marshal for the District of Mich-

igan, and served in that capacity until 1844, when he was removed by President Tyler. The Mexican War breaking out, he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of the 15th U. S. Infantry in 1847, and reached Vera Cruz with his regiment in June of that year. At the battle of Churubusco, Colonel Morgan, commanding the regiment, was disabled, and the command devolved upon Lieutenant-Colonel Howard. For gallant and meritorious service at the battle of Chapultepec he was made colonel by brevet, and served thereafter until the disbanding of his regiment in 1848. Colonel Howard was elected Sheriff of Wayne County in 1855, for a term of two years, and served as paymaster in the United States Army from June 1, 1861, to July 31, 1865.

July 14.—HOWARD, Rev. HOSEA, a Baptist clergyman and formerly missionary to Burmah, died in Bloomington, Ill. He was born in West Springfield, Mass., October 30, 1799, studied for the ministry in Hamilton, N. Y., and was ordained in April, 1834, sailing for Burmah in July of the same year. After laboring three years in Rangoon and thirteen years in Maulmain, ill-health compelled his return to this country in 1850. He resided in New York, Pittsfield, Mass., and a short time in Missouri, but in 1858 removed to Bloomington, Ill., where he remained until his death.

July 14.—MATHER, HIRAM FOOT, died in Chicago, Ill. He was born in Colchester, Conn., February 13, 1796, graduated at Yale College in 1813, studied theology at the Andover Seminary two years, but, afterward turning his attention to the law, studied at Auburn, and commenced the practice of his profession at Elbridge, N. Y. From 1828 to 1832 he was a member of the State Senate, during the time when it constituted the Supreme Court of Errors, and from this circumstance obtained his title of Judge. In 1844 he removed to Niles, Michigan, and in 1853 to Chicago, continuing in the practice of law until his death.

July 15.—GANSEVOORT, Commodore GUERT C., U. S. N., died at Schenectady, N. Y. He was born in New York State in 1812, became a cadet in 1823, and was assigned active duty as a midshipman. He was a lieutenant on the brig Somers at the time when Commander Slidell Mackenzie arrested and executed young Spencer for mutiny, and was one of the council of officers who sustained and approved the course of the commanding officer. He rose to prominence during the Mexican War, in which he was actively engaged, and while in command of the John Adams distinguished himself. During the Indian war of 1856 he also made his mark, particularly at the battle of Sitka on the Pacific coast. For some time after the outbreak of the recent civil war he was chief of the Ordnance Department at the Brooklyn Navy Yard, and was subsequently in command of the iron-clad Roanoke. His last cruise expired in September, 1864, and on the 28th of September, 1866, he was commissioned a commodore, and

on the 28th of January, 1867, he was placed on the retired list. From that time Commodore Gansevoort spent most of his time "waiting orders," and was registered as at his residence in Schenectady. His total service in the navy comprised forty-five years, four months, and twelve days, of which eighteen years were spent at sea.

July 15.—MORTON, WILLIAM THOMAS GREEN, M. D., a celebrated dentist and the reputed discoverer of etherization, died suddenly in New York. He was a native of Charlton, Mass., born August, 19, 1819. He commenced the practice of dentistry in Boston in 1841, and about 1846 turned his attention to the use of *sulphuric ether* as an anæsthetic. His claims to the discovery were denied by other rivals for the honor, and his life was in some degree embittered by the protracted and zealous controversy of those claimants. He put forth a defence of his pretensions to the discovery in two volumes, one published in 1859 under the title of "Trials of a Public Benefactor," by Nathan P. Rice; the other prepared by Mr. C. S. Weyman, and which was just ready for publication at the time of his death.

July 16.—EVANS, HUGH DAVY, LL. D., an eminent jurist of Baltimore, died there, aged 76 years. Early bred to the law, and possessing a mind capable of grasping and delighting in its great principles, he took rank, while yet a young man, with the great lawyers of the Maryland bar; with Pinckney, and Wirt, and Thomas, and Reverdy Johnson, and attained a conspicuous position as a great constitutional lawyer. He was very active also in religious matters, and his counsels were greatly valued in the conventions of the Episcopal Church, in which he was a worthy communicant.

July 16.—HOOPER, JOHN W., a prominent jurist of Georgia, died in Dade County, aged 70 years. In 1833 he was appointed Judge of the Cherokee Circuit, which then embraced all the territory north of the Chattahoochee River, except, perhaps, Cobb County. In 1836 or 1837 he moved West, and was absent from the State some ten years. He always maintained a high and honorable position as a lawyer, and was a most excellent citizen in all the relations of life. He was remarkable for his warm-hearted kindness and the generosity of his disposition.

July 21.—FRENCH, ELI, a teacher, publisher, and book-collector, well known in Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, died in Portsmouth, N. H., aged 68 years. He was a native of Dummerston, Vt., and graduated at Dartmouth College in the class of 1827. On leaving college he took charge of the principal school of Dover, N. H., where he was eminently successful. But, love of books being his ruling passion, he devoted himself first at Dover, then at Philadelphia, and subsequently, for the past thirty-eight years in New York, to supplying public and private libraries with the choicest works; his fine scholarship and

thorough knowledge of literature rendering him peculiarly fitted for this work. As a collector of *rare books* at home and abroad he was unequalled, and in the prosecution of his duties he was brought in contact with many of the leading scholars in this country. He was a man of indefatigable industry, remarkable purity of character, and a cheerful, happy nature which kept him from depression through many years of severe physical suffering.

July 21.—WEEKS, JOSEPH, an eminent New York merchant, died in Islip, Long Island, at the advanced age of 97 years. He was born in New York in 1771, and entered the mercantile business in that city about 1788. It was his fortune to be personally acquainted with Lafayette, Pulaski, Kosciuszko, Washington, Greene, Wayne, and many other officers of the Revolution. His mother was descended from the Huguenots, and spoke the French and English languages with equal fluency. While our French allies were encamped in an orchard connected with his estate, she was often seen walking with Washington and Lafayette, acting as an interpreter. When the British evacuated the city, November 25, 1783, Mr. Weeks was twelve years old, and he assisted in hauling down the British flag at the Battery.

July 22.—FROST, Judge EDWARD, formerly Judge of the Supreme Court of South Carolina, died in Charleston, aged 67 years. He was a native of that city, and having been admitted to the bar in 1823, entered upon the practice of his profession under the most favorable auspices. At an early period of his life he represented Charleston in the Legislature, and was twice elected chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the House. His administration of its important functions was marked by ability, learning, and judgment, and commanded the applause and unqualified consideration of the distinguished lawyers who were from time to time his colleagues in that committee. As an evidence of the estimation in which he was held by the bar, and the people of the State, after twenty years' practice of his profession he was elevated, in the year 1843, to the bench of the Supreme Court of the State, until 1853, when he retired to private life.

July 25.—WRIGHT, Mrs., a venerable lady of Watertown, N. Y., died at the age of 102 years.

July 28.—NOYES, JOSEPH C., died in Portland, Me. He was born in that city, in 1798, and was a merchant by occupation. He was a Representative in Congress, from Maine, from 1837 to 1839, serving as a member of the Committee on Agriculture. From 1841 to 1843 he was Collector of the Passamaquoddy District, and was subsequently Treasurer of the Portland Savings Bank.

Aug. 2.—DRAPER, HENRY, director of English opera comique and classical concerts, died in Providence, R. I. He had studied music in France and Italy, and was

considered one of the best baritone singers in this country.

Aug. 3.—**BREWSTER, CHARLES W.**, editor and publisher, died in Portsmouth, N. H., aged 67 years. He commenced life as an apprentice in the office of the *Portsmouth Journal*, to which paper he devoted his attention for more than half a century, thirty-five years of which he was its proprietor. He served several terms in the State Legislature, and was a member of the last Constitutional Convention. Mr. Brewster was the author of an interesting volume entitled "Fifty Years in a Printing-Office."

Aug. 3.—**WILSON, JOHN**, an eminent American printer, died in Cambridge, Mass., aged 66 years. He was born in Glasgow, Scotland, where he learned his trade. He was the author of a very useful work on punctuation, and published several treatises on Unitarianism. His taste and the execution of his work were admirable, and he ranked as one of the very best printers in the U. S. He was also a remarkably accurate and critical proof-reader, and authors of important historical, classical, or scientific works often stipulated that their books should be set up and printed by him, that they might have the advantage of his critical examination. The degree of A. B. was conferred upon him by Harvard College.

Aug. 4.—**WAU-NE-PE-WINK-A** (Pretty Bird), an Indian princess, daughter of the Winnebago chief, Dandy, died at Tunnel City, Wis., from injuries received by being run over by the cars at La Crosse. Seeing one of her children in imminent danger of being crushed by a locomotive, she sprang, with a mother's instinct, and saved it by the sacrifice of her own life.

Aug. 5.—**GELSTON, Captain ROLAND**, died in San Francisco, Cal., aged 67 years. He commanded the first square-rigged craft that ever ascended the Sacramento River, and upon arriving at Sacramento, in April, 1849, he gathered together what books and tracts he had on shipboard, and, collecting the few children he saw, held the first Sunday-school in that region. Soon afterward he established a commercial house, and in the course of a few years acquired a large fortune, with which he returned to New York. Meeting with reverses, he returned to California in 1860, but soon after lost his health, which he never fully regained.

Aug. 5.—**KING, YELVERTON P.**, formerly minister to New Grenada, died in Greene County, Ga. He was born in that county, in 1794, and, after receiving a law course, was admitted to the Ocmulgee bar. He was State Superintendent of the public lands in 1830, during the controversy between the State and Federal Governments, as to the right of jurisdiction over the Cherokees then occupying those lands; was frequently a member of the Legislature, was one of the electors who cast the vote of Georgia for Taylor and

Fillmore in 1848, and was, in 1850, appointed by President Fillmore minister to New Grenada, where he represented the United States acceptably for two years, resigning at the end of that time on account of his ill-health. His last public service was as a member of the Georgia Constitutional Convention in 1865.

Aug. 11.—**MENKEN, ADAH ISAACS**, a noted actress, died in Paris, aged 36 years. She was a native of New Orleans; her father, Ricardo Fuertos, being a Spanish Jew, and her mother, a native of Bordeaux. Her maiden name was Dolores Adios Fuertos. About the year 1856 she married Mr. John Isaacs Menken. Subsequently, she married Mr. Robert H. Newell, of the New York *Sunday Mercury*, which alliance, like several others, was speedily followed by a separation. In 1860 she was introduced to the New York stage, and during the early part of the late civil war filled several engagements in the Southern States. Subsequently she went to London, and accepted an engagement at Astley's. She also played in Paris, to crowded houses. She was the author of a volume of poems entitled "Infelicia."

Aug. 11.—**WADE, General MELANCTHON**, a brigadier-general of volunteers in the late war, died at Avondale, Mo., aged 66 years. He was of Revolutionary stock, his father having been imprisoned in the Jersey Prison-ship and the old Sugar-house in New York. He had taken a deep interest in military affairs from early youth, and had risen to a brigadier-generalship in the Ohio militia about 1840, and continued in command till 1849. He offered his services to the Government in 1861, was commissioned as brigadier-general of volunteers by President Lincoln, and was for some time in command of Camp Dennison. He was also a prominent member of the Pioneer Association.

Aug. 13.—**GLOINE, Count DE LA**, a colonel of the National Guard, under the first Napoleon, died in New York, aged 84 years. He was a descendant of one of the noblest families of France, but was driven from his native country during the first French Revolution, and resided for a long time in Austria. Returning to France early in the consulship of the Emperor Napoleon, he entered the National Guard, and attained the rank of colonel, and continued in the service until the overthrow of the empire. Having become involved in some difficulties, which resulted in a duel, he was forced to leave France, and, after a short residence in England, migrated to America, and subsequently lived in New York, upon an annuity which was left him from the estates of his mother.

Aug. 16.—**CARHART, JEREMIAH**, of the firm of Carhart & Needham, New York. Born in Dutchess County, N. Y., in September, 1813, his first years were spent upon a farm. A mechanic, however, by nature, he, at the age of fifteen years, left the farm, and learned cabinet-making, becoming a skilful workman, and especially an adept in the use of the lathe.

Removing to Buffalo, N. Y., he, in the ten years, 1836 to 1846, made several inventions. Those by which he is known are the exhaustion-bellows and tubular reed-board now used by all American makers of reed-instruments. Joined by Mr. E. P. Needham, who supplied the necessary financial ability, the firm established the manufacture of melodeons in Buffalo. He invented very ingenious machinery for making reeds and reed-boards, and they removed to New York City, and commenced this manufacture for the trade, adding that of melodeons and organs. His manners were genial, and his career in business quite successful.

Aug. 16.—COMSTOCK, Captain JOSEPH, long a popular commander of the Collins steamers, died in New York. He was well known as a careful, faithful, and vigilant seaman, and was selected by Mr. Webb to take the ram Dunderberg to France.

Aug. 17.—VANDERBILT, Mrs. SOPHIA, wife of Commodore Vanderbilt, died in New York, aged 73 years. She was a woman of uncommon loveliness of character, united to strength and energy of purpose, and much of her husband's success in business is owing to her early efforts as a helpmeet and counsellor.

Aug. 19.—BONNEY, Judge BENJAMIN WEST, a politician and jurist, died in New York, aged 68 years. He was a native of New Hampshire, and graduated at Dartmouth College, in the close of 1824. Having studied for the law, he was admitted to the bar of his State, and practised his profession more than forty years, and throughout his whole career enjoyed the confidence of a very large class of financial men in the State. He was one of the trustees of Dartmouth College, and one of the commissioners of the Board of Audit, from the date of its organization. In politics Judge Bonney was a Whig, and afterward a Republican. He was a man of unquestioned integrity, and eminently faithful in the discharge of his duties both public and private.

Aug. 22.—IRVING, EBENEZER, a brother of Washington Irving, died at Sunnyside, aged 93 years. He was a merchant by occupation, and manager of his brother's property. A man of the strictest integrity of character, and greatly beloved.

Aug. 25.—FINNEY, DARWIN A., a member of Congress from the fourth Pennsylvania district, died in Brussels, Belgium, while travelling in Europe for his health, aged 54 years. He was a native of Shrewsbury, Vt., but took up his residence in Pennsylvania while yet a young man. He graduated at Alleghany College, in Meadville, about 1841, and soon after commenced the practice of law in that place. He was originally a Whig, and on the demise of that party was an early champion of the Republican party. He represented his district two terms in the State Senate, serving one term as Speaker. After a protracted contest, he was nominated and elected to Congress in 1867. He was a man

of pure character, stern in integrity, faithful in his friendships, and generous in his impulses. As a lawyer, he had few equals in Western Pennsylvania.

Aug. 26.—MANN, JAMES, member of Congress from the second congressional district of Louisiana, died in New Orleans, aged 46 years. He was a native of Maine, and resided in Gorham many years, commencing life as a teacher. In politics he was a Democrat, and was honored by his party with positions in both branches of the Maine Legislature. When the war commenced he joined the Federal Army, having obtained a captain's commission in a Maine regiment. He immediately went into the field. Subsequently he was made paymaster, with the rank of major, and was assigned to duty in New Orleans, whither he went in 1863, remaining there until the close of the war. When the war had been closed, he was appointed by President Lincoln Treasury agent in connection with the customs, and subsequently by President Johnson Treasury agent in connection with the Department of Internal Revenue. These appointments indicate clearly the confidence that was placed by both Presidents in his ability and integrity. In 1867 Colonel Mann entered heartily into the attempt to reorganize the Democratic party in Louisiana, and worked strenuously to effect that object. His labors were so highly appreciated by his party that they rewarded his fidelity to the cause by nominating and electing him from the second congressional district of the State, in which capacity he served during the last session. His sincerity and honesty made for him friends, even among those who were opposed to him in their political views.

Aug. 26.—YEOMANS, EDWARD D., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, died at Orange, New Jersey, aged 39 years. He was a graduate of Lafayette College; was first settled in the ministry at Warrior Run, Pa., afterward at Trenton, N. J., and Rochester, N. Y., from which latter place he was called to Orange, about a year since, upon the organization of the church of which he became the pastor. He devoted himself with great assiduity and success to the work of building up the church, and the membership was doubled within the year. He was, at the same time, engaged as one of the translators of Lange's Commentary, and the overtaxing of his brain doubtless induced the disease which caused his death.

Aug. 29.—SMITH, General WILLIAM R., a prominent politician of Wisconsin, died at Quincy, Ill. He was born in Montgomery County, Pa., August 31, 1787 received a liberal education, and studied law. In 1837 he removed to Wisconsin and became identified with the history of the State. In 1853 he was elected Attorney-General of the State. For many years he was President of the State Historical Society. He also wrote the documentary history of the State, under authority of the Legislature.

Aug. 31.—BISHOP, HIRAM N., D. D., an Episcopal clergyman of remarkable ability and eloquence, died in Paris, France, from the effects of sun-stroke, aged 45 years. He was rector of St. John's Episcopal Church, Chicago, but had accepted a call to the rectorship of St. John's, Cincinnati, and was spending a few months in Europe before entering upon the duties of his new charge, when he was suddenly taken away by congestion of the brain induced by sun-stroke experienced at Lucerne, Switzerland.

Aug. 31.—KRAFT, HENRY, Ph. D., an accomplished German chemist, died in Brooklyn, N. Y. He was born in 1801, in Bavaria, and emigrated to America in 1844. He was a private pupil of Professor Fuchs, of the University of Landshut, from which institution Professor Kraft graduated. He was eminent as a chemist, and pursued his profession with a zeal which his ardent enthusiasm for natural science fostered. His contributions to science were mostly published in Germany. His correspondence with the prominent scholars of this country and Germany testifies to the esteem in which he was held by that class of true philanthropists.

Aug.—ANDROS, R. S. S., an American editor, poet, author, and Government official, died at Berkeley, Mass. He was the son of Rev. Thomas Andros, author of "The Jersey Prison Ship," and in early life was editor of several newspapers, and contributed a number of poems of exquisite beauty to the *Democratic Review*, then under the charge of Mr. O'Sullivan. He was for several years Deputy Collector of the port of Boston, and prepared a codification of the Revenue Laws or Customs Guide, which is the standard authority with all having business at the Custom-House. Since the war, he had acted as the confidential agent of the Treasury Department in organizing custom-houses in the South.

Aug.—POSEY, MRS. RACHEL, the widow of a Revolutionary soldier, and herself a Revolutionary pensioner, died at Valley Forge, Pa., aged 103 years. Her recollections of the sufferings of the army under General Washington, at Valley Forge, in the terrible winter of 1777-'78 were very vivid. Her husband, to whom she was married just after the war, was many years her senior, and fought through the war, being wounded and taken prisoner, and suffering many hardships. He lived till 1827. Mrs. Posey had had 248 descendants, five of them in the sixth generation.

Aug.—SMITH, Brevet Brigadier-General BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, Major 27th Infantry, U. S. A., died at Fort Reno, Wyoming Territory, aged 37 years. He was born in Trenton, New Jersey, in 1831, appointed to West Point by Hon. J. E. Edsall, in 1849, and graduated in 1853, thirty-ninth in his class. He served on the frontier, in Texas, Nebraska, Utah, Kansas, California, Nevada, Washington Territory, Montana, etc., till the war, and was promoted to a captaincy, May 14, 1861, was colonel of

the 1st Regiment Ohio Volunteers, and took part in the battle of Shiloh; was transferred to the Army of the Potomac, and fought through the Peninsular campaign; assigned to command of 126th Ohio Volunteers, and in West Virginia operations, much of the time as brigade commander, to June, 1863, and subsequently in Central Virginia, till the close of the war; brevetted brigadier-general U. S. Volunteers for services before Petersburg; after the war Provost Marshal-General, Department S. C., in autumn of 1865; acting Assistant Commissioner Freedmen's Bureau and commander of post of Georgetown, S. C., till August, 1866; subsequently on recruiting service, and on frontier duty at Forts Philip Kearny and Reno till his death. He was promoted to be major of 27th Infantry, U. S. A., July 23, 1866. He was greatly beloved by all his associates for his amiable manners and kindness of heart.

Sept. 1.—SIMEON, BENJAMIN, a wealthy and philanthropic citizen of Elmira, N. Y., died at Riverhead, L. I. He was born at Riverhead, in May, 1792. He engaged in mercantile business in his native town and in New York City, and, having been greatly prospered, removed in 1835 to Elmira, and invested largely in real estate in that then small village. The steady advance of this property laid the foundation of his large fortune. His philanthropic disposition led him to take a deep interest in the religious and charitable enterprises of the day, being particularly interested in the cause of education. He was one of the founders of the Elmira Female College, to which he gave in all \$80,000. He also gave largely to the Auburn Theological Seminary, Hamilton College, home and foreign missions, and various other objects.

Sept. 1.—WHITTLESEY, Judge THOMAS T., an able jurist, died in Madison, Wis. He was born in Fairfield County, Conn., in 1798, and passed his youth in Danbury; entered Yale College when fifteen years of age, and graduated with honor in the class of 1817. He represented his district in Congress from 1836 to 1839, and commanded the highest respect of his associates and constituents. He also held the position of Judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut. After the death of his wife, some years since, he retired from public life, and, removing to Madison, Wisconsin, devoted himself to the improvement of his estate, building mills, and encouraging the settlement and improvement of the country. In 1852 he was elected State Senator by a large majority.

Sept. 2.—HALL, GEORGE, a Connecticut philanthropist, died in Norwich, aged 80 years. He was a native of Hartford, but was for many years a resident of Savannah, Ga. He was a bachelor, and devoted the greater part of his very large property to charitable objects.

Sept. 3.—SMITH, Brevet Brigadier-General JOSEPH R., U. S. A., died at Monroe, Mich. He was born in Sandy Hill, Washington County, N. Y., in 1802; graduated at West

Point, in 1823, as second lieutenant in the Second United States Infantry, and in 1832 was promoted to be first lieutenant. In 1838 he was made captain. He was first assigned to duty at Sault St. Marie, and afterward served in the Florida War from 1837 to 1842. In the Mexican War he distinguished himself, and was brevetted major for gallant conduct at Cerro Gordo, and lieutenant-colonel for his gallantry at Contreras and Churubusco. In the latter action he was severely wounded in the left arm, and never afterward recovered its use. In 1851 he was made major of the Seventh Infantry. On account of his wounds, received in the service, he was placed on the retired list in 1861, but in the following year he was made mustering and disbursing officer for Michigan, and was assigned headquarters at the lakes. On the breaking out of the late war he offered his services to the Government. They were accepted, and in 1862 he was appointed, on the death of Colonel Backus, as chief mustering officer of Michigan. In 1863 he became military commissary of musters. This position he held under various generals. For his long and valuable services he was brevetted brigadier-general in 1865.

Sept. 4.—DUNNELL, Dr. HENRY G., a homœopathic physician of New York, died, in that city, of heart-disease. He was born at Albany, N. Y., in 1803, and removed to New York when about nineteen years of age. In 1828 he graduated at the New York Medical University, and, after a few years' practice in his profession, adopted the views of Hahnemann and practised accordingly. He was appointed City Inspector, March 10, 1837. He was the author of a biography of the Dunnell family, from the time of their settlement in New England in the seventeenth century.

Sept. 4.—FORSYTHE, Rev. W. H., a home missionary of Kentucky, died in Harrison County, aged 66 years. For twenty-five years he preached the gospel in destitute regions, most earnestly and faithfully, without fee or reward, often giving large sums of money to aid in the erection of houses of worship and benefit the distressed.

Sept. 4.—FRENCH, Colonel GEORGE, a colored man, well-known in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., died in that city, at the advanced age of 106 years.

Sept. 14.—JONES, LEONARD, better known as "Live Forever Jones," a monomaniac, died in Louisville, Ky. He was born in Henderson County, in 1798, his family being noted for their intelligence and high moral standing. When about twenty years of age, he exhibited symptoms of monomania, wandering about from place to place, preaching the doctrine that by prayer and fasting a man would live always. He made frequent journeys to Washington, being an aspirant for every high office, State and Federal.

Sept. 17.—FENDALL, CLARENCE, officer of the U. S. Coast Survey, died at Norfolk, Va., aged 33 years. He was a graduate of Georgetown

College, and subsequently was for fifteen years attached to the Coast Survey. During the war he was detailed for service, under General Grant and Admiral Porter, for duty as an engineer on the Mississippi, in the neighborhood of Vicksburg, where he contracted the disease, chronic diarrhœa, of which he died. At the time of his death, he was an assistant in command of the surveying schooner Hassler, which recently had been employed in surveying the Potomac.

Sept. 17.—OLDS, Rev. M. S., D. D., rector of Christ Church, Washington, D. C., died in that city, aged 40 years. Early in life he moved from Ohio to Wisconsin, where he studied and practised law. He served gallantly as a lieutenant during the Mexican War, and at its close returned to Wisconsin. A few years after, he studied for the ministry, and in 1855 was ordained by Bishop Whipple, with whom he was always a great favorite. He was pastor of a church in Wisconsin for some years, and afterward in Trenton, New Jersey, from whence he received a call, in 1864, to Christ Church, which he accepted, and has since acted as its rector, until prostrated by sickness.

Sept. 20.—QUINER, Miss JOANNA, a self-taught sculptor, died in Lynn, Mass. She was born in Beverly, Mass., August 27, 1796. In 1843, while visiting friends in Boston, she saw a sculptor modelling in clay, and being deeply interested resolved to make the attempt herself. She did so, and her success was such that she at once devoted herself to the art.

Sept. 21.—ABBE, Hon. JOSHUA G., Commissioner of the Metropolitan Fire Department, died in Windham, Conn. He was born in that town, in June, 1828. He was one of the earlier settlers of Nebraska, and was for a time a member of the Territorial Legislature. Subsequently he removed his residence to New York, and became connected with the Fire Department at the time of its organization.

Sept. 22.—LELAND, HENRY PERRY, an American author and magazine writer, died in Philadelphia, Pa. He was born in that city, October 28, 1828. He was a gentleman of many natural gifts, which had been cultivated by travel and by extensive and various study. He was a frequent contributor, in prose and verse, to the newspapers and magazines. He had a fresh vein of genial humor, and, if his health had been preserved, he would undoubtedly have risen to high eminence in literature. A few years ago he published a volume of sketches of foreign travel, "Americans in Rome," which was full of delightful reading. He also published a volume of humorous sketches under the title of "The Gray Bay Mare." During the war he served as a lieutenant in the 118th Pennsylvania regiment, and was prostrated by a sun-stroke, from the effects of which he never fully recovered.

Sept. 22.—MORSE, RICHARD CARY, one of the founders of the New York *Observer*; died in

Kissengen, Germany, while travelling in Europe for his health. He was a son of Rev. Jedediah Morse, of Charlestown, Mass., where he was born, June 18, 1795. At the age of nine years he was sent to Phillips Academy, Andover, and there he remained during his whole course preparatory for admission to college. He entered Yale College in 1808, when he was in his fourteenth year, and graduated in 1812, the youngest member of his class. The year immediately following his graduation he spent in New Haven, being employed as the amanuensis of President Dwight, and living in his family. In 1814 he entered the Theological Seminary at Andover, and, having passed through the regular three years' course, was licensed to preach in 1817. The winter immediately succeeding his licensure he spent in South Carolina as a supply of the Presbyterian church on John's Island. On his return to New England, he was associated with his father for some time in a very successful geographical enterprise; and, in the spring of 1823, enlisted with his brother in another enterprise still more important—the establishing of the *New York Observer*, of which he was associate editor and proprietor for thirty-five years; and during this long period he contributed largely to its columns, especially by translations from the French and German. In 1858 he retired from active life, and a few years since removed to New Haven, with special reference to superintending the education of his sons.

Sept. 23.—BEECHER, Lieutenant FREDERICK, U. S. A., a brave and gallant young officer, was killed by the Indians on the upper Republican River, Kansas, aged 28 years. He was a son of the Rev. Charles Beecher, of Georgetown, Mass., and nephew of Henry Ward Beecher. He graduated at Bowdoin College, Maine, in 1861, and immediately entered the service of his country as a sergeant in Company B, 16th Maine Volunteers. Subsequently he was promoted to be second lieutenant and first lieutenant respectively. He was twice severely wounded—at Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862, and at Gettysburg, July 1, 1863. The last time wounded he was even then suffering from the old wound, but could not be persuaded to remain away from his command. The severe nature of his wounds necessitated his transfer to the Veteran Reserve Corps, in which he served as lieutenant until commissioned in the regular army by President Lincoln in 1865. He served with distinction after his appointment in the 9th Cavalry. He had just been ordered to duty in the Signal-Office, but was killed before he could obey the order.

Sept. 24.—PARKER, WILLIAM, Superintendent of the Panama Railroad Company, was killed by one of the employés of the company in his office at Aspinwall. He was born at Perth Amboy, N. J., about 1808; was educated at the Military Academy at Norwich, Vermont. He built the Boston and Worcester Railroad in Massachusetts, and was appointed the first

superintendent of that road, a position which he held until his election as President of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. He held the presidency for about five years, and then took charge of the Boston and Lowell line in the dual capacity of agent and president. Subsequently he became the consulting engineer of the European and North American Railroad at St. Johns, New Brunswick, and left that to assume the high post of responsibility which he held under the Panama Railroad Company.

Sept. 26.—BEALL, S. W., was killed by an editor, at Helena, Montana. He was a native of Virginia, and a graduate of Columbia College, N. Y. Having removed his residence to Wisconsin, he became a member of the Constitutional Convention of that State, and was afterward elected Lieutenant-Governor, acting as Governor for three years, when that officer was elected to the United States Senate. From that time until the outbreak of the war, he held many important offices in the gift of his State and of the United States. Patriotic and ardent, in spite of his years, he entered the army as major of a Wisconsin regiment, and was afterward transferred to the Veteran Reserve Corps, and made lieutenant-colonel. He never flattered in the discharge of his duty, and received for his gallantry both from General Grant and the lamented McPherson unsolicited testimonials of the most flattering character for his bravery and patriotism. He was well known throughout the country as a writer for the *Atlantic* and other magazines.

Sept. 26.—STUART, Rev. DAVID TODD, a Presbyterian clergyman and teacher, died at Shelbyville, Ky., aged 58 years. He was a native of Kentucky; was educated at Centre College, Danville, Ky., studied theology at Princeton in 1832, and after the completion of his course returned to Kentucky, and accepted the pastorate of the church of Shiloh and Olivet. Subsequently he took charge of the Shelbyville Female Seminary.

Sept. 27.—KING, ROBERT P., a distinguished printer and citizen of Philadelphia, died there aged 53 years. Beginning life poor, as a printer, he built up the large and respectable house of King & Baird, of which he was the head. He was an active member of the Republican party; during the war was President of the National Union Club, President of the Soldiers' Home, and of the Mount Moriah Cemetery Company. Though wielding great influence in the party, he never aspired to office.

Sept. 28.—FESSENDEN, T. A. D., M. C. from Maine, died at Lewiston. He was born in Portland, January 23, 1826; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1845, became a lawyer, and was a member of the convention that nominated John C. Fremont for the presidency. In 1858 he was appointed aide-de-camp to Governor Morrill; in 1860 he was elected to the Maine Legislature, and in 1861 he was made Attorney for Androscoggin County. In

1862 he was elected to represent the second district of Maine in the Thirty-seventh Congress, to complete the unexpired term of the Hon. C. W. Walton, who had resigned.

Sept. 28.—HINDMAN, General THOMAS C., an officer in the Confederate service, was assassinated by one of his former soldiers at Helena, Ark., aged 50 years. He was born in Tennessee, in 1818; served as a second lieutenant of Mississippi Volunteers in the Mexican War, and was a Democratic Representative in the Thirty-sixth Congress from the First District of Arkansas. He was reelected to the Thirty-seventh Congress, but when the war broke out he entered the Confederate service, was early made a brigadier-general, and served at Bowling Green until the evacuation. After the battle of Shiloh, in which he participated, and from which his commission as major-general dated, he was transferred to Arkansas, and commanded in that State at the time of its occupation by General Curtis. His military administration was severely criticised for his severity in enforcing conscription and in maintaining discipline among his troops. After the close of hostilities he went to the city of Mexico, where he remained until the spring of 1867, when he returned to his home in Helena.

Sept. 29.—ANDREWS, Rev. LORRIN, a missionary, teacher, judge, and author, died at Honolulu, Sandwich Islands, aged 73 years. He was born in East Windsor, now Vernon, Conn., April 29, 1795; educated at Jefferson College, Pa., and Princeton Theological Seminary; sailed for the Hawaiian Islands in November, 1827, and preached at Lahaina. In 1831 established Lahainaluna Seminary, which subsequently became the Hawaii University, in which he was a professor for ten years. He translated a part of the Bible into Hawaii; resigning his connection with the American Board, in 1840, from antislavery scruples, he was for some time seamen's chaplain at Lahaina. In 1845 he was appointed judge under the Hawaiian Government, and was also Secretary of the Privy Council. These offices he held for ten years. Since 1855 he had prepared a large Hawaiian dictionary and several works on the literature and antiquities of the Hawaiians.

Sept. 30.—GURLEY, Rev. PHINEAS D., D. D., an eminent Presbyterian clergyman, Chaplain of the United States Senate, died in Washington, D. C. He was born in Hamilton, Madison County, N. Y., November 12, 1816, and graduated at Union College in 1837, and at the Theological Seminary at Princeton, N. J., in 1840. He was immediately settled as the pastor of a Presbyterian church at Indianapolis, where he remained for nine years, and subsequently removed to the First Presbyterian Church at Dayton, Ohio. In 1853 he was called to Washington, D. C., and became pastor of F Street Presbyterian Church in that city. In a few years a union was effected with another congregation, and a new and handsome edifice

on New York Avenue was erected for the joint bodies. At this church Mr. Lincoln attended, and Doctor Gurley, as his pastor, preached the sermon on the occasion of the funeral solemnities of the lamented President. He was a man of fervent piety, and his manner of presenting the truths of the gospel was peculiarly attractive.

Sept. —.—CHUN-LOCK, better known as CHY-LUNG, a noted Chinese merchant in San Francisco, died recently in that city. He went to San Francisco in 1850, and immediately began business as a merchant, importing teas, opium, silk, and lacquered goods, Chinese groceries, etc., extensively, and soon built up a large wholesale and retail trade, which extended over a large part of California and the Pacific coast. During our civil war he gave liberally toward the Sanitary Relief Fund. When the great Sacramento flood of 1861-'62 brought desolation and distress to so many American households, his liberality was manifested toward our people and his own alike. The firm had a house in Shanghai, one at Canton, another at Hong-Kong, and recently one in Yokohama, in addition to that in San Francisco. A few days before his death he expressed his determination to visit New York and Chicago on the completion of the Pacific Railroad, with a view to establishing stores in those places.

Sept. —.—GAGE, GEORGE, a prominent lawyer of New Jersey, died at Dover, N. J., aged 31 years. He was an officer in the late war, and was a member of the Assembly, from Morris County, and a leader on the Republican side.

Oct. 1.—GERARD, WILLIAM, an old and eminent merchant of New York, died in that city aged about 80 years. He was born in Broad Street, and commenced his career as a clerk in the shipping-house of Minturn & Champlin, where he early evinced such a decided business capacity that at the age of eighteen he was sent by the house to the East Indies, as supercargo. Subsequently, he was in the employ of Ebenezer Irving & Sons, where Washington Irving was a fellow-clerk. He engaged in business as junior partner in the firm of A. S. Glass & Gerard, which finally became Gerard, Betts & Co. In 1866 Mr. Gerard retired after a business career of sixty years, throughout which he was noted for his strict integrity, correctness and probity in all his dealings, and his sound judgment.

Oct. 3.—JAMIESON, GEORGE W., an actor of considerable ability, was killed by a railroad train, aged 58 years. He was a native of New York City, his mother being an American, and his father an Irish Protestant. His education was limited, but he held high rank as a Shakspearian scholar. At an early age he was apprenticed to the trade of alapidary, and his cameos were models of artistic beauty. His tastes, however, were for the stage, and his first professional appearance was made at the old Bowery Theatre, in 1835, in his own farce, "The

Chameleon." He also played with great success at Niblo's Garden and at the Olympic.

Oct. 5.—**HALESTED, SCHUREMAN**, a prominent citizen and philanthropist of New York, died at Mamaroneck, N. Y., aged 63 years. He commenced his business career at the age of fifteen years, in a prominent dry-goods house, and by the time he had reached the prime of life had acquired an ample competence. From this period he devoted himself to the promotion of various religious and benevolent enterprises. It was by his personal efforts that the Legislature passed the act creating the Board of "Ten Governors," and having been appointed one of the original Governors, he devoted a large portion of his time to securing the successful working of that system. He was one of the principal patrons and supporters of the Old Ladies' Home in Forty-second Street, Vice-President of the American Bible Society, President of the Westchester County Bible Society, Manager of the Parent Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church, founder and President of a savings bank, founder and for many years President of the Broadway Insurance Company, and held many other responsible positions both secular and religious.

Oct. 5.—**WADE, MRS. DEBORAH B. L.**, wife of Jonathan Wade, D. D., a missionary in Burmah, died at Tavoy. Her maiden name was Lapham, and she was born in Nelson, N. Y., January 10, 1801. At the age of 22 years she was married and sailed from Boston with her husband, June 20, 1823, arriving at Rangoon in the following December. Her missionary life extended over a period of forty-five years, during which she rendered a large amount of valuable service, and was eminently her husband's helper, in his evangelizing labors. In 1831, and again in 1848, she visited the United States with her husband. She was a woman of strong powers of mind, of sound judgment, and of remarkable piety.

Oct. 10.—**LINDSLEY, NATHAN LAWRENCE**, LL. D., an eminent philologist and belles-lettres scholar, died at Greenwood, Tenn., aged 52 years. He was the son of Philip Lindsley, for many years President of the Nashville University. His early educational advantages were superior, and in whatever department of literature he pursued his studies, he endeavored to explore the ground thoroughly. He became master of several of the dead languages, as well as the modern languages, and in matters of philology had justly earned a national reputation. As an educator he was eminently successful. Dr. Lindsley was of material assistance to his friend Dr. Worcester during his preparation of the valuable lexicon which bears his name, and had himself projected a great work in the department of lexicography, entitled "An Encyclo-lexicon of the English Language."

Oct. 15.—**HINMAN, ROYAL RALPH**, a politician and genealogist, died in New York City, aged 84 years. He was born in Fairfield

County, Conn., was a graduate of Yale College, class of 1804, studied law, and practised for, nearly thirty years in his native county, was elected Secretary of State of Connecticut on the Conservative ticket in 1836, and after two years of service retired from public life. Subsequently he devoted his attention for many years to the history and antiquities of the State, and especially to tracing the genealogy of the original and early settlers, in the Hartford, Quinnipiac (or New Haven), Pequot (or New London), and Saybrook colonies. He published several volumes of these investigations. For the last fourteen or fifteen years he had resided in New York City.

Oct. 21.—**SOUDER, CASPER, JR.**, editor of the *Evening Bulletin*, Phila., died in Philadelphia, aged 48 years. He had been a prominent member of the profession twenty years, during seventeen of which he was connected with *The Bulletin*. He was a man of fine culture and high literary attainments, and the author of several valuable works, including the "History of Chestnut Street," in which much research and impartial description earned him the high esteem of the Philadelphia public as a historian.

Oct. 22.—**HINDS, JAMES, M. C.** from Arkansas, was assassinated at Monroe, Ark. He was born in the town of Hebron, Washington County, N. Y., December 5, 1833; graduated at the Cincinnati Law College in 1856, and removed to Minnesota, where he entered upon the practice of his profession. Here he was appointed District Attorney, and was advanced from this position to that of presiding Judge. During the late war, he enlisted in an expedition which was sent by the Government against the hostile tribes of Indians on the Western frontier, and, at the close of the war in 1865, settled at Little Rock, Ark. Subsequently he was chosen a member of the convention which framed the constitution under which Arkansas was admitted to the Union; and at the election of State officers was chosen one of the three representatives in the national Congress. At the time of his death he was canvassing his State with relation to the congressional nomination of his district, and, although having no direct personal interest in the election, fell a victim to his political views.

Oct. 24.—**FAIRCHILD, Brevet Brigadier-General CASSIUS**, U. S. Marshal for Wisconsin, died at Milwaukee from the reopening of a wound received at the battle of Shiloh, aged 40 years. He was a representative in the State Legislature in 1860. During the war he was connected with the 16th Wisconsin regiment, of which he became colonel, and soon after its close was appointed U. S. Marshal, the duties of which position he continued to discharge with faithfulness until his death. Colonel F. had been married but two weeks when his death occurred.

Oct. 28.—**TRACY, ANDREW, M. C.** from Vermont, died at Woodstock, Vt. He was a

native of that State; educated a lawyer; and was a Representative in Congress from 1853 to 1855. He also served ten years in both branches of the State Legislature, and was Speaker from 1842 to 1845.

Oct. 29.—McVICKAR, REV. JOHN, D. D., an eminent clergyman of the Episcopal Church, and late Professor in Columbia College, New York City, died at his residence in Bloomingdale, in the 82d year of his age. He was a native of New York State; graduated at Columbia College in 1804, and in 1811 was appointed to the parish at Hyde Park, N. Y. In 1817 he was appointed Professor of Moral Philosophy, Rhetoric, and Belles-Lettres, in Columbia College, the duties of which position he discharged for many years. He was obliged, on account of his health, to sever his connection with the college a few years since, and on retiring from active service was created Emeritus Professor. Dr. McVickar was the author of several valuable works. Among these were: "A Domestic Narrative of the Life of Samuel Bard;" "Outlines of Political Economy;" "Early Years;" "A Memoir of Bishop Hobart;" "The Professional Years of Bishop Hobart."

Oct. 30.—GUNTHER, CHRISTIAN GODFREY, an eminent merchant of New York City, died there, aged 73 years. He was the senior member of the firm of "Gunther & Sons," fur-dealers, and was a man of integrity and worth.

Oct. 30.—PRITCHARD, DAVID, M. D., a prominent physician of Norwalk, Conn., died there, aged 58 years. He was a native of Waterbury, Conn., graduated at Yale College in the class of 1831, and afterward at the Yale Medical School, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Madison. Subsequently he practised in New Jersey, and in 1861 removed to Norwalk. He was a skilful physician, and was noted for his benevolence.

Oct. —BLANCHARD, JOSHUA P., a remarkable philanthropist, the eldest Apostle of Peace in the United States, died in Boston, Mass., aged 86 years. He entered the service of the cause of peace at an early period, under the lead of Dr. Worcester, and in connection with the eminent Dr. Channing. For more than fifty years he bore that cause continually on his heart, and in many ways labored for its advancement. For it he gave money, time, thought, and the products of a vigorous pen. On the peace question he was one of the most radical; but to the credit of his memory it must be said that he was throughout consistent. Having settled upon the principle that Christianity not only discountenances but forbids all war, he accepted and advocated all the legitimate inferences to be drawn from it as binding upon the conscience.

Oct. —HORTON, GUSTAVUS, Probate Judge of Mobile, Ala., was killed at Huntsville, aged 53 years. He was a native of Massachusetts, but for nearly thirty years had been a citizen of Mobile, his business a cotton-broker. He

was deeply interested in the cause of education, and the prosperity of the public schools of Alabama is in a great measure owing to his unwearied energies. He was President of the first Public School Board organized in Mobile, and held that position until in 1862 the Board ejected him in consequence of his political sentiments. In 1865 he was restored by order of General Meade. During the war Mr. Horton was persecuted for his adherence to the cause of the Union, but, after the riot in that city, he was appointed Mayor by order of General Meade, and held that office until his election as Probate Judge.

Nov. 2.—ABBOTT, AMOS, formerly M. C. from Massachusetts, died in Andover. He was born in Andover, September 10, 1786, and was educated at a district school, but spent most of his life as a trader and merchant. He served three terms in the Massachusetts Legislature, and from 1840 to 1842 was a member of the State Senate. From 1843 to 1849 he represented his native State in Congress, serving on the Committee on the Militia and on Manufactures. He was a member of the House during the trying period of the Mexican War, and, though opposed to the war, voted with Mr. Winthrop for making the appropriations therefor.

Nov. 7.—WORTENDYKE, JACOB R., a prominent lawyer of New Jersey, and formerly M. C. from that State, died at Jersey City. He was born at Chestnut Ridge, Bergen County, N. J., November 27, 1818; graduated at Rutgers College in 1839; and was for several years teacher of the classics and mathematics. In 1849 he commenced the study of law, and was admitted to the bar in 1852, commencing the practice of his profession in Jersey City. He was elected a Representative in the Thirty-fifth Congress, from New Jersey, serving on the Committee on Public Expenditures.

Nov. 8.—FALES, MRS. ALMIRA L., a noble philanthropist, of Washington, D. C., died in that city. She was a native of the State of New York, but in mature life removed to Iowa. Her husband, Joseph T. Fales, having received an appointment as examiner in the Patent-Office at Washington, she accompanied him, and thenceforth made that city her home. As early as 1860, from her extended knowledge of Southern feeling and action, she foresaw and predicted the struggle, and, much to the surprise of less discerning and incredulous friends, began the collection and preparation of articles for hospital use. When the war broke out, she entered, fully prepared, upon the duties embraced in the care of sick and wounded soldiers. At Pittsburg Landing, and on other battle-fields of the West, Mrs. Fales was busy in ministering to wounded and dying soldiers. Through the entire war she devoted her energies to this department of philanthropy. Appreciating her efficiency and sound judgment, the Government placed an ambulance at her command, and with this laden with

stores she was unremitting in her visits in the hospitals in the neighborhood of Washington, and to the remoter fields of action. At Fredericksburg, on the Peninsula, and elsewhere, her presence was a ministry of practical sympathy to thousands of the brave and suffering, and, wherever she appeared, the brightness of her smile and the cheerful tone of her voice at once dispelled the gloom of the scene. In the yard of her own house she early pitched a large hospital tent, into which she gathered the sick and disabled soldiers, and there ministered to their needs, until means could be provided to send them to their homes. For a considerable period Mrs. Fales was charged by the Government with the superintendence of sick and wounded soldiers sent from the hospitals in and around Washington, to the hospitals in New York and elsewhere. Amid all this activity she found time to correspond extensively, for the purpose of obtaining pecuniary and other contributions to carry on her benevolent work.

Nov. 9.—REED, General HENRY E., an officer of the southern Army, a politician and lawyer of Louisville, Ky., committed suicide in that city, aged 44 years. He was born in Larue County, Ky.; was a blacksmith by trade, but studied law, and practised mostly in his native State. When the Mexican War broke out, he enlisted, and as ensign of a regiment of Kentucky Voltigeurs distinguished himself at Buena Vista, Chapultepec, and in other hard-fought battles. He it was who first planted the flag upon the heights of Chapultepec, but, in the moment of victory, he was struck down, severely wounded in several places. For this act, the General Assembly of Kentucky presented a sword and passed complimentary resolutions. On his return from the Mexican War, he was commissioned by Governor Powell a brigadier-general of militia. When the late war broke out, he went South, taking with him from Hardin County a considerable body of men for the Confederate army. He was elected a member of the Confederate Congress, representing the Provisional Government of Kentucky. He figured in several of the contests in Virginia, and, after the close of the rebellion, returned to the practice of his profession in Louisville.

Nov. 11.—WOLF, FREDERICK, M. D., late Surgeon U. S. A., died at St. Louis, Mo. He began his military career on the battle-fields of Italy, and was connected for eight years with the Austrian service, where he won the reputation of an able physician. Being an excellent linguist, he entered, after the battle of Bull Run, the Garibaldi Legion, served throughout the war, was once paroled, and became twice an inmate of Libby Prison.

Nov. 13.—STOWE, Rev. PHINEAS, pastor of the Boston Baptist Seamen's Bethel, died there, aged 56 years. He entered the ministry rather late, and without the advantages of a collegiate education; but he possessed considerable talent, and exercised great tact in the position

which he had chosen. He had much natural poetical ability, and his volume of hymns and spiritual songs was highly prized. He had also published two or three other small volumes. He was a great favorite with the seamen, and his influence over them was powerful for good.

Nov. 19.—DOVE, Captain BENJAMIN MORE, U. S. N., Inspector of the Light-house Department, died at Key West, Fla. He was a resident of the District of Columbia, and was retired as a commander, October 1, 1864.

Nov. 19.—MOUNT, WILLIAM SIDNEY, an artist of much merit, died at his residence in Setauket, L. I., aged 61 years. He was a native of Setauket, and passed his youth on a farm, but afterward removed to New York and engaged in sign and house painting, which soon developed into a capacity for a higher order of art. In 1829, having spent two years in the Academy of Design, he established himself as a portrait-painter. He subsequently achieved considerable reputation, both at home and abroad, through the engravings and colored lithographs of his pictures published by Goupil and others. Among the more renowned of his portraits are those of Bishop Onderdonk in his ecclesiastical robes, and of General Jeremiah Johnson, while Mayor of Brooklyn. Of his other pictures, "Farmers Mowing," "Raffling for a Goose," "Mutual Respect," "The Power of Music," "The Banjo-Player," and some others, are well-known examples. He excelled in the delineation of rural and humorous scenes, and was particularly happy in representing scenes from negro life.

Nov. 19.—PENDLETON, JOHN S., M. C. from Virginia, died at Culpepper, Va. He was a native of that State, and represented the ninth district in the Twenty-ninth Congress, and again in the Thirtieth, as a Whig. In 1841 he was appointed chargé d'affaires to the Republic of Chili, and in 1851 President Fillmore made him minister to the Argentine Confederation, and authorized him to negotiate with Paraguay.

Nov. 20.—BRYANT, Dr. JOEL, homœopathic physician and author of several medical treatises, died in Brooklyn, L. I. He was born in Suffolk County, L. I., November 10, 1813. He graduated at the Pennsylvania Medical College, entered upon his profession in his native village, but removed to Brooklyn in 1850, and became quite prominent as a practitioner. For some years previous to his death he was a great sufferer, and was unable to attend to his duties as a physician. He was the author of several treatises on homœopathy, the best of which was "Bryant's Pocket Manual."

Nov. 22.—BOYNTON, NEHEMIAH, a prominent citizen of Chelsea, and Boston, Mass., died in Chelsea. He was born in the present town of Rockport, near Gloucester, Mass., December 2, 1804. In 1825, he commenced business at St. George, Me., where, a few years later, he was elected a member of the Legislature. At the age of thirty he removed to West Thomaston,

where he was in active business eleven years. In 1845 he commenced mercantile business in Boston, having his family residence in Chelsea, where for more than twenty years he held the love and respect of the community. In 1859 and 1860 he represented the first Suffolk district in the State Senate; and from 1862 to 1865 he was a member of Governor Andrew's Executive Council, for Suffolk County. In both these positions he commended himself by sound judgment and fidelity to the trusts committed to him. In 1853, when an important vacancy occurred in the Executive Committee of the American Baptist Missionary Union, he was elected to fill it, and, two years later, he was chosen Treasurer, which position he held nine years, giving to its duties gratuitously a large amount of time, thought, and personal service.

Nov. 22.—HALL, DAVID P., an eminent lawyer of New York City, died there. He was born in Pomfret, Conn., July 15, 1798, and graduated with distinction at Harvard College in the class of 1820. For three successive years he gained the Bowdoin prize for English composition. Removing to New York City, he studied law under the late Mr. Wheaton, and was admitted to the bar in 1824. At one time he was in partnership with his brother, the late Jonathan Prescott Hall, and afterward practised alone. In the old Court of Chancery Mr. Hall gained a high reputation, and his name in the courts of law was equally well known. He practised much before the late Chancellors Kent and Walworth and Vice-Chancellor McCoun, and was much esteemed by them, as well as by his brethren of the bar, as a master of equity jurisprudence.

Nov. 23.—THOMPSON, General WADDY, M. C. from South Carolina; died in Tallahassee, Fla. He was born in Pickensville, Pendleton District, S. C., on the 8th of September, 1798, and, having graduated at the South Carolina College, studied law and was admitted to the bar in December, 1819. He rapidly rose to the head of his profession. In 1826 he was elected to the State Legislature, and served until that body made him, in 1830, Solicitor of the Western Circuit. During the Calhoun nullification excitement the Legislature made him brigadier-general. In 1835 the Whigs of the third district elected him to Congress, and he was reelected until 1841, serving in 1840 as Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs. When Calhoun, who lived in his district, went over to the Democratic party, all the Whig members from South Carolina, but General Thompson, followed his lead. In 1842 President Tyler appointed him minister to Mexico, and, during his mission, he made two important treaties, and secured the liberation of more than two hundred Texan prisoners. On his return, he wrote a book entitled "Reminiscences of Mexico," which passed through several editions. He was an extensive and successful cotton planter in Florida, but spent the greater

part of his time after his return from Mexico on his estate near Greenville, S. C.

Nov. 24.—POLLARD, HENRY RIVES, editor of *The Southern Opinion*, was assassinated in Richmond, Va., aged 35 years. He was the son of Major Richard Pollard, formerly an officer in the U. S. Navy, and was born in Nelson County, Va., where he passed his early life. He finished his education at the Virginia Military Institute, whence he went to Washington. There he was employed for a time in the Post-Office Department. When the war broke out he was news editor of *The Baltimore Sun*, but he immediately gave up that position, and, removing to Richmond, became one of the editors of *The Examiner*. Soon after the close of the War, Mr. Pollard, in connection with Mr. Charles H. Wynne, established *The Richmond Times* newspaper, and remained with it until the summer of that year, and then retired. In 1866 he revived *The Examiner*, and controlled its editorial columns until some time in 1867, when he disposed of it to Thomas H. Wynne, Esq. He next established *The Southern Opinion*, and was until his death its editor and proprietor. He died by the hand of a young man, by the name of Grant, who felt himself aggrieved by an article in Mr. Pollard's paper reflecting upon a member of his family.

Nov. 25.—ARNOLD, MAYER, formerly an eminent merchant of Philadelphia, died in that city, aged 83 years. He emigrated to this country in 1805 from Wurtemberg, and at once engaged in the wholesale dry-goods trade in Philadelphia, retiring from active business in 1845. After that time he confined his attention to charitable objects, and was president or treasurer for a number of societies having for their object the amelioration of the condition of the poor. He was one of the founders of the Manufacturers' and Mechanics' Bank of Philadelphia, and held a high position in the Masonic fraternity, having become a Master in that order in 1812.

Nov. 27.—ELLIOTT, Major JOEL M., U. S. A., was killed in a battle with the Cheyennes, and Arrapahoes, on the Washita River, near Antelope Hills, Indian Territory. He was a brave and skilful officer.

Nov. 27.—NICHOLS, Professor JOHN A., LL. D., of the College of New York, died at his residence, aged 47 years. He was well known as a man of thorough scholarship and culture. In 1852 he was chosen to the chair of Experimental Philosophy, as the successor of General W. B. Franklin, and the same year was transferred to that of Mixed Mathematics in the same institution.

Nov. 28.—PETTICOLAS, Dr. ARTHUR E., Superintendent of the Eastern Lunatic Asylum, Virginia, committed suicide at Williamsburg, by leaping from a window. He was an eminent physician, and formerly professor in the Medical College there. He had been partially insane for some months.

Nov. 30.—EVANS, Brigadier-General N. GEORGE, an officer in the Confederate service; died at Midway, Bullock County, Ala., where he was teaching, aged about 40 years. He was a native of South Carolina, and graduated at West Point in 1848, thirty-sixth in his class; was appointed brevet second-lieutenant, 1st Dragoons, and employed mostly on frontier service, in which he distinguished himself, and rose to be captain in the 2d Cavalry in 1856. He resigned in February, 1861, and was soon after promoted to a command in the Confederate army, in which he served throughout the war, and subsequently engaged in teaching.

Nov.—HARTZ, Captain E. L., U. S. A., an able officer, died while on frontier duty at Fort Reno, Dakota Territory, aged 34 years. He was born in Pottsville, Pa., graduated at West Point in 1855, and served on the frontier in Texas from that time until 1861, then on staff and quartermasters' positions until 1864, when he was dropped from the Army. In 1866 he was reappointed captain of the 27th Infantry, in which capacity he was serving at the period of his death.

Nov.—ROYCE, STEPHEN, formerly Governor of Vermont; died in that State, aged 81 years. He was for twenty-five years Chief Justice of Vermont, and, from 1854 to 1856, Governor of that State.

Dec. 3.—HENDERSON, MRS. JANE, an aged widow, died at Brooklyn, L. I. She was born in Monmouth County, N. J., in 1768, and her memory of the battle of Monmouth, in which her father participated, was very distinct. In 1817 she removed to New York. Her mental faculties were preserved until just before her death.

Dec. 3.—MCGRAE, JAMES MAIZE, a veteran journalist of Washington, died in that city, in his 86th year. The active portion of his life was spent in literary pursuits. For some time he was editor of the *New Orleans Tropic*, at one time a leading Whig journal in that city, and at various periods subsequently was connected, as contributor or correspondent, with leading papers in different parts of the country, including the old *Washington Union*, the *National Intelligencer*, the *New York Tribune*, the *New York Times*, and some of the prominent Western journals.

Dec. 3.—MAYNADIER, Brevet Major-General HENRY E., U. S. A., died at Charleston, S. C., aged 38 years. He was a native of Virginia; graduated at West Point, July 1, 1851, as brevet second-lieutenant 1st Artillery; served on garrison and frontier duty until 1857; accompanied the Utah Expedition in 1857-'58; and from 1859 to 1861 was with the expedition for survey and exploration of the Upper Missouri and Yellowstone Rivers. During the war he participated in some most important engagements—the bombardment of Island No. 10; attack on Fort Pillow; naval action before Memphis; bombardment of Vicksburg, Mississippi; battle of Fredericksburg, etc., etc.

In 1864 he was on the Board for inspecting hospitals in Michigan, and on special duty in the Adjutant-General's office at Washington, D. C. He also served in various other important positions. He was promoted to be brevet brigadier-general U. S. Volunteers, March 13, 1865, "for gallant and meritorious services during the rebellion," and brevet major-general, March 13, 1865, "for distinguished services on the frontier while operating against hostile Indians."

Dec. 3.—RIVERS, HENRY WHEATON, M. D., an eminent surgeon of Rhode Island, died at Providence, R. I., aged 50 years. Having been educated at the Harvard and Pennsylvania Medical Colleges, he commenced practice in Providence in 1839. In 1845 he published a very useful little book on "Accidents and Poisons." At the breaking out of the war he was one of the first to volunteer, and remained in the service till after Lee's surrender. He was at various times detached as brigade surgeon of the Third Brigade, Department of North Carolina; surgeon to Third Division, Department of North Carolina; medical director of the army for the defences of Harper's Ferry, Virginia; surgeon to headquarters, Army of the Potomac; surgeon to headquarters, Department of the Ohio; and medical inspector of Third Division, Ninth Army Corps. At the close of the war he was brevetted lieutenant-colonel for meritorious services.

Dec. 4.—OLMSTEAD, HAWLEY, LL. D., an eminent teacher of Connecticut, died at New Haven, Conn., in the seventy-fifth year of his age. He was a native of Wilton, Conn.; graduated at Yale college in 1816, and entered upon the work of instruction, first at the academy in his native town, and later as rector of the Hopkins Grammar School at New Haven, resigning his office in 1849, on account of ill-health. He represented Wilton four times in the State Legislature, and the second senatorial district once.

Dec. 4.—PARVIN, Rev. ROBERT I., an Episcopal clergyman, Secretary of the Evangelical Educational Society, was lost on the steamboat United States, on the Ohio River, near Madison, Ind., aged 45 years. He received his theological education at the Virginia Seminary, and entered upon the work of the ministry at Leroy, N. Y. Subsequently he was rector of a church at Pittsfield and afterward at Chilton Hills, Pa. During the late war he accepted a general agency for the Christian Commission, whose organization he was largely instrumental in perfecting. On the organization of the Evangelical Education Society, he was appointed its first secretary, and it was while engaged in fulfilling an appointment in its behalf that he met his death.

Dec. 4.—RISING, Rev. FRANKLIN S., an Episcopal clergyman, Secretary of the American Church Missionary Society, was lost on the steamboat United States, on the Ohio River, near Madison, Ind., aged 32 years. He

was a graduate of the Virginia Seminary, and spent the early years of his ministry at Virginia City, Nev., where he built up a parish of much power and strength. Failing in health, he became Financial Secretary of the American Church Society, and was on a tour of official duty when he met his death. He was a man of singular sweetness of temper and purity of character.

Dec. 4.—SMITH, REV. JOSEPH, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and educator, died in Greenburg, Pa. He was born in Westmoreland County, Pa., July 15, 1796, and was descended from a family of clergymen. He graduated at Jefferson College, Pa., in 1815; entered the Princeton Theological Seminary in 1817; was licensed to preach in 1819, and was appointed a missionary for Culpepper, Madison, and Orange Counties, Virginia. In 1822 he entered upon pastoral duties and was also previous to 1832 principal of an academy at Staunton. About this period he removed to Frederick City, Md., where he had charge of the Presbyterian Church and a large academy. From thence he was called to a church in St. Clairsville, Ohio, which he relinquished that he might accept the presidency of Franklin College, at New Athens, Ohio. When the subject of slavery began to interest the community, his conservative views led him to resign his office, and, removing to his former home in Frederick City, Md., he resumed the charge of the church, and was also president of the college just organized there. In 1847 he accepted, under the direction of the Domestic Board of Missions, the office of General Agent for the synods embracing Western Pennsylvania, Northwestern Virginia, and Eastern Ohio, a field involving great labor. Subsequently he held pastoral charges in Roundhill, Pa., and Greensburg, Pa. Dr. Smith was the author of a volume entitled "Old Redstone," "being Historical Sketches of Western Presbyterianism, its Early Ministers, its Perilous Times, and its First Records," of which he had just completed in manuscript a new edition previous to his death.

Dec. 6.—GOULD, GEORGE, an eminent jurist, formerly Judge of the Supreme Court of the State of New York, died at Troy, N. Y., aged about 59 years. He graduated at Yale College, and soon after went to Troy, and entered upon the study of law. Having thoroughly qualified himself, he entered upon the practice of his profession in that city with marked success. In 1852 he was chosen Mayor of Troy, and in 1855 was elected Judge of the Supreme Court. Upon the conclusion of his term in 1863, he resumed the practice of the law. As a lawyer, he was thoroughly master of his profession, and as a judge, dignified, prompt in decision, candid, and impartial.

Dec. 7.—CAMPBELL, THOMPSON, a prominent politician of Illinois and California; died there. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and was educated for the law. In 1843, having previously

become a citizen of Illinois, he was elected Secretary of State by the Democratic party, and served until 1846. In 1850 he was elected a representative in Congress from the Galena district, and served one term, from 1851 to 1853; subsequently he was appointed by President Pierce as Land Commissioner to California, for the purpose of adjusting titles under the treaty with Mexico, in accordance with grants made by the Mexican Government. He served in the California Legislature, and was a supporter of the Government during the late war.

Dec. 12.—FLINT, HENRY M., a newspaper correspondent of the *New York World*, over the signature of "Druid," died at Camden, N. J. He was the author of a "Life of Stephen A. Douglas," a work entitled "Mexico under Maximilian," and "The History and Statistics of the Railroads of the United States," lately published.

Dec. 12.—SHEPARD, REV. GEORGE C., D. D., a Congregational clergyman and author, died in Amherst, Mass., aged 66 years.

Dec. 13.—HUMPHREY, MRS. SOPHIA, widow of the late Heman Humphrey, D. D., died at Pittsfield, Mass., aged 83 years. She was a sister of Rev. Noah Porter, D. D., of Farmington, Conn. Four of her sons were graduates of Amherst College, of which institution her husband was president for twenty-two years.

Dec. 14.—ENOS, DEWITT C., M. D., a prominent physician and medical professor, of Brooklyn, N. Y., died suddenly in that city, of heart-disease. He had been visiting-surgeon of the City Hospital for some years, and until a short time previous to his death was Professor of Anatomy of the Long Island College Hospital.

Dec. 14.—PATTERSON, REV. A. O., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and home missionary, died at Oxford, Ohio. He was born in Fayette County, Pa., July 1, 1794; graduated at Washington College, Pa., and at Princeton Theological Seminary, and was licensed to preach in 1820. His labors were varied and his pastorates numerous. First as a missionary, he journeyed from Pittsburg, through Steubenville, Wheeling, Marietta, Oxford, Hamilton, Zanesville, Cleveland, and intermediate points, preaching the Gospel. For the next fourteen years he was pastor at Mount Pleasant and Sewickly, Pa., when, after much persuasion, he engaged in home missionary work, only to return to the pastorate, laboring successively at Beavertown, Pa., New Lisbon and Bethel, Ohio, West Newton, Pa., and since 1864 in Oxford, Ohio. The record of his labors in all these places, and also in connection with the Board of Missions, gives full proof of his eminent usefulness and efficiency.

Dec. 16.—CUMMINGS, ISAAC, M. D., an eminent physician of New York City, died from the effect of an overdose of morphine, aged 36 years. He had been resident physician of the Demilt Dispensary for several years, and was for six months the surgeon of the Panama

Railroad Company, but was compelled to resign by the unhealthiness of the climate. He was an accomplished physician and surgeon, and had already attained high rank in his profession.

Dec. 18.—ROBERTSON, ANTHONY L., Chief Justice of the Superior Court of New York, died there, aged 60 years. He was born in New York City, June, 1808, and received his education at Columbia College, where he graduated in 1825, with high honors. After a thorough course of study he entered upon the practice of law, and became distinguished in his profession; was Assistant Vice-Chancellor for the First Judicial District of New York in 1846, Surrogate of the county of New York in 1848, and in 1859 was elected a Judge of the Superior Court. After the expiration of his term of office in 1865, Judge Robertson was reelected, and during the following year was chosen Chief Justice by his associates. In 1867 he was one of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention, and took an active part in the proceedings of that body.

Dec. 20.—MITCHELL, S. AUGUSTUS, an author of school-books, etc.; died in Philadelphia, Pa. He was a native of Connecticut, and for some years a popular teacher. The imperfection of the geographical text-books in use led him to devote himself to the study of that science, with a view to the preparation of better works, and his successive text-books, maps, and treatises, became standard authorities on the subject. His school geographies had a larger circulation than any others which were brought into competition with them.

Dec. 20.—O'REILLY, REV. WILLIAM, a Roman Catholic priest, and Vicar-General of the Diocese of Hartford, Conn., died at Newport, R. I., in the 50th year of his age. He was born in Ireland, but came to the United States in 1839, and was ordained a priest in 1844. He was formerly settled at Rochester, where he succeeded his brother, the late Bishop O'Reilly, as pastor of St. Patrick's Church. He subsequently removed to Buffalo, where he was made vicar-general, and continued to reside till 1855, when he was called to the diocese with which he was connected at the time of his death. He was also pastor of St. Mary's Catholic Church at Newport, and founded St. Mary's School there.

Dec. 21.—PRICE, JOSEPH M., a banker of New York City, and author of "Interest Tables," and other works on exchange, died in New York, aged 64 years. He was educated as a practical surveyor, and in that capacity assisted in the original survey of the Erie Railroad. For some years he was an officer of the New York Bank of Commerce, and subsequently, for fifteen years, President of the Oriental Bank, an experience resulting in the production of his well-known "Interest Tables," and various stock and foreign exchange tables. He was a prominent member of the New York Clearing-House Association, and

was often called to serve on its most important committees.

Dec. 22.—JONES, REV. JOSEPH H., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman, died in Philadelphia, Pa., aged about 68 years. He graduated at Harvard College and at the Princeton Theological Seminary; was settled many years over the Presbyterian Church in Woodbury, N. J., and subsequently held a long and successful pastorate in New Brunswick, N. J., followed by one of more than twenty years over the Sixth Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia. This charge he resigned to take care of the Fund for Disabled Ministers, a trust which he managed with great delicacy and fidelity.

Dec. 26.—GIBBS, Brevet Major-General ALFRED, U. S. A., a brave and gallant officer, died at Fort Leavenworth, Kan. He was born April 23, 1823, and in 1842 entered West Point, where he graduated in 1846. After graduating he was brevetted as second-lieutenant, and assigned to the Mounted Rifles, with orders to join his regiment then engaged in the Mexican campaign. He served through the Mexican War with honor, and was twice brevetted for gallant conduct. After the Mexican War he served in California on the staff of General Persifer F. Smith, and, on the recall of that officer, was ordered to New Mexico on frontier duty. Here he was taken prisoner on the breaking out of the late war, but was subsequently exchanged. On coming North he took command of the 130th New York, and served under Sheridan during the latter part of the war. For gallant and distinguished services he was made brevet major-general of the regular army. General Gibbs was an officer of the army of the United States for twenty-three years, twenty-two of which were spent in active service.

Dec. 28.—BISHOP, DR. WILLIAM S., U. S. N., Surgeon of the United States Naval Asylum, Philadelphia; died there. He had been nearly twenty-six years in active service, and in 1861 retired with the rank of commander.

Dec. 29.—CLARK, MOSLY, a wagon-driver in the Revolutionary War; died in Richmond, Va., at the great age of 122 years.

Dec. 30.—GREENER, WILLIAM, a tobacco manufacturer in Richmond, Va.; died there, aged 75 years. He was a native of Baltimore, Md., and in 1812 enlisted as a volunteer soldier in the war with Great Britain. In 1815 he returned to his trade in Richmond, and during the late war his factory was used as a prison, under the name of "Castle Thunder."

Dec. 30.—WASHBURNE, ISHABOD, a wealthy and philanthropic manufacturer of Worcester, Mass.; died there, aged about 70 years. He was the founder and proprietor of the well-known "Washburne Iron-Wire Works," and had accumulated great wealth in the manufacture of telegraphic and other kinds of wire. During life he was noted for his benevolence, and his large bequests to charitable objects constitute an enduring monument to

his memory. Among these are large sums for the founding and endowment of hospitals; for the support of mission schools, and homes for aged women; \$80,000 to the Worcester County Institute of Industrial Science; also bequests to Missionary, Bible, and Tract Societies, and \$20,000 to the Bangor Theological Seminary.

Dec. 31.—BYINGTON, Rev. CYRUS, a Congregational clergyman, and for nearly forty-seven years a missionary among the Choctaw Indians; died at Belpre, Ohio. He was born in Stockbridge, Mass., March 11, 1793; prosecuted his theological studies at Andover Seminary, where he graduated in 1819; and, after being for some months in the employ of the Prudential Committee of the American Board of Missions, was sent by them as a missionary to the Choctaws, then in the Southern States. He remained at the Eliot Station from 1821, till the Choctaws, by the treaty of 1830, were compelled to remove to the present Indian Territory, and accompanied them thither, and remained at the new station, Stockbridge, till about 1866, when failing health compelled him to relinquish his work, and he removed to Ohio. Besides his other missionary labors, Mr. Byington prepared several religious books for the Indians and translated portions of the Bible into their language.

OBITUARIES, FOREIGN.—*Jan. 2.*—DOYLE, JOHN, an eminent political caricaturist and humorous painter and designer, died in London, aged 70 years. He was of Irish extraction, and, having early evinced a taste for art, was placed under the tuition of some of the best masters in Dublin. He was particularly successful in portraiture, though some of his delineations of the horse exhibited great skill. From 1829 to 1840 he aroused much interest in England by his political caricatures, and was known as "H. B." His likenesses were striking, and he was always less a caricaturist than a delineator of characteristics. His Sir Robert Peel, Disraeli, Emperor Nicholas at Ascot races, his Duke of Wellington, and Lord Carlisle, have never been equalled. His satirical specimens were also very successful, and never degenerated into coarseness. In private life he was greatly esteemed.

Jan. 8.—REGNAULT, ELIAS, a French historian, died in Paris. He was born in England during the temporary exile of his father, who was distinguished in the first French Revolution, and, like his father, was educated for the medical profession. He relinquished it, however, and subsequently turned his attention to literary pursuits. His talents were such that he might have secured lucrative office, but he was a republican, and too steadfast in principle to relinquish or dissemble his political views, choosing rather to suffer poverty and humiliation than to swerve from his integrity. He was the author of a "History of Eight Years," written as a continuation of M. Louis Blanc's pamphlet "The History of Ten Years," "A History of Roumania;" translated a large

number of works into English, and was a contributor to "Le Siècle," and "Le Nain Jaune." He was a vigorous writer, an upright and sternly-principled man, and his extreme poverty came from his honesty.

Jan. 8.—TATTAM, Venerable HENRY, D. D., LL. D., F. R. S., Archdeacon of Bedford, rector of Stanford Rivers, Essex, Eng., died there, aged 72 years. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, from which he received the degree of Doctor of Laws. In 1822 he was presented by Lord Eldon, then Lord Chancellor, to the rectory of St. Cuthbert's, Bedford, and in 1831 to the rectory of Great Woolstone, which benefices he held until 1849, when he was presented to the crown living of Stanford Rivers. In 1844 he was presented by the Bishop of Ely to the archdeaconry of Bedford, which he resigned in 1866. Dr. Tattam was a chaplain in ordinary to the Queen, and the author of several theological works in Coptic and English, Coptic and Latin, and Coptic and Arabic, "Helps to Devotion," "A defence of the Church of England," and other works.

Jan. 9.—MORFEY, Mrs., a widow of Claydon, Suffolk, died there, at the advanced age of 106 years. She was for half a century midwife of the Barham Union, and retained her faculties until a few months previous to her death.

Jan. 20.—BROTHERTON, General Sir THOMAS WILLIAM, G. C. B., an officer of the British Army, died near Esher, County of Surrey, aged 83 years. He entered the army in 1800; served in Egypt, Germany, and in the Peninsular War, where he greatly distinguished himself, and won several medals. In 1830 he was appointed one of the aides to King William IV.; and subsequently was an inspector-general of cavalry at headquarters. He was made a general in 1860, and was created a G. C. B. in 1861.

Jan. 20.—VINE, Mrs. MARY, an English actress of great merit, died in London, aged about 70 years. She was the daughter of the famous actor Tony Johannot, and commenced ballet-dancing at six years of age. She won great applause at Drury Lane, Brighton Theatre, and at Covent Garden, where she was engaged for three years at £9 a week. In November, 1833, she appeared in "Gustavus the Third" at Covent Garden, and won great applause in the celebrated German *Pas*. An injury to the spine caused her to retire from the stage a few years after.

Jan. 22.—GREY, JOHN, an eminent English agriculturist and reformer, died at Lipwood House, near the Tyne. He was born in 1785, and was educated at Richmond Grammar-School. He entered public life at the early age of seventeen, his first speech being upon the abolition of slavery. He accompanied Lord Brougham in his celebrated antislavery tour in Northumberland and Cumberland, and took an active part in the constitutional agitation for Catholic Emancipation, in the great struggle which preceded the Reform Bill of 1832. He was frequently urged to go into Parliament,

but after the passage of the Reform Bill, having been placed in charge of the northern estates of Greenwich Hospital, he ceased to take an active part in politics, although his sympathies always remained with the Liberal party. A large portion of his life was devoted to the study of agriculture, especially in relation to the improvement of the soil, breeding of stock, and the practical application of modern science in all the departments of agriculture. The amelioration of the condition of laborers, building and endowment of schools, and every movement tending to the intellectual growth of the laboring classes, called forth his most earnest efforts, his motto being "The culture of the mind must precede that of the land." Mr. Grey was chairman of the Tyneside Agricultural Association, and a director of the Blythe and Tyne Railway.

Jan. 24.—DAVY, JOHN, M. D., F. R. S., Inspector-General of Army Hospitals, an eminent physicist and author, died at Lesketh How, Ambleside. He was born in Penzance, in 1790, took his medical degree in Edinburgh in 1814; entered the army as a surgeon, and after faithful service rose to the position of inspector-general of army hospitals. He was a copious writer, having written several volumes on general subjects, besides a large number of papers ranging over the whole field of natural science, contributed to the "Philosophical Transactions," "Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh," "and the Royal Medico-Chirurgical Society." One of his most recent works consists of a series of "Lectures on Chemistry," in which this science is regarded in its relations to the atmosphere, the earth, the ocean, and the art of agriculture. Mr. Davy was the author of a "Life of Sir Humphrey Davy," and editor of his collected works in nine volumes.

Jan. 27.—WHITE, Lieutenant-General MICHAEL, K. C. B., a distinguished cavalry officer of the British Army, died in London. He was born at St. Michael's Mount, in 1791; educated at Westminster School, and entered the army in 1804. In 1809 he was in active field service on the banks of the Sutlej. He commanded cavalry in the Afghan, Sulej, and Punjab campaigns, and, for his distinguished services in Afghanistan, was nominated a Companion of the Order of the Bath; and for his bravery at Sobraon was appointed an aide-de-camp to the Queen. In 1862 he was made a Knight Commander of the Bath.

Jan. 28.—STIFTER, ADALBERT, a popular novel-writer and landscape-painter, of Germany, died at Linz, on the Danube. He was the son of a poor weaver, and was born October 23, 1806, at Oberplan, in Southern Bohemia. With the assistance of friends who saw in him evidences of great talent, he was enabled to complete a course of philosophical and philological studies at the Gymnasium of Kremsmunster and the University of Vienna; and acquired at the same time, to no common degree of perfection, the art of landscape-paint-

ing, for which his poet's eye for Nature (a characteristic feature, also, of his tales and novels) especially qualified him. He was 27 years old before he published, in Witthauer's "Zeitschrift," the firstlings of his muse, those charming tales, "Feldblumen," "Der Condor," "Das Haidedor," and since then enjoyed an ever-rising popularity, not only in Austria, but all over Germany. About 1840 Prince Metternich appointed him as tutor to his son Richard, the present ambassador of Austria at the French court, and ten years later he was named "Schulrath" (Superintendent of Schools), and removed from Vienna to Linz, where he had lived ever since. His works insure him a lasting name in German literature. They comprise "Studien" (6 vols., collected tales); "Bunte Steine" (2 vols., collected tales); "Der Nachsommer" (a novel, in 3 vols.); and "Witiko" (likewise a novel, in 3 vols.).

Feb. 6.—HERAPATH, WILLIAM, an English chemist and politician, died in Bristol, Eng., aged 72 years. He was a native of Bristol, and while at work in his father's malthouse displayed a decided taste for chemical study which resulted in his becoming a proficient in the science, and especially in the department of toxicology. He was in frequent and almost constant demand in the examination of alleged cases of poisoning, and his skill in making analyses in this direction not only, but for the benefit of agriculture, manufactures and the arts, rendered his life singularly useful. In 1828 he was elected Professor of Chemistry in the British Medical School. He was also one of the founders of the London Chemical Society. During the Reform agitation of 1831, as president of the Political Union, he did much toward the suppression of the riots in Bristol. On the passing of the Municipal Reform Act, Mr. Herapath became a member of the Town Council.

Feb. 7.—JONES, Admiral THEOBALD, an officer of the British Navy, died in London. He was born in 1790, entered the navy in 1803, was made lieutenant in 1809, was employed in the North Sea, and Channel, and also in the Mediterranean, where in 1810 he shared in a gallant skirmish with the Toulon fleet. He was promoted to be commander in 1814, and commanded the Cherokee, on the Leith station, from 1819 until 1822, and subsequently was second captain in the Prince Regent, at the Nore. In 1865 he became an admiral on the retired list. In politics he was a Conservative, and represented Londonderry in Parliament from 1830 to 1857.

Feb. 8.—HA-YAH-TA-KEE, the chief of a Japanese troupe of performers, died in New York City, of disease of the heart. He was a man of considerable note in his own country, and near the close of 1867 came to the United States with his family and a corps of performers, but did not meet with as much success as he had expected.

Feb. 15.—DAWES, REV. WILLIAM RUTTER, F.

R. S., F. R. A. S., an eminent English astronomer, died at Hopesfield, Haddenham, aged 68 years. He devoted his earlier years to the close and careful study of astronomy, which science he enriched by many valuable observations and memoirs. In 1830 he established an observatory at Ormskirk in Lancashire. In 1839 he took charge of the private observatory erected by Mr. Bishop in Regent's Park, since made famous by the discoveries emanating from it. In 1845 he erected a complete observatory at Camden Lodge, which he shortly after removed to Wateringbury, near Maidstone. Here he made the important discovery of the interior ring of the planet Saturn. Subsequently he removed his instruments to Haddenham, where he made observations till a short time previous to his death, some of which have been of very great value in the advancement of astronomical science, especially his scrutinies of the disks of the planets, and measurements of double stars. In 1851, in company with others, he visited Sweden, to take observations of the famous total solar eclipse of that year.

Feb. 19.—COMBE, MRS. GEORGE, widow of the author of the "Constitution of Man," and daughter of Mrs. Siddons, died at Nice, France. She was a writer of great ability, and assisted her husband in collecting the materials for his work upon the United States. She accompanied him in all his travels for more than twenty-five years.

Feb. 19.—DALY, SIR DOMINICK, Governor-General of South Australia, died at Adelaide. He was born in 1798. For nearly twenty-six years he was acting Chief Secretary in Canada, in 1851 was appointed Governor of the Island of Tobago, and in 1854 received the honor of knighthood, and was made Lieutenant-Governor of Prince Edward's Island, which appointment he held until 1859. In 1861 he became Governor of South Australia.

Feb. 20.—BAKER, DR. B. B., an eminent promoter of education in Malta and the Ionian Isles, died at Malta, of apoplexy. He was formerly director of the college at Corfu, and Professor of English Literature in the Ionian University. He was a member of the commission appointed to inquire into and report upon the instruction given in the Lyceum and the primary schools of Malta and Gozo.

Feb. 22.—FLORES, General VENANCIO, President of Uruguay, was assassinated in the streets of Montevideo. General Flores had been a prominent military officer in Uruguay, and in 1866 headed a revolution which overthrew the government of Vidal, and became provisional President of the republic until the next regular election, which was to have been held in February, 1868. On the 15th of February, he resigned the presidency, and refused to be a candidate for a reelection. His son, Colonel Fortunato Flores, and some other ambitious young men, attempted to compel him to accept the office again, in the hope of being able

to attain power and office themselves, and his persistent refusal so irritated them that they conspired for his assassination.

Feb. 24.—HERAPATH, JOHN, an English author and publisher, died at Lewisham, aged 77 years. In early life he was associated with his cousin William Herapath in the malt business, and while the latter turned his attention to chemistry, the subject of this sketch became interested in mathematics. Having retired from the business at Bristol, he, for a time, conducted a mathematical academy for the preparation of pupils for the navy. On the formation of the Eastern Counties Railway Company, he became connected with the railway interest, and in 1836 assumed the management of the *Railway Magazine*, of which, as a weekly paper, under the title of *Herapath's Railway Journal*, he was for upward of twenty years sole proprietor. He was the author of two volumes entitled "Mathematical Physics," in which the highest branches of mathematics are applied to the investigation of physical science.

Feb. 25.—CROWE, EYRE EVANS, an English historian and journalist, died in London from the exhaustion caused by a surgical operation. He had been connected for many years past with the London press, having first had an engagement on the *Morning Chronicle*, now defunct, and afterward on the *Examiner*, and the *Daily News*. For some time he was principal editor of the latter paper. He was regarded as more thoroughly informed in Continental affairs than any other English journalist. He was very much respected outside of the journalistic profession, and maintained a correspondence with most of the more prominent public men on the Continent. He had resided much of the time in Paris, of late years, collecting the materials for his able "History of France," published about two years since, by Longmans. He had also published several other works of less importance. His wife, Mrs. Catharine Crowe, authoress of the "Night-Side of Nature" and several other popular works, survives him.

Feb. 25.—GIBSON, SIR JAMES BROWN, M. D., K. C. B., Honorary Physician to the Queen, and Director-General of the medical department of the army, died at Rome, aged 63 years. He was a graduate of the University of Edinburgh; entered the service in 1826 as hospital assistant, and served in every grade until, in 1860, he became director-general, from which post he retired in 1867. In 1855 he was selected as the personal medical attendant of the Duke of Cambridge, and was appointed a K. C. B. in 1865.

Feb. 25.—SECRETAN, REV. CHARLES FREDERICK, an Episcopal clergyman and author, died at London, Worcestershire. He was born December 5, 1820; educated at King's College, London, and Wadham College, Oxford, where he graduated in 1842 with the highest honors, and in 1844 was ordained and licensed to the curacy of St. Mary's, Westmin-

ster, where for seven years he worked indefatigably in the courts and lanes of that crowded district. In 1852 he was presented to the living of Holy Trinity, Vauxhall-road, holding that position until the autumn of 1864. But his labors were beginning to tell upon his naturally delicate constitution, and having been offered the vicarage of Longdon, with Castle Morton, he removed thither and continued his ministry there with his usual zeal until his death. He was the author of a "Memoir of the Life and Times of Robert Nelson" (1860), a brief "Memoir of Archbishop Leighton," "Tracts for the Christian Seasons," and a volume of sermons.

Feb. 25.—TOWNSEND, REV. CHAUNCEY HARE, an English scholar and author, died in London. He was born in 1800, graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1821, and in 1828 obtained the university prize for English verses, his subject being "Jerusalem." He was the author of "Sermons in Sonnets;" "The Three Gates;" "Mesmerism Proved True," and "Facts in Mesmerism." He was also one of the colleagues of Macaulay, Praed, and Moultrie in founding the *Quarterly Magazine*. During his lifetime he had collected a large number of valuable prints, which he bequeathed to the South Kensington Museum.

Feb. 25.—TURCK, LUDWIG, M. D., an eminent Austrian pathologist and medical professor, died at Vienna, aged 56 years. He was educated at the University of Vienna, and received his medical diploma in 1837. Soon after he was appointed one of the physicians of the General Hospital of Vienna and had a ward assigned to him of cases of diseases of the brain and nervous system. Devoting himself to this specialty of his profession with great assiduity, he published some years later the results of his investigations on the minute anatomy of the brain and nervous system, and at once became an authority on all questions of nervous pathology. His studies on these subjects were continued with unabated ardor until his death, and for some years past he has been recognized as at the head of his profession in the pathology and treatment of these very difficult diseases. In 1857 he invented a method of examining the larynx, which has since become popular, and to him and Dr. Czermak conjointly is due the honor of founding the art of laryngoscopy.

Feb. 26.—WENSLEYDALE, RT. HON. JAMES PARKE, first Lord, an able English judge, died in London. He was born at Highfield, March 22, 1782, graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1803, as B. A., fifth wrangler and senior Chancellor's Medallist, and in 1804 was elected to an open fellowship in that college. In 1813 he was called to the bar at the Inner Temple, and, after a lucrative practice of some years, was raised to the bench, as prime judge, and six years later to the Court of Exchequer, being sworn at the same time a member of the Privy Council. As Baron Parke, he served

twenty years on the judicial bench, and his familiarity with legal precedents induced Lord Palmerston to call him to the House of Lords in 1855.

Feb.—FOURCAULT, LEON, a French physicist, died in Paris. He was born in that city September 18, 1810, and was educated for the profession of medicine, but subsequently turned his attention to natural philosophy. In 1839 the invention of Daguerre led him to make the theory of light a study, the result of his investigations appearing in a volume published in 1845. In 1859 the invention of the gyroscope and the application of the pendulum to the ocular demonstration of the rotation of the earth made his name famous throughout the civilized world. He next invented a method for making telescopes with silvered glass, an achievement appreciated by all astronomers. His last researches were directed to the determination of the velocity of light. He was a member of the Academy of Science.

Feb.—GEORGIA, ANNA PAULOWNA, Czarina of, born Countess of Koutaïssoff, died in Moscow. She was a lady of great erudition and benevolence, and was an accomplished writer, and composer of many popular songs. For some years previous to her death she had resided in Moscow, where she was greatly esteemed for her intelligence and genuine worth.

Feb.—GRAVIER, COULVIER, a French physicist, died in Paris. He was born at Rheims, February 26, 1802, and his early advantages of education were limited. While following the plough, he was led to observe the stars, and especially was interested in the phenomena of shooting-stars. In 1840, having removed to Paris, he was introduced to Arago, to whom he communicated his observations, and from whom he received great encouragement in his investigations. In 1850 he was appointed director of the meteorological observatory of the palace of the Luxembourg. He believed that shooting-stars revealed the changes of the weather, being meteors diverted from their original course by prevailing winds in the higher regions of the atmosphere, and consequently that their direction indicated currents whose action would be felt in the lower regions of the air. M. Gravier contributed largely to the *Journal of the Academy of Science*.

March 2.—BENTINCK, the Baron von —, Netherlands minister to the court of St. James, and Chamberlain to his Majesty, King of the Netherlands, died in London, aged 70 years. He was formerly secretary of legation at Copenhagen, Stockholm, Berlin, and Vienna; councillor of legation seven years in London; represented his country in Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Belgium, and the Hague. He was a liberal patron of music, and a first-class amateur performer. The baron was the recipient of many honors, both in his own and other countries.

March 2.—BYRON, Rt. Hon. GEORGE ANSON BYRON, seventh Lord, an admiral in the British Navy, successor to the title of Lord Byron, the poet, died in London. He was born in 1789, entered the navy as a volunteer in 1800, and was advanced to the rank of commander in 1812. His last appointment was to the Blonde frigate, to convey from England the King and Queen of the Sandwich Islands. A full account of this voyage was published in 1826, under the title "Voyage of Her Majesty's Ship Blonde to the Sandwich Islands in 1824-'25." He was for several years Lord in Waiting to her Majesty. He was made rear-admiral in 1849, vice-admiral in 1857, and admiral in 1862.

March 3.—OLARTE, General VINCENTE, President of the State of Panama, New Granada, died at Panama, of yellow fever, aged 40 years. He was a native of the State of Santander. In 1865 he went to Panama, and took up arms in favor of the constituted authorities, against one of the rebellions which frequently disturb the tranquillity of the State. Leading the Government forces in several successful engagements, he quelled the insurrection. For this service he was named commander-in-chief of the State forces. In 1866 he was elected President. His term had seven months to run when death finished his career. He was a man of undoubted bravery and resolution, and the terror of his name was a check upon the machinations of scheming revolutionists.

March 8.—TUCKER, EDWARD, an eminent English botanist, died at Margate, aged 58 years. He was born in Stodmarsh, Thanet. While yet very young he evinced a strong desire for the attainment of knowledge, and was particularly interested in the study of botany, which he followed through life. He acquired a world-wide reputation, by his discovery of the *oidium*, or microscopic fungus causing the grape-disease.

March 10.—NEAVE, Sir RICHARD DIGBY, an English scholar and author, died in London. He was born December 9, 1793; graduated at St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, in 1815, and succeeded his father in the baronetcy in 1848. He was a man of highly-cultivated mind, an accomplished draughtsman, and a valuable member of the Geographical Society. He was the author of a work entitled "Four Days in Connemara."

March 11.—CHRISTMAS (OR NOEL-FEARN), Rev. HENRY, an eminent English scholar and author, died suddenly in London. He was born in that city, in 1811; graduated at St. John's College, Cambridge, in 1837, and, having been ordained the same year, served some minor appointments in the Church, and then accepted the position of librarian and secretary of Sion College. Subsequently he was elected Professor of English History and Archaeology to the Royal Society of Literature. He was a fine classical scholar and mathematician, and a most popular lecturer on a variety of subjects.

Among his numerous published volumes may be mentioned his "Universal Mythology," "Shores and Islands of the Mediterranean," "Christian Politics," "Preachers and Preaching," "Echoes of the Universe," and "Cradle of the Twin Giants," besides several translations from Lamartine, Calmet and others. He was also a frequent contributor to the periodical literature of the day. His taste for numismatics resulted in a choice collection of coins, which recently sold for a large sum. Mr. Christmas was a member of several scientific bodies in his own and other countries.

March 11.—VANDER HOEVEN, Professor JAN, an eminent naturalist, Professor of Geology at the University of Leyden, died there. He was born at Rotterdam in 1801, and was Fellow of many learned societies of his own and other countries; among the rest, the Linnean Society of London.

March 15.—LEE, Rev. ROBERT, D. D., Professor of Biblical Criticism, in the University of Edinburgh, and an author of high repute, died at Torquay. He was born at Tweedmouth, North Durham, in 1804, studied at St. Andrew's from 1824 to 1832, and was elected a minister of a chapel-of-ease at Arbroath, in 1833, from which he was translated to the parish of Campsie, in 1836. In 1843 he became minister of the Grey Friars Church, Edinburgh, and on the institution of a chair of Biblical Criticism and Biblical Antiquities in the University of Edinburgh, in 1846, was appointed the first professor. As a preacher, and orator in the church courts he held a high reputation, and his learning and ability gave him a wide influence among the younger clergy. Among his published works are "The Theses of Erastes," translated in 1844, "A Handbook of Devotion" (1845), "Thou art Peter, a Discourse on Infallibility" (1851), and various letters, sermons, and papers. Dr. Lee was dean of the chapel royal, and a chaplain in ordinary to her Majesty in Scotland.

March 27.—FELLER, Madame HENRIETTA, an accomplished and devoted missionary from Switzerland to the French-Canadian Catholics, died at Grand Ligne, Canada, aged about 80 years. She was a native of Switzerland, of a highly-educated and distinguished family, and, after enjoying for years the pleasures of cultivated, intellectual society, resolved, soon after the death of her husband, to abandon her native land with all its advantages, to carry intelligence and Christianity to the ignorant and benighted French-Canadians. She came to Grand Ligne, Canada, in 1835, and immediately commenced a school and mission. For many years she was persecuted and maltreated by the people she came to bless, her books burned, her property destroyed, and even her life endangered. But her gentleness, her benevolence, and her strong faith and courage prevailed over all opposition. The mission grew and increased; several French Protestant clergymen became connected with it, and with

the schools, and Madame Feller for years past has been recognized by both Catholics and Protestants as the benefactor and friend of the Canadian French of all that region. She had sacrificed her own private fortune in the work long since, and it has been sustained, in part, for many years by contributions from persons of different religious denominations in the United States, who had known her and her abundant and self-sacrificing labors. Even to her last moments her interest in her mission continued, the "ruling passion, strong in death."

March 28.—JESSE, EDWARD, an eminent English naturalist and voluminous author, died in Brighton. He was born in the county of Yorkshire, January 14, 1780; was educated under a clergyman at Leicester, and under a French Protestant at Bristol, and in 1798 was appointed to a clerkship in the San Domingo office. Subsequently he was private secretary to Lord Dartmouth, held some important military commissions, and was appointed deputy surveyor of the royal parks and palaces, besides holding other offices under royal patronage. He was the author of many works upon natural history, among which were "Favorite Haunts and Rural Studies," "Scenes and Tales of Country Life," and "Lectures on Natural History."

March —.—HASHEM, General, chief of the Tunisian embassy, which visited the United States in 1864, died in Tunis. He was a man of good education and fine intellectual ability.

March —.—MONNAIS, EDOUARD, a French dramatic author, died in Paris, aged 70 years. He had in his day filled the post of dramatic critic to several journals. His best known plays were "Le Demande en Mariage," "Le Secret d'État," "Un Menage Parisien," "Sultana," and "La Veuve Grapin." He wrote also several miscellaneous works, including "Esquisses de la Vie d'Artistes," "Éphémérides," etc., and was the author of innumerable cantatas. In 1849 he was created Chevalier of the Legion of Honor.

March —.—VIRIVILLE, VALLET DE, an eminent French archæologist and author, died in Paris, aged 53 years. He wrote much upon education, and was the author of "Historical Archives of the Department of Aube and Diocese of Troyes," "Mémorial upon the Conquests of Egypt," "History of Public Instruction in Europe and especially in France," "Histoire Iconography of France," etc.

April 7.—CHADS, SIR HENRY DUCIE, G. C. B., an Admiral of the British Navy, died at Southsea, Hants, aged 80 years. He entered the Naval Academy at Portsmouth in 1800, the navy in September, 1803; distinguished himself as lieutenant at the conquest of the Isle of Bourbon in 1810; was appointed to the command of the *Arachne* in 1823; took part in the Burmese War, was made post-captain and C. B. for his services; forced the passage of the Boca Tigris in China in September, 1834, and cleared the Straits of Malacca of

pirates in 1836-'37; was promoted commodore in 1844, and Superintendent of the Royal Naval College at Portsmouth from 1844 to 1854. In that year he attained the rank of rear-admiral; was fourth and finally third in command in the Baltic; was nominated K. C. B. in 1855. He was subsequently commander-in-chief of Cork; became vice-admiral in 1858, and admiral in 1863. In 1865 he was nominated G. C. B., and retired on a good service pension.

April 7.—MCGEE, THOMAS DARCY, an Irish political leader, journalist, and orator, a member of the Canadian Cabinet since 1864, born in Carlingford, Ireland, April 13, 1825; assassinated by an Irishman by the name of Whelan or Whalen in Ottawa, Canada. His father was a custom-house officer in Wexford, Ireland, and in that town young McGee was educated. In 1842 he emigrated to the United States, and obtained a position on the Boston press. At the commencement of the Young Ireland movement in 1848, he returned to Ireland, and as one of the editorial staff of the *Nation* newspaper was active in the Young Ireland party. When this *émeute* was quelled, he, more fortunate than most of his comrades, eluded the British detectives, and made his escape again to America. Here he founded and edited a journal which he named the *American Celt*, and for some years advocated, with great zeal and brilliancy, the claims of Ireland to an independent nationality and a Republican form of government. During the Know-Nothing movement of 1854-'56, his views underwent a change, and he became an ardent royalist, and the sympathies of his countrymen being turned against him, and their leading men denouncing him publicly, he removed to Canada, where he was very cordially received by the royalists, to whom his fiery eloquence, and his brilliant abilities as a writer and politician, were of great value. In 1857 the citizens of Montreal chose him as their representative in the Canadian Parliament. In 1864 he was appointed president of the Executive Council, and held that position till 1867, when he was reelected to the Parliament of the New Dominion of Canada, and was appointed Minister of Agriculture in the new Cabinet. He was also Chief Commissioner from Canada to the late Paris Exposition, as he had been to the previous one and the Dublin Exhibition. He was the author of several works, the most important of which were "Lives of Irish Writers," and "Popular History of Ireland." He had been bitterly hostile to the Fenian movement from its inception, and his assassination was probably due to this hostility.

April 8.—WETHERALL, SIR GEORGE AUGUSTUS, G. C. B., Governor of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, and late Adjutant-General of the English Army, died at Sandhurst. He was born in 1788, educated in the Senior Department of the Royal Military College, and

entered the army in 1803. He served in the Cape; in the conquest of Java, as aide-de-camp to his father (General Sir F. Wetherall); was military secretary to the Commander-in-Chief of Madras, from 1822 to 1825; was Deputy Judge Advocate-General in India in 1826; aided in suppressing the insurrection of 1837-'38 in Canada, for which service he was made a Companion of the Order of the Bath; and was Deputy Adjutant-General in Canada from 1843 to 1850, when he was appointed to that office at headquarters, and in 1854 was made adjutant-general, which post he held until, in 1860, he took command of the northern district. At the expiration of his services in 1865, he was appointed Governor of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst. He was created a K. C. B. in 1856, and a G. C. B. in 1865.

April 12.—**SALISBURY, JAMES BROWNLOW WILLIAM GASCOYNE CECIL**, second Marquis of, died at his residence, Hatfield House, Herts. He was born April 17, 1791, was Lord-Lieutenant of Middlesex, and represented Weymouth in the Conservative interest from 1814 to June, 1823, when he succeeded his father as second marquis. He served in the Herts militia, was appointed a Deputy-Lieutenant of Argyleshire in 1859, and, upon the death of Lord Dacre, was unanimously elected chairman of the Herts Quarter Sessions. In 1852, under the first administration of Lord Derby, he was Lord Privy Seal, and in 1858-'59 Lord President of the Council. The marquis was a staunch and consistent Conservative, and a bold defender of the agricultural interest. He was made D. C. L. at Oxford in 1834, and a Knight of the Garter in 1842.

April 13.—**BENTLEY, SAMUEL**, an English publisher, editor, and author, died at Croydon, in the 83d year of his age. He was educated at St. Paul's School, and afterward as a printer, which business he followed successfully until 1853, when the partial failure of his sight induced him to relinquish it altogether. He was a man of good scholarship and refined taste. Among the many important works by which he will be remembered is the "Excerpta Historica," the contributions of Sir Charles Young, Sir Harry Nicolas, Mr. Hardy, and others, which were edited by Mr. Bentley with peculiar care.

April 14.—**ROMER, MISS**, a celebrated operatic singer of the English lyric stage, died at Margate, aged 52 years. She made her *début* at Covent Garden Theatre, October 16, 1830. Her range of parts was perhaps greater than that of any other singer, her voice a sweet soprano, and her acting excellent. She was particularly successful in Bellini's "Son-nambula," Weber's "Favorita," Rossini's "William Tell," Barnett's "Mountain Sylph," Balfe's "Bohemian Girl," and Benedict's "Crusaders." For several seasons Miss Romer was directress of the English Opera Company at the Surrey Theatre.

April 16.—**PINDAR, REV. JOHN HOTHERSALL**,

Canon of Wells Cathedral, died at West Malvern, aged 74 years. He graduated at Caius College, Cambridge, in 1816, after which he became principal of Codrington College, Barbadoes. Subsequently he was a Canon Residentiary and Prebendary of Wells Cathedral, and principal of Wells Theological College, which latter office he resigned in 1865. He was the author of a volume of "Sermons on the Common Prayer," "Sermons on the Ordination Services," "Sermons on the Holy Days of the Church," "Expository Discourses on the Epistle to Timothy," and some lectures.

April 18.—**SIMPSON, General Sir JAMES, G. C. B.**, late Commander-in-Chief of the English Army, died at Horringer, near Bury St. Edmund's. He was born in 1792, educated at Edinburgh, entered the service in 1811, took an active part in the Peninsular War, and in 1813 was promoted to the rank of captain. After recovering from a severe wound received at Quatre Bras, he served on the staff in Ireland, and subsequently held an important command in the Mauritius, where he won a high reputation as a meritorious officer. He served under Sir C. Napier throughout the Indian campaign of 1845, receiving commendation from the governor-general. On the outbreak of the Crimean War, in 1854, he was sent out as chief of staff, and subsequently, against his own inclination, was appointed successor to Lord Raglan as commander-in-chief, and for his services was promoted to the rank of general, and made a G. C. B. Soon after he resigned, and in 1863 was appointed colonel of the 29th regiment. Shortly after the close of the Crimean War he took up his residence in Horringer, where he lived in retirement until his decease.

April 23.—**COPLEY, Miss SUSANNAH**, the second daughter and youngest child of John Singleton Copley, R. A., a celebrated painter of the era of our American Revolution, and sister of the late Lord Lyndhurst, died in London, aged 94 years. She was born in Boston, Mass., but her father migrated to England when she was but an infant. She enjoyed every advantage of education, and was a woman of remarkable talent and culture. She retained her faculties to the last, and her conversation was interesting, from her vivid recollection and interesting reminiscences of the scenes and associates of her youth.

April 23.—**HEREFORD, Rt. Rev. RENN DICKSON HAMPDEN**, Lord Bishop of, died in London. He was born on the Island of Barbadoes, in 1793, where his father, Renn Hampden, a military officer, resided; graduated at Oriel College, Oxford, in 1813, with first-class honors, and the following year was elected to a fellowship. He was thus brought into intimate associations with such men as Keble, Newman, Pusey, Davidson, Whately, and Arnold. Vacating his fellowship by an early marriage, he resided for a short time at Bath, and subsequently held the curacies of Newton,

Faringdon, and Hackney. In 1828 he returned to Oxford and undertook the college tutorship. In 1829-'30 and again in 1831-'32 he was examiner in the schools, and in 1832 was selected to preach the Bampton Lectures. His subject was "The Scholastic Philosophy considered in its Relation to Christian Theology." The lectures were learned, deep, and abstruse, but very few ever read them, even of those who subsequently protested against their orthodoxy. In 1833, Dr. Hampden was nominated by Lord Grenville Principal of St. Mary's Hall, Oxford, and in 1834 appointed University Professor of Moral Philosophy, and delivered a very able course of lectures on that subject. In 1836, against strong opposition, Lord Melbourne appointed him Regius Professor of Divinity in the university, and he retained this position, though unpopular, both from his supposed Liberal tendencies and the heaviness of his lectures, until 1847, when the See of Hereford becoming vacant, Lord John Russell nominated him to it, and he was consecrated against the protest of many of the bishops. He was studious, quiet, reserved, but never popular as a bishop. His published works, and his numerous contributions to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, all indicate his profound and varied learning, and are exhaustive of their respective subjects, and sometimes, perhaps, also of their readers.

April —.—LE SAINT, Lieutenant ———, a French geographer and explorer sent out by the Geographical Society of Paris to explore the White Nile district and penetrate thence through Darfour into Bornu and the Fellatah empire, died at Abou-Kouka, one hundred and twenty miles north of Gondokoro, Sennaar, of paludal fever, aged about 30 years. He was a brave, accomplished, and enthusiastic traveller, and had undertaken his perilous journey with high hopes of rendering large service to science. The communications which he had already made to the Society were full of interest.

May 15.—ABYSSINIA, WOIZERO TOURNISH, Queen of, widow of Theodorus, died in the English camp, in Abyssinia, of consumption, aged 25 years. She was said to have been a woman of grace, wit, and beauty. Her only child, the boy prince, was brought to England to be educated.

May 15.—ANDREA, H. E., Cardinal d', an Italian ecclesiastical dignitary, died at Rome. He was a native of Naples, and was descended from a wealthy patrician family of great political influence. He was liberal in his views, and, while consistently discharging his high duties as Cardinal of the Church of Rome, strongly urged political reforms, and was friendly to the new kingdom of Italy. This made him many enemies, and subjected him to constant excitement and embarrassment until the day of his death. Some months before his decease he obtained leave of absence from Rome, and, with the consent of the Pope, took up his abode in Naples.

May 19.—GUINNESS, Sir BENJAMIN LEE, Bart., M. P., a wealthy, liberal citizen of Dublin, died in London, aged 69 years. He inherited great wealth, which was increased by a long and successful mercantile career, and was liberally dispensed for the good of the public. In 1860 he entered upon the work of restoring St. Patrick's Cathedral in Dublin, fitting it for the imposing ceremonies of the inauguration of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales; the labor extending over a period of five years, and the expenses, amounting to £150,000, being met from his own purse. In recognition of this he was presented by Lord Derby with the honor of a baronetcy.

May 22.—HALFORD, Sir HENRY, Bart., an eminent classical scholar and writer, died in England, aged 71 years. He was for nearly thirty years the Conservative member of Parliament for South Leicester, and during that time did much for the amelioration of the condition of the working-classes in his country. Since his retirement from public life, he had devoted much time and research to the history of the French Revolution. He was familiar with the works of the chief French and German political philosophers, economists, and historians, and was a correct composer in the Latin language, both in verse and prose.

May 22.—FLUCKER, JULIUS, F. R. S., a German physicist, author, and professor at the University of Bonn; died there, aged 67 years. Nearly his whole life was spent in scientific research and professional duties. His writings embraced mathematics, chemistry, mechanics, and magnetism; his latest works being three papers published in the "Philosophical Transactions," "On the Spectra of Gases and Vapors," "On a new Geometry of Space," and "Fundamental Views regarding Mechanics." He was a member of the Royal Society, from which, in 1866, he received the Copley medal.

May 24.—MÜHLFELD, ———, J. U. D., an Austrian jurist, philosopher, and statesman, died at Hitzing, near Vienna, aged about 54 years. He was a thorough liberal in his political views, hostile to the temporal power of the Pope, and bitterly opposed to the Concordat, which he aided in abolishing, but was at the same time a very exemplary Roman Catholic. He had already attained distinction as a lecturer on law in the University of Vienna, when, at the time of the revolution in 1848, he was elected by the students of the university to the Frankfort Parliament, and took an active part in the movements for German unity under the leadership of Austria. The reaction which followed this revolution substituted for a time despotism for law, and, finding that his avocation was gone, he became a barrister, and very soon the first lawyer in Vienna. Meantime the reaction had run its course, and more liberal counsels prevailed. Under the influence of these, Mühlfeld was again elected to the *Reichsrath*, or Austrian Parliament, and by several constituencies. His liberal views and

his high character for integrity were, however, not popular in a Parliament so venal as the first to which he was elected, but in subsequent years he made his influence felt in favor of liberal reforms. The Concordat, which he had so long fought, was abolished on the day he was buried.

May —.—**BURNET, JOHN**, an eminent engraver, and author of works on art, died in London, aged 84 years. He was a native of Scotland, and relative of Bishop Burnet, of Salisbury. Removing to London, he devoted himself to the art of etching and engraving, and rapidly rose to fame and independence. His engravings of Wilkie's and Rembrandt's pictures in the London National Gallery were specimens of a high order of artistic skill. He was the author of a work entitled "Practical Hints on Painting."

May —.—**CORMENIN, LOUIS MARIE DE LA HAYE**, Vicomte de, a distinguished French jurist and publicist, died in Paris. He was born in Paris, January 6, 1788, and was educated for the law. In 1810 he was appointed auditor of the Council of State, and drew up several of its most important reports. In 1828 he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, and was reelected from that time until 1846. His extensive knowledge of jurisprudence, and of the practical affairs of government, and the clear and logical force with which he could present his ideas, either by speech or writing, secured him an immense influence in public affairs. After the revolution of 1848 he had the honor of being elected to the Chamber by four departments, and was nominated president of the commission for remodelling the constitution. In this capacity he strongly advocated universal suffrage. After the *coup d'état* he was appointed member of the Council of State. In 1855 he was elected a member of the Institute. Besides his many pamphlets, Cormenin was the author of "Études sur les Orateurs Parlementaires" (two volumes), and a valuable work on the administrative law of France.

June 4. — **WARD, NATHANIEL BAGSHAW**, F. R. S., an eminent surgeon and botanist, died in London. After some years of devotion to his professional duties, he retired therefrom, and pursued his favorite study of natural history. He was the inventor of the "Wardian Cases," in which the beautiful ferns of tropical climates are transferred to other countries. His exquisite "Fernery" was at one time one of the sights of London.

June 5. — **SHREWSBURY, HENRY JOHN CHETWYND TALBOT**, eighteenth Earl of, and third Earl Talbot, an admiral of the British Navy, died at Shrewsbury, England. He was born in 1803, entered the Royal Navy in 1817, took part in the battle of Navarino in 1826, was made a captain in 1827, and at the time of his death was an admiral on the reserved list. As a member of the House of Commons, from 1830 to 1832, and again from 1837 to 1849, he

was a strong supporter of the Conservative party, but never won any distinction. On his father's death in 1849, he succeeded to the earldom of Talbot. In 1857, on the death of Bertram, seventeenth Earl of Shrewsbury, Earl Talbot laid claim to the earldom of Shrewsbury, and in 1858 this claim was recognized by the House of Lords. As Earl Shrewsbury he was Premier Earl of England.

June 14. — **SMITH, Major HENRY**, Royal Marines, an accomplished antiquarian, botanist, and amateur actor, died at Southsea, Hants, aged 75 years. He was born in the Isle of Wight; entered the Royal Marine Corps toward the close of the war between Great Britain and France, and held repeated commands under Sir Charles Napier, whose friendship he ever maintained. Repeated appointments to the Mediterranean station enabled him to employ his leisure in antiquarian excursions and in the study of music. As a botanist he earned considerable reputation, and for many years was engaged in the compilation of a work somewhat on the plan of Paxton's "Botanical Dictionary." He also left in manuscript a vocabulary of words peculiar to the Isle of Wight. He had some dramatic talent, which was developed by amateur performances in some of the chief Italian cities, and also in England, by which large sums were raised for charitable purposes.

June 16. — **CRISP, Rev. T. S., D. D.**, an English Baptist clergyman, died at Cotham, Bristol, aged 80 years. He was educated in an independent college, and in one of the universities of Scotland, but subsequently, having adopted Baptist views, became joint tutor in the Baptist College in Bristol, and was co-pastor with Dr. Ryland in 1818. Upon the demise of Dr. Ryland, Dr. Crisp became president of the college, and in this relation, and that of Broadmead Church as co-pastor, he was associated with such illustrious men as Robert Hall, John Foster, and Dr. Summers. The degree of Doctor of Divinity was conferred upon him by an American college. Dr. Crisp was a man of fine scholarship, but of singular modesty and even diffidence.

June 16. — **PONSONBY, Colonel ARTHUR E. V.**, an officer of the British Army, died of cholera, at Jubbulpore. He was born at Valetta, in 1827, while his father, Sir Frederick Ponsonby, was Governor of Malta; entered the army in 1852, and served on the mountains and in the kloofs of Kaffirland. In 1854 he was transferred to the Grenadier Guards, and was employed in the Crimea on the staff of Sir George Brown and Sir W. Codrington. At the conclusion of the war, he was appointed aide-de-camp to Sir G. Buller in the Ionian Isles. In 1864 he was in command of a corps stationed in Kildare, where he had the opportunity of carrying out a favorite idea of employing soldiers in industrial pursuits as the best mode of preventing vice. In furtherance of this object, he established a military exhibi-

tion of the works of art by the men of his battalion. The project proved a success, and the example was followed at other military stations. When subsequently his battalion served in India, he continued to stimulate his men to persevere in the occupations which accorded with their taste.

June 17.—ARNOTT, DR. GEORGE A. WALKER, Professor of Botany in the University of Glasgow, died in that city, aged 69 years. He was the author of several important botanical works.

June 30.—BASTIANINI, GIOVANNI, an Italian sculptor. He began his life as a stone-breaker in the quarries, but, evincing a fine artistic taste, was educated by Treglierami, the famous collector of Tuscan antiquities. He worked in the studio of Fedi, producing busts and groups in marble and terra-cotta for the Florentine antiquarian Freppa. In 1865, at the Paris Industrial Exposition, a terra-cotta bust, marked in the catalogue as the portrait of Jerome Benivieni, attracted the attention of connoisseurs, who decided unanimously that it was the product of the fifteenth or sixteenth century. Subsequently it was sold for a large sum to the Imperial Museum, and it was not until toward the close of 1867 discovered to have been the portrait of an old tobacco-roller, who had sat, day after day, to Bastianini. Other works also, among which was a bust of Savonarola, and of a Florentine singer, supposed to have been *antique*, were proved to have been his own. Having sold them himself for comparatively insignificant sums, his patrons had, unknown to him, profited largely by allowing them to pass as antique specimens. It was just as his dreams of fame were about to be realized that he was carried off by the Florentine plague.

June —.—CAPENDU, ERNEST, a French novelist and dramatist, died of softening of the brain, in Paris, aged 40 years. He was the son of a wine-merchant, and born in affluence, but early ran through his property, and in his struggles for a livelihood turned his attention to his pen. He was the author of a popular comedy, "Les Faux Bonhommes," and also of several novels.

July 10.—NAYLOR, REV. W., an English Wesleyan clergyman, died at his residence, Holyhead Road, aged 86 years. His itinerant labors continued from 1802 until the Conference of 1862 (threescore years), when he became a "supernumerary." He was pastor of most of the leading circuits of the connection, and chairman of influential districts. Through more than half a century he was identified with every great movement of Methodism. He was one of the ministers that took part in the formation of the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society, and was spared to preach one of the sermons at its jubilee.

July 12.—TALON, VICOMTE CERTUS, a French soldier and sportsman, died near Aix-la-Chapelle, of cancer of the stomach. He was a Frenchman by birth, but English in all

his tastes and pursuits. Though surrounded by the luxuries of wealth and position, when the Crimean War broke out he enlisted in the British service, and proved himself a gallant officer. In sporting circles he became widely known, and was one of the most daring steeple-chase riders in Europe.

July 13.—KIRWAN, VERY REV. ANTONY LA-TOUCHE, D. D., a clergyman of the Established Church of Ireland, Dean of Limerick since 1849, died in that city. He was son of the celebrated Dean Kirwan of St. Patrick's, Dublin, who was the friend of Burke, Sheridan, and the other great wits and orators of Ireland at the close of the last century.

July 16.—PISAREF, DIMITRY, an eminent Russian philosopher and essayist, died near Revel, in Esthonia, aged 28 years. At the early age of sixteen he became a student in the University of St. Petersburg, and, after having greatly distinguished himself there, at the age of nineteen he was intrusted with the direction of the critical department of the journal styled *Razsvyet* or *Dawn*. His articles in that paper and in the *Russkoe Slovo*, or *Russian Word*, of which he became in 1861 the chief support, soon attracted great attention, especially those on "The Scholastic Philosophy of the Nineteenth Century" and "The Idealism of Plato." For several years he continued to write upon philosophy, history, science, and literature, and with such industry that his collected essays fill more than ten volumes. His influence soon became very great, especially with the younger generation of readers. But after a time his writings became obnoxious to the Government. In 1862 he was arrested on a charge of political agitation, and, after having been kept two years in confinement, was sentenced to be imprisoned in a fortress for two years more. It was during his imprisonment that his most brilliant essays were written, for his literary activity was not thereby affected. But when he was released, owing to the amnesty granted on the occasion of the marriage of the Czarevich, his health was found to be considerably impaired. In the summer of 1868, he was sent by his physicians to a seaside watering-place near Revel, and there was seized with a fit while bathing, and died immediately.

July 18.—COYNE, JOSEPH STIRLING, an Irish dramatist, antiquarian, and author, died in London, aged 65 years. He was the son of an officer in the Irish commissariat, and was born at Birr, King's County, in 1805; was educated at Dungannon School, and studied law, but, finding it distasteful, relinquished it, and in 1837 went to England and soon established a reputation as a playwright. Continuing to furnish the London theatres with dramas, comedies, and farces, he found time to write several works of fiction, and a book on the "Scenery and Antiquities of Ireland." Mr. Coyne was associated with Mr. Mark Lemon, Mr. Henry Mayhew, and other *littérateurs* of the light school, in the establishment of *Punch*.

July 21.—THOMAS, GEORGE HOUSMAN, a distinguished English artist and designer, died at Boulogne, France. He was born in London, December 7, 1824, studied engraving in Paris, and in 1845 came to the United States and accepted an engagement to illustrate a newspaper. After the expiration of about two years he went to Italy, and was in Rome during the siege of that city by the French. Many of his sketches of the siege appeared in *The Illustrated London News* at the time, and on his return to England, in 1849, he painted a picture of "Garibaldi at the Siege of Rome," which was exhibited at the Royal Academy. His drawings in *The Illustrated News* attracted the attention of Queen Victoria, and he received a commission from her Majesty to paint "The Queen Giving the Medals to the Crimean Heroes," exhibited at the Academy. Until very recently, much of his time had been taken up by designs for books; and ill-health, from which he suffered for many years, prevented him from giving his time entirely to painting.

July 30.—GARNER, THOMAS, a distinguished line engraver, died at Birmingham, at an advanced age. His chief engravings in the pure line style were the small series of Hogarth's "Rake's Progress," many of Daniel's Indian subjects, and some of the *Art Journal* engravings. Mr. Garner was a member of the Royal Birmingham Society of Artists.

July —. LIMAYEAC, PAULIN, an able political and belles-lettres writer, died in Paris. He was born at Caussade, February 20, 1817, and began his literary career in 1840. From 1843 to 1845 he was one of the editors of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and contributed to other periodicals. In 1849 he wrote a five-act comedy, "La Comédie en Espagne," which, though never played, owing to political events, obtained for him, in 1855, the Cross of Commander of the Order of Charles III. of Spain. From 1852 to 1855 he was literary editor of the *Presse* newspaper, and in May, 1856, he became one of the political editors of the *Constitutionnel*. He was also a writer for the *Patrie*, and in June, 1861, became editor-in-chief of the *Pays*, a position he left in October of the same year for the *Constitutionnel*. He was decorated with the Legion of Honor in 1856, and in 1861 was promoted to be a Grand Officer.

Aug. 2.—BLAKENEX, Field-Marshal Sir EDWARD, G. C. B., Governor of Chelsea Hospital, and senior officer in the British Army; died at the Hospital, aged 90 years. He entered the army at an early age; saw service in the West Indies; took part in the expedition to Holland; served through the Peninsular campaigns with distinction, winning much honor at Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, Vittoria, and Pampeluna. In 1814 he served in America, and the following year at Waterloo. From 1838 he held for many years command of the forces in Ireland. In 1855 he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Chelsea Hospital, and upon the death of Sir Colin Halkett, two months after, was made

Governor. Sir Edward held a commission seventy-four years. In 1862 he received the baton of a field-marshal.

Aug. 3.—PERTHES, BOUCHER DE CREVECEUR, founder of the science of Paleontology, and an eminent geologist, died at Abbeville, France, aged 80 years. He was the first to call the attention of the scientific world to those remarkable relics of the earliest ages, the flint implements used by man before the discovery of metals. After enduring the ridicule of the incredulous as a visionary, he succeeded in proving that there had been in Europe an age of stone. His valuable collection of flint implements now forms an important part of the Gallo-Roman Museum, at St. Germain.

Aug. 5.—LUSHINGTON, Rt. Hon. STEPHEN RUMBOLD, M. P., formerly Secretary of the Treasury, and Governor of Madras, died in Kent, aged 93 years. He was the son of the late Rev. J. S. Lushington, was born in 1775, and received his education at Rugby. He was returned to the House of Commons as member for Rye, in 1807, and afterward for Canterbury. He was for nearly fourteen years chairman of Ways and Means in the House of Commons, and from 1814 till 1827 Joint Secretary to the Treasury. From 1827 till 1832 he was Governor of Madras, and while holding that position he published the "Life and Services of General Lord Harris," whose daughter he married. He was sworn a Privy Councillor in 1827, and was created an honorary D. C. L., by the University of Oxford.

Aug. 10.—COOKE, JOHN DOUGLAS, an English journalist, died in London. He served an early apprenticeship to the press, having been connected from his youth with both daily and weekly papers; was for some years editor of the *London Morning Chronicle*, and since that time, of the *Saturday Review*. Though not a great writer, he was a journalist in the most practical sense of the word, his administrative ability, taste, and judgment enabling him to meet the requirements of the time, and gratify, while moulding, the public taste.

Aug. 14.—HIGGINS, MATTHEW JAMES, better known to the reading world as "Jacob Omnium," died at his residence in London, aged about 53 years. He was educated at Eton, where he was the contemporary of Mr. Gladstone, and afterward graduated at New College, Oxford. For several years he held a commission in the British Army. He was for a long period an attaché of the *London Times*, and a valued contributor to many of the English periodicals. At first he wrote over various *nommes de plume*, but he finally adopted that of "Jacob Omnium." His style was terse and vigorous, and as a satirist he was so severe as to inspire fear. He was a man of sterling honesty, dauntless courage, and yet possessing a remarkably genial nature.

Aug. 25.—VAN LENNER, JACOB, a brilliant Dutch writer and novelist, died at Amsterdam. He was born in 1802. He was the author of a

vast number of tales, some of which were translated into English. He also translated into Dutch some of Shakespeare's plays, and certain selections from modern English poets.

Aug. 26.—HUGO, Madame ADELE FOUCHER, wife of the poet and novelist, died at Brussels, aged about 62 years. In 1822 she was married to Victor Hugo, an attachment having sprung up between them in childhood, and through life she was ever his constant and devoted friend and companion, rejoicing with him in the days of his prosperity and afterward sharing with him and brightening his exile. In 1863, she prepared a life of her husband under the title "Victor Hugo raconté par un témoin de sa vie" (2 vols.).

Aug. 28.—MOHAMMED, ISHMAEL KHAN AGA, an eccentric Persian gentleman residing in Paris, died in that city, aged about 78 years. He was the son of a distinguished Oriental diplomatist, who, having been sent by the Shah of Persia on a mission to the English authorities at Bombay, was accidentally killed in a riot through the wanton carelessness of some English officials. Through the Shah, the son received a pension of £5,000, which was regularly transmitted to him for the last forty years of his life. He lived in the Rue Rivoli, opposite the Tuilleries, dressed in rich Oriental costume, and was a regular attendant upon the opera and theatre, but allowed himself no associates or correspondents, living in the strictest seclusion, though occasionally admitting members of the English and Persian Legations as visitors. In a quiet way he assisted the public charities, but his desire seemed to be to shroud himself in mystery.

Aug. 30.—SMITH, GEORGE, D. D., an English Wesleyan preacher and author, died at Camborne, Eng., aged 68 years. He was the son of a carpenter, and was educated in a Lancasterian school. One of his first productions was a lecture on the "Chronology of the Book of Genesis," which was soon followed by an essay on the "Origin and Antiquity of Alphabetical Characters." Then came the "Religion of Ancient Britain historically considered." After some years he published his "Sacred Annals," which have been reprinted in this country—and "Lectures to Local Preachers," in parts, which were imported from England. Dr. Smith's most popular work, however, is his "History of Wesleyan Methodism," which has furnished much of the most valuable matter in Dr. Stevens's History.

Aug. —.—BEX, Dr. CLOT, an eminent physician of Marseilles, France; died there, aged 75 years. He had acquired a well-merited reputation by his success in establishing medical instruction and practice in Egypt. During the last ten years he lived in France in retirement, but had long been associate of the most important academies of Europe, and Commander of the Legion of Honor.

Aug. —.—CATTERMOLE, GEORGE, an eminent English water-color artist, died in London,

aged 68 years. He was born in Norfolk. When quite young he excelled as a draughtsman, and contributed some fine drawings to "Britton's Cathedrals." At the age of thirty he commenced exhibiting at the "Water Color Society," continuing to do so for twenty years. He particularly excelled in wild, romantic pictures, depicting with great taste scenes from the civil wars. Among scriptural subjects, his best work is "Christ Preaching on the Steps of the Temple." He received a medal at the French Exhibition of 1855.

Aug. —.—WAAGEN, GUSTAV FRIEDRICH, a German author and art critic, died at Copenhagen. He was born in Hamburg, February 11, 1794. He began life as an artist, but, in 1813, laid aside his pencil for the musket, and served as a volunteer in the Prussian army. Retiring from the war, he resumed his studies in the galleries of Berlin, Dresden, Heidelberg, and Munich, establishing himself in the latter city in 1820, where he published his first work, a pamphlet on the Egyptian mummies. In 1823 he was appointed director of the Royal Gallery of Paintings in Berlin, and, in 1832, of the portrait gallery of the new Museum in that city. In 1844 he delivered a course of instruction at the University of Berlin, on the history of art. In 1837 he published an elaborate work on "Art History and Criticism in England and France." In 1854, "Treasures of Art in Great Britain," followed by a supplementary volume in 1858. He was also the author of other volumes upon art, and a variety of miscellaneous essays.

Sept. 17.—MAJORIBANKS, EDWARD, Sen., an English banker, partner in Coutts's Bank, died at Greenlands, Bucks County, aged 94 years. He was born in Lees, Berwickshire, and educated at the University of Edinburgh, where he was a favorite pupil of Dugald Stewart. Subsequently he obtained a scholarship at Balliol College, Oxford, but did not reside there, having been taken into the banking establishment of his relative, Thomas Coutts. In 1797 he became junior partner of the firm, and forty years after was senior partner, holding that position for a period of thirty-one years. He was a man of determined energy of character, firm in his integrity, and genial in his nature.

Sept. 19.—SEFTON, JOHN, a celebrated English actor, died in New York City. He was born in Liverpool, January 15, 1805, and was educated for the bar, but preferred the stage. His principal reputation was attained as a low comedy actor, and in the representation of certain characters in that line he had no superior either in England or the United States. He began his professional career at the age of sixteen. In the year 1827 he came to this country, and was engaged for two seasons at the Walnut Street Theatre, Philadelphia. Mr. Webster, of the Adelphi Theatre, London, had written a comic drama called "The Golden Farmer," and he presented a copy of it to his friend, Sefton. This drama contains the great

part of Jemmy Twitcher, with its "Oh, Mowse," and "Vel, vot hof it!" which Mr. Sefton first acted in Philadelphia, in 1834, without making any particular sensation. But, in a short time after, Manager Dinneford built the little New Franklin Theatre in New York, and engaged him as his low comedian. The first season at the New Franklin proceeded very quietly, until, at three days' notice, "The Golden Farmer" was produced. Mr. Sefton did not then care much for the part of Jemmy Twitcher. Indeed, it was one of the only two characters he ever refused to play. But, from its first night in New York, it was a decided hit. "The Golden Farmer" was repeated at one hundred and two performances, and was followed up with "Jemmy Twitcher in France." From the profits of those performances Dinneford was able to build the old Bowery Theatre. For many years afterward Mr. Sefton used to star Jemmy Twitcher through the country, when the regular season was over, and it never failed to draw crowded houses and enthusiastic applause. When Niblo's was burned down, Sefton acted as stage manager at the Astor Place Opera House during the performances of an Italian company, and during the celebrated Macready riot. Afterward he was stage manager at Richmond; at the Walnut, Philadelphia, under Marshall; at Charleston and Columbia, S. C., and at New Orleans under Placide. His last appearance was during the latter part of the month of October, 1867, at the Broadway Theatre, for the benefit of Barton Hill, when he appeared in the character which was his greatest success.

Sept. —CORDOVA, FILIPPO, an Italian statesman and orator, Procurator-General and Senator, died at Florence, aged about 66 years. In early life he was distinguished as a barrister. He took an active part in the Revolution of 1848, in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and, upon its suppression by the late King of Naples, fled into exile. Fortunately, however, he obtained the patronage of Count Cavour, who employed him in the Statistical Department of the Board of Agriculture and Commerce in Piedmont. On the annexation of Sicily to Sardinia, Cordova was returned to the Italian Parliament, and he held office under Ricasoli and Ratazzi. He subsequently held the post of Procurator-General of the Court of Cassation, but retired some years since to a senatorial chair. He was an eloquent speaker, and not unlike Burke in style of oratory.

Sept. —REYNOLDS, JOHN, an eminent teacher, botanist, and antiquarian, in London, died in that city, aged 76 years. He was born in Islington, was carefully educated, and, having established a school in St. John's Street, London, labored with untiring devotion there for upward of fifty years. He took an active part in founding the "Mechanics' Institute," also the Botanical Society of Regent's Park, and was an original member of the College of

Preceptors. He was an accomplished antiquarian, and an unwearied advocate of human progress.

Sept. —VIENNET, M., a French academician and author, died in Paris, aged 91 years. He entered the marine artillery in 1796, fought, under the first emperor, at Leipzig, and, upon the second restoration, was made an officer of the royal staff. Disappointed in his military ambition, he early turned his attention to literature. In the time of Louis Philippe he was a peer. In 1824 he published his "Philosophical Promenade in Père la Chaise Cemetery." He subsequently wrote several fables and tragedies, among others, "Clovis" and "Constantin." His academical discourses were models of purity of diction, and some of these, delivered in extreme old age, were among his best.

Oct. 28. —SUTHERLAND, HARRIET ELIZABETH GEORGIANA, Dowager Duchess of, formerly Mistress of the Robes to Queen Victoria, died at her seat, Sutherland Castle. She was a daughter of the sixth Earl of Carlisle, and was born in 1806. In 1823 she was married to the eldest son of the Marquis of Stafford, then Earl of Gower, who, in 1833, became Duke of Sutherland. She was Mistress of the Robes to Queen Victoria, under the Liberal ministries, until the death of her husband, in 1861, when she retired from the brilliant circle in which she had moved a prominent figure. She was noted, in youth, for her extraordinary beauty, and through life her character presented a happy blending of delicacy and gentleness with firmness and decision. The late duchess greatly distinguished herself by her active support of the public movement of 1853, in deprecation of American slavery, and by her liberal encouragement of the fine arts.

Oct. —CICÉRI, PIERRE LUC CHARLES, a celebrated French scene-painter, died in Paris, aged 86 years. He was born at St. Cloud, in 1782, and displayed so decided a talent for music that, at the age of fourteen, he was an excellent violinist, and also something of an operatic composer. After studying twelve years at the *Conservatoire de Musique*, an accident, which unfitted him for a public singer, obliged him to turn from vocal music to drawing, and, as a pupil of Bellangé, he soon distinguished himself in the art of decoration and scene-painting. In 1810 he was intrusted by Jérôme Bonaparte, King of Westphalia, with the decorations of the chief theatre of Cassel. In 1826 he superintended the coronation festivities of Charles X.

Oct. —FARRANT, Colonel FRANCIS, an English diplomatist, and officer in the British Army, died at Dover, England, aged 64 years. He was formerly in the diplomatic service in the East. Having joined the Bombay Cavalry, he was employed by Lord William Bentinck in Persia, and afterward was secretary to the English minister plenipotentiary in that country. He was also secretary of legation and

chargé d'affaires at the court of Persia. He resigned his appointment at the court of Teheran in 1852, and was promoted to a colonelcy in 1855.

Oct. —.—HILDEBRANDT, EDOUARD, a geographical painter, died in Berlin. He was born in Dantzic, and had made a considerable local reputation as a landscape-painter when, through the influence of Humboldt, he was sent to Brazil to paint the scenery of that country. Afterward he came to this country, and established himself in New York, but his success not meeting his expectations, he returned to Prussia and won some fame. His pictures were more valuable as scientific records of scenery than attractive to the public generally.

Oct. —.—SIAM, PHRA-BARD-SAMDETCH-PHRA-PHARAMENDR-MAHA-MONKUT, first King of, died at Bangkok. He was born about 1805, and succeeded his father, Rheu Din Klang, in 1825, by right of his being eldest son of the Queen. He was, however, set aside by one of his elder brothers, and became a Buddhist monk, devoting a large portion of his time to studying dead and modern languages. He acquired a familiar knowledge of the sciences, spoke English with great fluency, and was a member of the Asiatic Society of Great Britain. Upon the death of his brother, in April, 1856, he ascended the throne. Discarding the monastic dress, he took the above title, and immediately instituted several reforms, among which, it may be remarked, that he exercised his troops according to the European system, established a royal printing-press, and granted freedom of worship. In April, 1855, he concluded a treaty of commerce with Great Britain, and in 1856 similar treaties with France and the United States. He paid great attention to the development of the internal resources of his kingdom, and caused numerous roads, canals, etc., to be constructed in various parts of Siam. In 1868 he afforded every possible facility for enabling scientific men, coming from other countries, to take observations of the eclipse.

Oct. —.—TOMMY, a Japanese youth, an *attaché* of the Japanese embassy, which visited the United States in 1860, was killed in one of the late actions near Neegata. His bravery had won for him several promotions. While in this country his brilliancy and quickness of intellect made him a special favorite with the public.

Nov. 9.—JOHNSON, HON. JOHN MERCER, member of the Dominion Parliament for Northumberland, N. B.; died there, aged 50 years. He was born in Liverpool, England, whence his father, who was a timber-merchant, emigrated to New Brunswick. The son, having been educated in the Northumberland County Grammar School, was admitted to the bar in 1840. He soon became a member of the Provincial Legislature, and in 1854 was made Solicitor-General. In 1847 he was made Postmaster-General, and was afterward Speaker of the

House and Attorney-General. He was a member of the Conference which met in Quebec in 1864, and of the London Conference which settled the details of the Confederation Act. When the Union became a fact, he presented himself for election to the voters of Northumberland, and was returned by a large majority.

Nov. 10.—HASTINGS, —, Marquis of, a young English nobleman, died in London, at the age of 26 years. He inherited at an early age a large fortune, consisting principally of landed estates, but his inordinate love for the sports of the turf and his reckless expenditures in different directions speedily reduced him to bankruptcy, and sent him to an early grave.

Nov. 12.—HAVIN, LEONOR JOSEPH, a French publicist and editor, died in Paris. He was born in 1799, at Saint Lô, and received his education in his native land, but his father, having been a member of the National Convention that decreed the death of Louis XVI., was included in the list of proscribed regicides drawn up on the restoration of the Bourbons to the throne of France, and being compelled to leave his country in 1816, his son accompanied him, sharing his exile till 1820. On his return to France, the future journalist joined the young men of the Liberal party, and in 1830 was elected a deputy from the provinces of the west, charged with the duty of instructing the Provisional Government as to the wants and views of the people of the departments. In 1839 he was chosen Secretary of the Chamber of Deputies, to which he had been elected from Saint Lô in 1861, but his liberal views made him obnoxious to the Government, and in 1842, through ministerial influence, he lost his position. Still retaining his seat, however, he ranged himself beside Odillon Barrot, with whom he almost constantly acted in the opposition. In the reform agitation he took a principal part in organizing the banquet of Thorigny, which led to such important results. After the revolution of February he was elected by an overwhelming vote to the Constituent Assembly, and on all political and social questions voted with the Right till December. When Louis Napoleon had been elected President, Havin, allying himself with the Democratic party, exerted himself greatly to prolong the existence of the Constituent Assembly. He was subsequently elected member of the Council of State; and, in 1863, as an opposition candidate, he was chosen to the Corps Législatif, both for Paris and Manche, but decided to sit for the latter. His fame rests principally upon his management of the *Siccle*, of which journal he was editor for several years, conducting it with a judgment and an ability that have given it a foremost rank among the political journals of France, and secured for it a circulation not exceeded perhaps by that of any newspaper of the same class in France.

Dec. 6.—SCHLEICHER, AUGUST, an eminent German philologist and author, died at Jena.

He was born at Meiningen, March 11, 1821, and was educated at the Universities of Leipzig and Tübingen, at the latter of which he was a pupil of Ewald, under whom he studied the Semitic languages, as well as the Sanscrit and the Persian. After spending two years with Ewald, he went to Bonn, where he devoted himself wholly to philology, going through a regular course of study in both the classical and the Oriental languages, under the most distinguished professors. Subsequently he occupied professional chairs in the Universities of Prague and Jena. He repeatedly declined the most honorable appointments in Russia, but, at the request and at the expense of the Imperial Academy of St. Petersburg, wrote a series of works for the promotion of the study of Slavonic philology.

Dec. 9.—DENoyer, LOUIS, a French journalist and novelist, died in Paris. He was one of the founders of the *Charivari* and the *Siccle*.

Dec. 27.—BEERSKI, Count JOHN DE, a Russian nobleman and officer in the Russian Army, died in Rochester, N. Y., aged about 70 years. He was of noble birth, and inherited a large and valuable estate near Moscow, together with 250 serfs; but at an early age entered the army, and was in the campaign against the Turks in 1825. He distinguished himself in the army, and was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel. On his return to St. Petersburg, filled with ideas of liberty which he could not suppress, he emancipated his serfs. In 1826, when Nicholas succeeded to the throne, the count compromised himself in the insurrection of that year, and was obliged to leave his native country and all his possessions, and seek in other countries that liberty of thought and action denied him in his own. He reached Hamburg in safety, and soon began to realize the embarrassment of his situation. Accustomed to wealth and luxury, he now found it necessary to do something to procure the means of subsistence. He was a proficient in eight or ten languages, and thought of offering himself as a teacher, but very soon abandoned the idea. He had cultivated somewhat a taste for drawing, and one day, while examining an ivory miniature, the thought occurred to him to make an effort to paint miniatures. His first attempt was the production of a marvelously correct likeness of a young English lady, without any sitting. Thus he began, and in a short time his works attracted the attention of prominent officers in the Danish Army, by whom he was introduced to the court of the King of Denmark, and recommended to the King of Prussia. Subsequently Count de Beerski removed to Paris, where he continued to attract great notice as an artist. His paintings, which were exhibited at the Crystal Palace, at the World's Fair, in London, 1851, won the first premium. He was afterward employed to paint the royal family of Great Britain. In 1859 he came to the United States, whose free

institutions he greatly admired, and thenceforth made this country his home.

Dec. 27.—MAYNE, Sir RICHARD, K. C. B., Commissioner of London Police, died in that city, aged 72 years. He was a native of Ireland, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1821. The following year he was admitted to the bar at Lincoln's Inn. In 1829, upon the organization of the present London police force, he was appointed one of the commissioners, and his executive ability and untiring energy did much toward rendering that organization so effective. He was a man of marked eccentricity and sometimes was severe in his ideas of discipline, and the riot of Hyde Park was mainly the result of his attempt to suppress the Sunday meetings of workmen. With all his eccentricities, however, he was an excellent officer.

Dec. —.—DELAVIGNE, GERMAIN, a dramatic writer, brother of Casimir Delavigne, died at Montmorency, France, aged 79 years. In 1811 and 1813 he produced the "Dervis," the "Auberge," and "Thibault." He was the friend and collaborer of Scribe, with whom he brought out the "Macon" in 1823, the "Muette" in 1828, the "Somnambule" in 1829, the "Mystères d'Udolphe" in 1852, and the "Nonne Sanglante" in 1854. In conjunction with his brother Casimir, he was the author of "Charles the Sixth," played for the first time in 1843.

Dec. —.—MALLEFILLE, FÉLICIEN, a well-known French dramatist, died in Paris, aged 56 years. He was born in the Isle of France. His first dramatic composition was "Glenarvon," represented in 1835 at the Ambigu Comique. From that time forward he wrote constantly for the stage. Among the best-known of his works are "Psyche," played at the Vaudeville in 1845; "Forta Spada," produced at the Gaité in 1849; "Le Cœur et la Dot" and "Les Deux Veuves," both brought out at the Théâtre Français, the former in 1858, and the latter in 1860; and "Les Mères Repenties," produced at the Porte St. Martin and reproduced at the Vaudeville. His "Susceptiques," written last year for the Théâtre Français, but played at the Théâtre Cluny, was also a great success. At the time of his death M. Mallefille was engaged upon the composition of a piece for M. Harmant of the Vaudeville, entitled "Le Gentilhomme Bourgeois," which remains unfinished.

OHIO. The Legislature of this State met on the first Monday in January, and continued in session until the 18th of May, when it adjourned to meet again on the 23d of November. Rutherford B. Hayes, elected in the preceding fall by the Republican voters for Governor of the State, was inaugurated soon after the opening of the session. The Legislature itself had a small Democratic majority in both branches.

One of the propositions introduced at this

session was embodied in a joint resolution rescinding the action of the Legislature of 1867, by which the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified. This subject was brought forward before the inauguration of Governor Hayes, and in his inaugural address that official alluded to the subject, deprecating any action of the kind contemplated. "I submit," said he, "that nothing has occurred which warrants the opinion that the ratification, by the last General Assembly, of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was not in accordance with the deliberate and settled convictions of the people. That amendment was, after the amplest discussion, upon an issue distinctly presented, sanctioned by a large majority of the people. If any fact exists which justifies the belief that they now wish that the resolution should be repealed, by which the assent of Ohio was given to that important amendment, it has not been brought to the attention of the public." But the majority in the General Assembly appear to have entertained a different opinion from that of the chief executive of the State, and the following resolutions were passed and forwarded to Washington, where, on the 31st of January, they were submitted to the Senate and by that body laid upon the table.

Whereas, on the 11th day of January, A. D. 1867, the following joint resolution was adopted by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, to wit:

Whereas, the General Assembly has received official notification of the passage by both Houses of the Thirty-ninth Congress of the United States, at its first session, of the following proposition to amend the Constitution of the United States, by a constitutional majority of two-thirds thereof, in the words following, to wit:

[The words of the fourteenth constitutional amendment are recited at length.]

Whereas, three-fourths of the Legislatures of the States comprising the United States are required to give assent to the said proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States before it becomes a part thereof: Therefore,

Resolved, by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, That we hereby ratify, on behalf of the State of Ohio, the above recited proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

Resolved, That certified copies of the foregoing preamble and resolution be forwarded by the Governor of Ohio to the President of the United States, to the Presiding Officer of the United States Senate, and the Speaker of the United States House of Representatives.

And *whereas* no amendment to the Constitution of the United States is valid until duly ratified by three-fourths of all the States composing the United States, and, until such ratification is completed, any State has a right to withdraw her assent to any proposed amendment:

And *whereas* several distinct propositions are combined in the same proposed amendment, several of which are already fully provided for in the Constitution of the United States, and to which no person or party objects: Therefore,

Be it resolved, by the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, That the above recited resolution be, and the same is hereby, rescinded, and the ratification, on behalf of the State of Ohio, of the above-recited pro-

posed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, is hereby withdrawn and refused.

Resolved, That copies of the foregoing preamble and resolution, certified to by the Speaker of the House of Representatives and the President of the Senate, be forwarded to the President of the United States, to each of our Senators and Representatives in Congress, and to each of the Governors of the respective States.

Resolved, That the President of the United States be respectfully requested to cause to be forwarded to the Governor of Ohio any and all papers on file in the executive department at Washington, certifying the ratification by the General Assembly of Ohio of said proposed constitutional amendment, and that the Presiding Officer of the United States Senate and the Speaker of the United States House of Representatives be requested to return to the same officer any certificate that may have been filed with them, or either of them, on the subject of said ratification.

JOHN F. FOLLETT,

Speaker of the House of Representatives,
J. C. LEE, President of the Senate.

January 15, A. D. 1868.

Several Republican members of the Legislature entered protests against this action, and it was moved that these protests be forwarded to Washington also; but this proposition was rejected by a strict party vote.

At a later period in the session, another resolution of the General Assembly of Ohio was presented to the Senate of the United States by Mr. Sherman, one of the Senators from that State, who asked that it be read, and then allowed to lie on the table. It was, he said, rather an extraordinary resolution, but he felt it to be his duty to present it. This was a "Joint Resolution protesting against the reconstruction acts of Congress, and against the passage of certain bills" then pending before that body, and instructing the Senators and requesting the Representatives from Ohio "to vote for the repeal of the former, and against the passage of the latter;" and was in these words:

Whereas, the Congress of the United States has enacted laws and is now considering measures which, if enacted into laws, are, in the opinion of this General Assembly, in direct conflict with the plainest provisions of the Constitution: Therefore,

Be it resolved, 1. That this General Assembly does protest against the acts of Congress commonly called the reconstruction acts, because the same are subversive of the rights of the States, the liberty and prosperity of the people, and the constitutional powers of the executive and judicial departments of the Federal Government, and our Senators in Congress are hereby instructed, and our Representatives in Congress requested, to vote for the repeal of all said acts.

2. That this General Assembly does protest against the passage of the bill now pending in Congress requiring the concurrence of two-thirds of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States to pronounce an act of Congress unconstitutional, because said proposition is plainly unconstitutional, and is an attempt to destroy the judicial department of the Government.

3. And this General Assembly does also protest against the passage of the bill now pending in Congress, to take from the Supreme Court and other courts of the United States jurisdiction in cases arising under said reconstruction acts, because said bill proposes to deny to the people any redress for wrongs and injuries they may suffer, to destroy the just and necessary powers of the judicial tribunals,

and to subject the country to an uncontrolled and uncontrollable military despotism; and our Senators in Congress are hereby instructed, and our Representatives in Congress requested, to oppose and vote against the passage of said bills.

4. That the Governor is hereby requested to forward a copy of these resolutions to each of our Senators and Representatives in Congress, and to each of the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States.

JOHN F. FOLLETT,

Speaker of the House of Representatives.

J. C. LEE, President of the Senate.

Adopted April 13, 1868.

These resolutions were adopted in the Legislature after a protracted discussion, by a strict party vote.

When the bill for readmitting the State of Alabama to the Union was before the United States Senate, the following was sent to that body by the Legislature of Ohio:

Resolved, That the bill introduced in the Senate of the United States by the Hon. John Sherman, one of the Senators from this State, declaring the pretended constitution of the State of Alabama ratified, after it has been rejected by a majority of the votes of said State, under the provisions of the law under which it was submitted, is another proof of the utter want of good faith on the part of the friends of the so-called Congressional system of reconstruction, and is an additional evidence of their intention to overthrow, by force or fraud, the Constitution of the United States, and establish in its stead the government of an irresponsible Congressional Directory, backed by the bayonets of a military chieftain.

Resolved, That this General Assembly does protest against thus forcing on a sister State a constitution made by disfranchising any one who refused to take a test oath in favor of negro suffrage, and that we will never recognize as legitimate any State Government, so established by Congressional usurpation, and our Senators in Congress are directed, and our Representatives requested, to vote against said bill.

A large portion of the time of the legislators was given to the consideration of the question of what constituted a "white" man. The Constitution of 1851 gave the suffrage only to white male citizens, and it has since been several times decided by the courts of the State, that any person otherwise qualified could exercise the privilege of voting if he had a preponderance of "white blood." The subject was brought up in the last Legislature by a case of contested election. Mr. H. C. Jones was elected to the Senate from the Eighth Senatorial District by a majority of the votes actually cast, but Mr. H. M. Onderdonk appeared to contest his right to a seat in that body on the ground that a part of the persons voting for him had an admixture of African blood, and were therefore disqualified from voting by the provision of the Constitution which gives the suffrage to "white" citizens only. The subject was referred to a committee, who reported in favor of ousting Mr. Jones and giving the seat to Mr. Onderdonk, alleging that a "visible admixture" of African blood was sufficient to disqualify a person from voting. Their report was adopted by a vote of 18 to 16. This action was afterward fortified by the passage of a law, known as the "visible admixture law," which made it the

duty of the election judges to challenge the vote of every person who had a visible admixture of African blood, under a heavy penalty for disregarding the requirements of the law. Any person so challenged was required to swear, from his own knowledge, that his parents were married and lived together as husband and wife, that neither of his parents had any visible admixture of African blood, that in the community in which he lived he was classed as a white man and associated with white people, and that his children attended the common schools organized for white children. He was further required to produce two credible witnesses, who could swear that they were acquainted with him and with his parents, and knew of their own knowledge that they had no visible admixture of African blood, and that they were married and lived together as man and wife. After all this had been accomplished, the judges were to tender to him the following oath or affirmation: "You do solemnly swear (or affirm) that, to the best of your knowledge and belief, you are a white male citizen of the United States, and know the fact to be so from a knowledge of both your parents and your pedigree;" and if the judges shall then receive said vote, the words "challenged on the ground of visible admixture of African blood" shall be entered on the poll book opposite said voter's name. A case under this law arose at a special election in Green County, and was taken to the Supreme Court at its June session, on a motion to file a petition in error, and the law was pronounced unconstitutional, null, and void.

Other laws were passed affecting the subject or franchise, among them "an act to preserve the purity of elections," which contains the following provision with regard to students at the various institutions of learning in the State:

A person shall not be considered or held to have gained a residence in any township, city, or incorporated village of this State who may now be in attendance upon, or who shall hereafter come into such township, city, or incorporated village, to attend, any school, seminary, academy, college, or institution of learning located or established therein, as a pupil, scholar, or student, unless the person in attendance in such school, seminary, academy, college, university, or other institution of learning, as such pupil, scholar, or student, was a legally qualified elector of the township, city, or incorporated village, in which the same is located or established, or unless the pupil, scholar, or student, shall upon his oath declare that he has no other place of residence, and that it is his intention to make such township, city, or incorporated village, his place of permanent residence, or unless the parent or parents of such pupil, scholar, or student, had an actual residence therein in accordance with the foregoing provisions of this section, or had removed thereto with the intention of making the same such residence before, at the same time, or since, such attendance commenced.

The inmates of the asylum for disabled soldiers were also disfranchised, and the following provision made regarding the ballots to be used at elections:

That all ballots voted at any election held in pursuance of law shall be written on plain white paper, or printed with black ink on plain white news printing paper, without any device or mark of any description to distinguish one ticket from another, or by which one ticket may be known from another by its appearance, except the words at the head of the ticket; and that it shall be unlawful for any person to print for distribution at the polls, or distribute to any elector, or vote, any ballot printed or written contrary to the provisions of this act; provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to prohibit the erasure, correction, or insertion, of any name by pencil mark or otherwise upon the face of the printed ballot.

Among the other acts of this Legislature is one making it an offence, punishable by imprisonment in the penitentiary for not less than one nor more than ten years, to be engaged as principal in any prize-fight. A bill to remove from office persons guilty of habitual intoxication failed of passage for want of a constitutional majority in the House.

The political conventions were held in the early part of the year. No governor was to be nominated, but several other State officers, together with delegates to the national Conventions and presidential electors, were to be named. The Democratic Convention assembled on the 8th of January, and nominated Thomas Hubbard for Secretary of State, and William E. Finck for Judge of the Supreme Court. The position of the party on the various political questions of the day was defined in a long series of resolutions. The general tenets of the party were set forth in the following:

Resolved, That, unalterably opposed to the doctrines which lead to consolidation, we renew, with unflagging zeal and increased energy, our attachment to that political creed which has ever been so staunchly adhered to by our organization through days of trouble and disaster, as well as good fortune and prosperity; which was thus expressed by Thomas Jefferson: "Equal and exact justice to all men, of whatever state or persuasion—religious or political—peace, commerce, and honest friendship with all nations, entangling alliances with none; the support of the State Governments in all their rights, as the most competent administration of our domestic concerns and the surest bulwark against anti-republican tendencies; the preservation of the General Government in its whole constitutional vigor, as the sheet-anchor of peace at home and safety abroad; a jealous care of the rights of elections by the people, and the supremacy of the civil over the military authority."

With regard to the reconstruction acts of Congress and the position of the negro, they said:

Resolved, That we condemn the legislative usurpations of Congress, and particularly the several acts of reconstruction, so called, as violative of the constitutional compact between the States, and as utterly subversive of every principle of self-government that distinguishes a free people.

Resolved, That we are opposed to any measures which recognize that the integrity of the Union was ever broken—that any of its members were ever out—and that we determinedly insist that the Southern States, no longer being in insurrection, or at war with the Federal Government, are entitled to the full representation in Congress, and the electoral college given to all the States, and that denial of either to them by Congress and its efforts to dictate by military

force a Government for them are unconstitutional, revolutionary, and despotic.

Resolved, That we are opposed, both in principle and policy, to negro suffrage; that the State of Ohio—having by the emphatic majority of 50,000 rejected it for herself—is sternly opposed to its forced imposition upon other States, and that we stigmatize such an imposition by the Federal Government as a most base usurpation.

Resolved, That the practical effect of the so-called reconstruction acts of Congress is, to deliver over ten States to the political and social control of negroes, and to place the lives, liberties, and fortunes of the whites residing therein in the hands of a barbarous people; and it would inevitably lead either to a war of races, or to the Africanization of the South.

On the subject of national finances, they expressed themselves as follows:

Resolved, That, notwithstanding the enormous and conceded frauds in the creation of the public debt, the faith of the country is pledged to its payment, principal and interest, according to the terms of the several acts of Congress, under which the bonds representing the debt were issued, but not otherwise, and we are opposed to any plan for extending the times of payment, thus increasing the amount of gold interest to more than the principal, or to any declaration by Congress that the principal is payable in gold, which would virtually add more than a thousand millions to the burden of the debt, and to the whole insane financial policy of which these measures are a part.

Resolved, That, neither forgetting nor denying our ancient faith that gold and silver coin form the currency of the Constitution, we declare that the fifty-two bonds should be paid in the same currency received by the Government for their issue, and that, by the withdrawal of the monopoly granted to the National Banks, this result can be accomplished without an undue or dangerous increase of paper money, now the only circulating medium, thus relieving our people from the burden of a debt, the tendency of which is always to corrupt and enslave, and our Government from the reproach of paying a favored class in gold, while discharging its debts to all others, including pensions to widows and soldiers, in an inferior currency.

Resolved, That this plan violates no law, impairs no contracts, breaks no faith, and, instead of retarding a return to specie payment, is the shortest because the only safe way of reaching that end.

Resolved, That all the property of the country, including the Government bonds, which receives the equal protection of the Government, should bear an equal share in its burdens.

They then condemn the doctrine of perpetual allegiance, speak a word of encouragement for Andrew Johnson "in his struggle with Congressional usurpation," thank the soldiers of the late war for their "fortitude and gallantry," and close with the following:

Resolved, That the Democracy of the country have neither the purpose nor desire to reestablish slavery, nor to assume any portion of the debt of the States lately in rebellion.

The Republican State Convention met at Columbus, on the 4th of March, and organized by electing Lieutenant-Governor Jno. C. Lee for President, with a Vice-President from each Congressional District. Isaac R. Sherwood was nominated for Secretary of State; and William White for Judge of the Supreme Court. The platform of the party in Ohio was set forth in the following resolutions:

Resolved, by the Union party of Ohio in convention assembled, That the National Republican Union party, having preserved the integrity of the country, having defeated the atrocious attempts lately made to inaugurate appeals to arms and civil war from the legitimate results of legal and constitutional elections, and having placed American nationality on the solid foundation of liberty and the rights of man, will elect to the Presidency of the United States, next November, a man under whose administration will be completed the great task of reconstruction on the basis of nationality, liberty, and true democracy, and who, with firmness, yet with moderation, with justice, yet with charity and liberality, with unswerving loyalty, yet with prudence and statesmanship, will heal the wounds of the war, reconcile the hostile elements, and, by his wisdom, economy, rectitude, and good faith, will restore those sections of the country, which rebellion has desolated, to prosperity and happiness, and, with the hearty coöperation of the people's representatives in Congress, will establish the relations of the several States to a regenerated Union, and to the blessings of everlasting domestic peace.

Resolved, That, at this juncture, the eyes of the country are directed to one man who is eminently qualified, by his character, position, antecedents, and the universal confidence which he enjoys, to secure a triumphant election next November, to terminate, when in office, the present state of transition and suspense, and to guide the nation to a new era of good feeling, and to restore confidence.

Resolved, That with Ulysses S. Grant as our candidate for the Presidency, and Benjamin F. Wade for the Vice-Presidency, and the history of the last seven years for our platform, we may confidently appeal to the loyalty, patriotism, and intelligence of the American people.

Resolved, That the chief obstruction to the pacification of the country has been the persistent opposition of Andrew Johnson to the reconstruction of civil government in the rebellious States under the authority of national legislation, by keeping alive the spirit of rebellion, and reviving the hopes of a restoration to political power of its great ally—the Democratic party.

Resolved, That we approve and applaud the action of the House of Representatives in the recent exercise of the high constitutional prerogative by the impeachment of Andrew Johnson for high crimes and misdemeanors in office; believing it to be the constitutional function of the Senate, sitting as a court of justice, to finally determine every question of law and fact arising in the course of the prosecution, we invoke from all parties a peaceable and law-abiding submission to its judgment in the case.

Resolved, That by the indecent haste and precipitation with which the Democratic Legislature of our State rescinded the resolutions ratifying the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and thus condemned the propositions contained in said amendment—propositions which the people of Ohio, after a full and exhausting discussion, had endorsed with over forty thousand majority—the Democratic party has again manifested that its restoration to power would put in jeopardy the results of our great struggle, undo what has been accomplished by the war, and again plunge the country into disorder, confusion, and the dangers of secession, disintegration, and perhaps a war of races, and that, to avoid the calamity of a Democratic victory, it becomes the duty of all true lovers of their country to unite, disregarding for the time being all side issues or questions of minor importance, until the danger of a fatal reaction has passed, and the fruits of the war are permanently secured by the election of a loyal, reliable, and patriotic President.

Resolved, That we cordially approve the determination of Congress to retrench the expenses of the Government, and that we urge upon the national Legislature the necessity of the strictest economy

and the reduction of the army and navy, and the thorough revision and simplification of our system of Federal taxation, so as to equalize and lighten the burdens of taxation of the people.

Resolved, That the Republican party pledges itself to a faithful payment of the public debt, according to the laws under which the five-twenty bonds were issued; that said bonds should be paid in the currency of the country which may be a legal tender when the Government shall be prepared to redeem such bonds.

Resolved, That we heartily approve the policy of Congress in arresting contraction, and believe that the issue of currency should be commensurate with the industrial and commercial interests of the people.

Resolved, That justice and sound policy require that all property should bear its equal share of public burdens, and that this principle ought to be applied to all United States bonds hereafter issued, by making them liable, by express provisions of law, to taxation precisely as other property.

Resolved, That we urge upon the National authorities the propriety of initiating negotiations to establish international rules of expatriation upon the basis of our naturalization laws, so that each nation shall recognize naturalization by the other as terminating the former allegiance and conferring all rights of citizenship; and we affirm the duty of the Federal Government to extend adequate and equal protection to all its citizens at home and abroad, native and naturalized, when in the legitimate and peaceable exercise of their legal or natural rights.

Resolved, That we reiterate, to the soldiers and sailors of the Republic, our expressions of heartfelt gratitude for their heroic sacrifices and services, which will forever be held in affectionate remembrance by the American people, and that, while we call upon them to sustain at the ballot-box the great cause which their valor and endurance have saved in the field, we pledge to the maimed who survive, and to the widows and orphans of those who fell, the public faith for the payment of all their pensions and bounties.

Resolved, That we remember with pride and satisfaction the services of that noble patriot and statesman, and son of Ohio, Edwin M. Stanton, and that we hereby heartily indorse his recent official action in retaining his position as Secretary of War, and trust that his great experience and ability will be continued at the head of the War Department.

At the State election on the second Tuesday in October, the Republican candidates were elected. The whole vote cast for Secretary of State was 516,747, of which Sherwood received 267,065, and Hubbard 249,682, thus giving the former a majority of 17,383.

On the 19th of October, an address issued from the rooms of the Democratic State Executive Committee, to the "Democracy of Ohio," which, "without pretending to deny that the results of the recent elections were injurious to the best interests of the country in the defeat of local tickets and many patriotic Democrats," declared that there was "nothing in those results to justify despondency or excuse any relaxation of the efforts of the Democracy in behalf of the cause of justice and constitutional liberty." After showing that the Democracy had gained "ten or fifteen thousand votes on the State ticket," and in 1864 polled 18,000 votes more at the November election than at the October election, the address closed by imploring the "gallant workers and voters of the Democratic party to keep right on with the work

which has gained so much under such adverse circumstances, and, disdaining the counsels of timidity or the indifference of despair, continue the struggle till the last hour of the 3d of November, in the discharge of a solemn duty, the reward of which will be the redemption of our country from despotism and anarchy."

At the November election 518,828 votes were cast, of which 280,128 were for Grant and 238,700 for Seymour. Grant's majority was 41,428.

The financial condition of Ohio is improving. In 1845, when the total value of the taxable property in the State was \$136,142,666, the public debt amounted to \$20,018,515. In 1868, with the total of taxable property at \$1,188,754,779, the State debt was \$10,532,675. The receipts into the Treasury during the year have been \$4,347,484.82, and the disbursements for the same period have amounted to \$4,455,354.86.

The Ohio railroads, in operation on the 30th of June, measured 5,653.09 miles, including over 2,000 miles running into adjoining States, in making connection with other lines to various parts of the country. The number of workmen engaged in repairs and operations on these roads was 19,884. The total cost of constructing these railroads was \$288,269,958, and the equipments cost \$14,299,916. This is represented by paid-up capital to the amount of \$172,047,542; funded debt, \$133,111,294; floating debt, \$8,494,466; or a total capital of \$313,653,302, against an entire cost of \$302,569,874. The gross earnings of these railroads for one year was \$47,118,722, while the expense of operating them was \$32,920,034, leaving \$14,198,688 for the net earnings. \$6,963,726 were laid out for construction and new equipment, and \$3,801,291 in dividends, while \$1,644,375 were paid to the State and nation in taxes.

The number of school-houses in Ohio is 11,353, with a total value of \$9,072,443. The number of children in the State, between the ages of five and twenty-one years, is 971,705—494,458 male and 477,247 female—of whom 704,767 are enrolled as pupils; average daily attendance, 397,436, of whom 3,036 were German, and 5,083 colored. Number of teachers, 21,568—male, 8,348, female, 13,220; average monthly wages of male teachers, \$38.52, of females, \$23.80. Returns from 647 private schools show an enrolment of 26,450 pupils; there were 65 academies with 6,167 students; 43 ladies' seminaries with 4,217 students; and 26 colleges with 4,738 students, only 1,113 of whom were pursuing a regular collegiate course.

Some alarm was created in the grazing districts of Ohio during the summer by the appearance of what is known as the Texas cattle fever, and in a few localities serious losses were occasioned by this malady. In the absence of any legislative provision on the subject, the Governor issued a proclamation, and appointed commissioners to prevent the spread of the disease and prohibit the introduction of diseased

cattle from the South. The subject was subsequently brought to the attention of the Legislature.

On the night of the 18th of November, the Ohio Central Lunatic Asylum at Columbus was destroyed by fire, and six of the patients were suffocated, while terrible suffering was caused to many others. This calamity is described as one of unusual distress. The loss to the State was nearly \$200,000. The Legislature, which met in extra session on the 23d of November, appointed a committee to investigate the cause of the fire, the extent of damage, and the expediency of rebuilding the institution. A majority of the committee reported at the regular session in January in favor of transferring the site and remnants of the buildings to the Asylum for the Blind and building a new Insane Asylum, the selection of a site to be made by a committee consisting of two members from the Senate and three from the House. There was also a minority report, which recommended that the old buildings be rebuilt and refitted with as little delay as possible.

The regular session of the Legislature for 1869 opened on the 5th of January, and was constituted as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republican.....	17	49	66
Democratic	20	56	76
Democratic majority..	3	7	10

OLDENBURG, a grand-duchy belonging to the North German Confederation. Grand-duke, Peter I., born July 8, 1827; succeeded his father, February 27, 1853. Heir-apparent, Prince Frederick August, born November 16, 1852. Area, 2,469 square miles. Population, in 1867, 315,622. The population connected with the Evangelical State Church was 241,381; the Roman Catholic population, 72,077; other Christians, 984; Jews, 1,527; religion not stated, 26. The public debt, at the close of 1867, amounted to 7,967,600 thalers. The army is fully incorporated with that of Prussia. The movement of shipping, in 1866, was as follows:

	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Lasts.	Vessels.	Lasts.
Total.....	7,671	177,956	7,942	188,675
Of which Oldenburg vessels	4,785	80,086	5,100	89,106

The merchant navy, on January 1, 1867, consisted of 190 vessels, of 26,863 lasts. Besides, there were 443 coasting vessels, of 7,227 lasts.

OREGON. The relative strength of political parties in Oregon was reversed during the year, and the Democrats carried the State by an unusual majority. On March 9th, the Democratic State Convention assembled at Portland, and adopted the following series of resolutions:

Resolved, That we renew our pledge of adherence and unwavering fidelity to the time-honored principles of the Democratic party.

Resolved, That the Federal Government is one of limited powers, granted by the States in a written Constitution, which is the sole measure of its authority in war and in peace, and is alike law for the ruler and the people.

Resolved, That this Union under the Constitution is the only solid foundation of our strength and prosperity as a people, equally conducive to the welfare of all the States, both North and South.

Resolved, That the Constitution of the United States confers no power on Congress to legislate upon the internal affairs of the States composing this Union.

Resolved, That it is the highest duty of every American citizen to maintain against all their enemies the obligations of the Constitution, and the integrity of the Union under it.

Resolved, That we are opposed to sharing with servile races the priceless political heritage achieved alone by white men, and by them transmitted to us, their posterity, as a sacred trust forever.

Resolved, That good faith and justice to all demand that the public debt shall be paid in like currency as contracted, and we favor action by Congress submitting United States securities to be taxed as other property.

Resolved, That the burdens of taxation ought to be equal among the people, and should be upon property instead of the industry of the country, as by present laws provided.

Resolved, That we protest against the reconstruction acts of Congress as unwarranted by the Constitution, revolutionary in tendency, and in positive violation of the faith of the General Government pledged to the people of the United States.

Resolved, That we utterly condemn the attempt of Congress, to usurp the powers of the executive and judicial departments of the Government, as a flagrant outrage upon the Constitution and the liberties of the people.

Resolved, That we sympathize with the Irish people in their efforts to secure to themselves civil liberty.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the Federal Government to extend protection alike to all native and naturalized citizens both at home and abroad.

The Republican State Convention assembled at the same place on a later date, but their proceedings have failed to reach us.

The election was held on the first Monday in June, and resulted in the choice of a Democratic member of Congress, by a majority of 1,209 in a total vote of 22,369, and a Legislature with four Democratic majority in the Senate and thirteen in the lower House. At the Presidential election in November the total vote was 22,086, and the Democratic majority 164.

The Legislature assembled in September, and its action was confined to measures of economy and of local interest, except the adoption of a resolution, withdrawing the consent of the State to the passage of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution.

Preparations have been made to construct railroads in the State, as has been stated in previous volumes. To the Oregon Central Railroad Congress has granted 1,280 acres of land for each mile of roadway constructed to the California border, which is a distance of 300 miles. The State has also given a guarantee to pay seven per cent. on \$1,000,000 of the company's bonds. The material for the construction and operation of the first

fifty miles was sent forward at the beginning of the year. It is anticipated that the Union Pacific road will connect with the Columbia River and Puget's Sound road, by crossing the Blue Mountains and following up the waters of the Malheur, using a natural division, and proceeding down the John Day River through a rich and extensive region, and reaching the Columbia at Dalles City.

The commerce of the State is rapidly growing. Grain is shipped to Liverpool; regular lines of transportation are established to New York, and others are proposed to Australia, China, and Japan. The population of the State is also greatly increasing with its wealth and commerce.

OSGOOD, MRS. HELEN LOUISE GILSON, an eminently practical and active philanthropist, whose services to the sick and wounded soldiers of the Union army, during the late war, secured her the love and admiration of thousands. She was born in Boston about 1835, and died at Newton Centre, Mass., April 20, 1868. She removed with her parents, during her childhood, to Chelsea, Mass., and after their death was the ward of Frank B. Fay, of Chelsea, in whose family she lived for some years. She had received an excellent education, and was endowed with extraordinary musical and conversational talent, and with an executive ability rare even in the most accomplished business men. When the war commenced she gave herself at once to the work of caring for the soldiers, first at home, and afterward in the field. She was among the first to organize Soldiers' Aid Societies in her own city, to prepare and collect supplies, and to arrange them for transportation. Finding that many of the wives and daughters of soldiers were in straitened circumstances, she took a contract for the manufacture of army clothing from the Government, and not only gave her own services in the preparation of the work, but, raising, by her own subscription and the contributions of others, a fund for the purpose, she furnished employment to these poor women at wages which were much higher than those paid by the contractors, and which enabled them to live comfortably. In the early spring of 1862, she felt strongly moved to go to the army and render personal service in the care of the sick and wounded soldiers; and, when the Secretary of the Sanitary Commission called for volunteer nurses for the hospital transport service on the peninsula, she gladly made one of the number who entered upon that heroic work. How a woman so delicately reared, and fragile in form, could endure all the labors and hardships which fell to the lot of those noble women who for nearly three months worked incessantly in that malarious climate, must remain a mystery; but, though doubtless wearied and worn with her work, Miss Gibson (she was not married till after the close of the war) did her work well and cheerfully, and her coming among the soldiers was always like a ray of sunshine. After a

brief period of rest, she was again upon the field with Mr. Fay and his party, and through the campaign around Washington, at Antietam and Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville, was ever active and welcome. Another brief period of rest passed, and she then went to Gettysburg, where her gentle attentions, her sweet voice, and her great executive power, endeared her to the men, who almost worshipped her, and enabled her to bring order out of chaos, and subdue even the most turbulent spirits with a word or look. Though thoroughly self-controlled she was naturally diffident and retiring in her manner; but her heart was so full of the sufferings and heroism of the soldiers, that, whenever she was away from the battle-field, she could not refrain from pleading their cause and extolling their endurance and sacrifices; and she did this so simply and naturally that she always won the tears, the sympathy, and the liberal contributions of those who listened.

But her greatest work was accomplished during the last year of the war, that year of terrible slaughter and suffering. She went to the front with Mr. Fay and other friends in May, 1864, and at Belle Plain, at Fredericksburg, at White House, and at City Point, she was indefatigable in her labors, so systematizing her work, even amid those scenes, as to be able without distraction to administer comfort, relief, ease, and solace to thousands of the severely wounded and dying. Her cheering words, her sweet songs and hymns, sung as she only could sing them, and the benediction of her presence, exerted a powerful influence in sustaining the courage and supporting the strength of the wounded soldiers, and in all the ministrations of love and tenderness none

were more gentle or more skilful than she. When this work slackened, she set herself the task of creating a model hospital for the sick and wounded colored soldiers of the army of the Potomac, who had previously been much neglected. From the most unpromising materials, from inefficient help, and but limited means, she succeeded by her executive skill in organizing and conducting, for many months, a hospital for 900 to 1,000 patients, which had no superior in the numerous army hospitals clustered in that vicinity. Every thing done in that large hospital was under her personal direction, and not only was every patient well cared for, and pains taken in their restoration, and their religious and intellectual interests carefully watched, but she found time amid all her other duties to provide for the comfort and improvement of the poor negro washerwomen attached to the camp. She remained with the army, and at the hospitals in Richmond and its vicinity, till July, 1865; spent the remainder of the summer in a quiet retreat on Long Island, and in the autumn returned with partially recovered health to Chelsea, Massachusetts. She so far regained her strength, and apparently her health, as to be married the following year to Mr. Osgood, who had formed one of the party of Mr. Fay in the sanitary work in the army of the Potomac. For a time her new life and its happiness sustained her spirits and gave promise of future usefulness and peace; but soon the overtaken powers of nature began to fail, and she died a martyr to her patriotism and philanthropy. The Third Army Corps, to which she had so faithfully ministered, have taken measures to erect a monument to her memory.

P

PAGE, CHARLES GRAFTON, M. D., an eminent physicist, professor, and author, born in Salem, Mass., January 25, 1812; died in Washington, D. C., May 5, 1868. He was early distinguished for his intellectual and philosophical tendencies; when only ten years of age he constructed an electrical machine. He was prepared for college, in Salem, by General H. K. Oliver, entered Harvard College in 1828, and graduated with distinction in 1832. After leaving college he studied at the medical school in Boston. He made himself thoroughly acquainted with the science and practice of medicine, and in 1838 went to Virginia, where he pursued the practice of his profession for a period of two years. He was appointed Professor of Chemistry in Columbia College, District of Columbia, in 1839. In 1840 he was called to a position of trust and responsibility in the capacity of Examiner in the Patent Office, under the Government of the United States, at a time when there were but two

examiners, instead of twenty, of whom the corps is now composed, and this position since that date he occupied with some brief exceptions until the day of his decease. From a very early day he was a contributor to the various literary and scientific periodicals, and particularly to the *American Journal of Science*, or, as it is more frequently called, *Silliman's Journal*. Within the last four or six months of his life he wrote and caused to be published one of the most concise, full, and elaborate treatises upon the subject of electrical science and discovery which has yet appeared. It is now proved and admitted that to him, as much, if not more than to any other man, either on this or the other side of the Atlantic, are due the suggestions of that electric cable which, in the hands of others, at last spanned the broad ocean and made one great whispering gallery of all the continents of the world. He had been for years engaged in perfecting machinery for the effective and economical use of electro-

magnetism as a motive power, and had so far succeeded as to be able to use it for the propulsion of machinery and to some extent as a locomotive force. Had his life been spared he would undoubtedly have completed this great work.

PAIGE, Hon. ALONZO CHRISTOPHER, a distinguished jurist of New York, born in Scaghticoke, N. Y., July 31, 1797; died in Schenectady, N. Y., March 31, 1868. He was the son of Rev. Winslow Paige, D. D., and received his early education under his father's direction. He entered Williams College in 1808, and graduated second in his class in 1812. His father was desirous that he should become a clergyman, and after his graduation placed him with Rev. Dr. Banks, of the Scotch Church in Montgomery County, to study theology. But not being interested in theological studies, he removed to Schenectady after a time, and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1819. Young as he was, his graceful and elegant manners, his fine scholarship, and his remarkable attainments in the law, commanded success almost from the beginning. In 1828 he was appointed Reporter of the Court of Chancery, and remained till 1846, publishing in the meanwhile 11 volumes of Chancery reports. In 1826 he was elected to the Legislature, and served for four successive years. In 1838 he was elected Senator, and served with distinction in the State Senate four years, and was subsequently reelected. He was elected Justice of the Supreme Court in June, 1847, and drew for the term of four years, and in 1855 was elected for the term of two years to fill the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of Justice Cady. In June, 1867, he was elected to the Constitutional Convention, where his efforts, in connection with those of J. S. Landon, to purify the ballot-box entitled him to the lasting gratitude of the people whom in every capacity he served so well. This was the last public office which he filled. He had been for thirty years a Trustee of Union College, and his finished education and wide culture rendered him an invaluable guardian of that institution. As a lawyer, he was remarkably able, reaching at once beyond trivial and unimportant issues to the great principles on which the law is based. As a judge, his decisions were regarded by his brethren on the bench, and by the legal profession generally, as among the most valuable in the records of judicial opinions. Clear and unimpassioned in judgment and embodying the results of careful and extended research, they are and will be highly prized. Though never a professed politician, and incapable alike from his character and disposition of resorting to political trickery and management, the sympathies of Judge Paige had always been with the old Democratic party, but he loved his country better than his party, and at the outbreak of the late war no political affiliation could restrain him from earnest and active efforts in

behalf of the cause of the Union. In all the relations of life he maintained a simple dignity of manner, a winning and gentle courtesy, a tender and cordial sympathy with the poor and the suffering, and a large-handed liberality for every worthy object.

PAPAL STATES, present pope, Pius IX. (before his elevation to the Papal See, Giovanni Maria, Count Mastai Ferretti), born at Sinigaglia, May 13, 1792; elected June 16, 1846. The ministry at the close of the year 1868 was composed as follows: Secretary of State, Cardinal Giac. Antonelli, President; Finances and Treasury, Giuseppe Ferrari (December 1, 1854); Interior, Augusto Negroni (February 8, 1868); War, Brigadier-General Hermann Kanzler (October 28, 1865); Commerce, Arts, and Public Works, Cardinal J. Berardi (April 1868); Police, Lorenzo Randi (October 28, 1865). President of the Council of State, Cardinal Teodolpho Mertel (since 1863). The area amounts to 4,552 square miles; the population, to 723,121. The population of the city of Rome, in 1867, was 215,573; in 1868, 217,378; among whom there were 4,650 Israelites, 457 non-Catholics, and 6,429 persons belonging to the clergy. In the budget for 1867, the revenue amounted to 36,431,058 lire (1 lira = 1 franc = 19 cents); the expenditure, to 73,838,754 lire; deficit, 37,407,696 lire. For the year 1868, the revenue was estimated at 28,845,359 lire; the expenditures, at 73,949,803 lire; deficit, 45,104,444 lire. Public debt, in 1867, 37,402,695 lire rente; which, at the rate of five per cent., would be equal to a capital of 748,053,900 lire. According to a convention concluded on December 7, 1866, the Government of Italy assumed, in consideration of the annexation of Romagna, the Marches, Umbria, and Benevento, a part of the Papal debt, and bound itself to pay to the Papal Government the sum of 20,642,292 francs, and an annual *rente* of 18,627,773 lire.

The arrivals and clearances of merchant vessels in the ports of Civita Vecchia, Fumicino, Badino, and Terracina, amounted to 3,654; together, 493,217 tons.

According to the "official statistics of the Pontifical army for the year 1869," the Papal army was composed of 16,334 (officers, underofficers, and soldiers), among whom there were: Italians of all provinces, 8,240; Frenchmen, 2,930; Belgians, 678; Dutch, 1,713; Swiss, 970; Germans, 1,154; Austrians, 88; Spaniards, 42; Americans, Brazilians, 27. The Corps of Zouaves is composed of 4,342 soldiers, of whom 230 are Italians, 1,211 Frenchmen, 1,683 Dutch, 233 Canadians. A proposal was made in 1868 by the American General Carroll Lewis, to raise a battalion of 1,200 men in the United States for the Pontifical army, which was abandoned in consequence of the opposition of the Roman Catholic archbishops and bishops. Four of the archbishops published, with regard to this subject, the following card:

The publication in the newspapers of a circular from Rome, to the effect that the Holy Father had consented to accept the services of a battalion of one thousand men, to be raised in the United States, on condition that the said men shall be carefully chosen, and be equipped and supported for three years by the Catholics of these States, seems to call for some official notice from the prelates to whom the circular is exclusively addressed, and to whose discretion, as guardians of the interests of the church in this country, the subject is committed. For this reason and for the purpose, at the same time, of satisfying inquiries which have reached us from various quarters, we deem it proper thus publicly to define our position with reference to a matter of so much importance; and in so doing we have the best reasons for knowing that we do but speak not alone our own sentiments, but those also of our venerable brethren in the episcopacy.

It is needless for us to say how sincerely we desire to uphold and protect, as far as in us lies, the temporal independence of the Holy Father, being persuaded how essential it is to the free and unfettered exercise of his spiritual supremacy in the government of the universal church. Yet the proposal to raise and equip an American battalion did not originate with us. As far as we can learn, it has emanated from, and been persistently urged on the military authorities at Rome by, some party or parties who have assumed to represent us, not only without our sanction or authority, but even without our knowledge; and what renders this the more remarkable, is the fact, that the gentleman who has succeeded in securing for himself, in advance, the appointment of lieutenant-colonel, to have command of the proposed battalion, is one who, we feel bound to say, does not enjoy, and is not entitled to enjoy, our confidence; especially in a position of so high a responsibility and trust. If he has found encouragement and support from one or two journals, edited by Catholic laymen, which have given place to his ill-advised correspondence, this does not strengthen his claims; inasmuch as the journals in question are not to be recognized as reliable exponents of Catholic views or sentiments, still less as discreet or commendable advocates of the Catholic cause. Besides, the project, as proposed, with the conditions which are annexed to it, cannot, in our judgment, be successfully carried out; and any attempt to do so would, we apprehend, instead of serving the cause of our venerable and beloved Holy Father, prove detrimental to it.

It is not necessary to enter into further details; it will be enough to add, that we still have reason to know that pecuniary aid is more needed at this moment than military aid, and will be more acceptable from us. We shall continue, therefore, as hitherto, to urge our generous and faithful Catholic children to contribute abundantly, according to their means, for the support of our common Father, who will employ their offerings in such manner as may to him seem best; not doubting that, by our so doing, we shall meet his warm approval, and merit his apostolic benediction.

Given at Mount St. Mary's College, Emmetsburg, June 24, 1868.

M. J. SPALDING, Archbishop of Baltimore.
J. B. PURCELL, Archbishop of Cincinnati.
JOHN McCLOSKEY, Archbishop of N. Y.
PETER RICHARD KENRICK, Archbishop of St. Louis, per Archbishop of New York.

N. B.—The Archbishop of St. Louis, not having been able to attend the meeting, empowered the Archbishop of New York, in writing, to sign this document for him, having been fully apprised of what would be its contents.

In consequence of this attitude of the Catholic bishops of the United States with regard to the proposal of General Lewis, the Papal minister of war forwarded a letter, dated July

25th, to General Lewis, communicating the positive instructions of the Pope to abandon recruiting in the United States for the projected volunteer battalion for the Papal service. The letter expresses the thanks of his Holiness for the General's zealous activity in the matter.

The political history of the Papal States during the year 1868 was of no great importance. Brigandage continued to be troublesome, especially in the provinces of Frosinone and Velletri.

On November 23d, the execution of two prisoners, named Monti and Tognetti, took place in Rome, for assisting in blowing up some barracks at Rome, in the autumn of 1867. The execution produced very great excitement throughout Italy, and resolutions, severely condemning the conduct of the Papal Government, were passed by the Italian Parliament (*see ITALY*). Two other prisoners were condemned to death. One of them, Ajani, was a woollen manufacturer in Rome, in 1867, and it was believed by the Papal Government that a large quantity of arms was concealed on his premises. They accordingly sent a strong force of soldiers and police to the place. Ajani and his workmen resisted, and a violent struggle took place. Sixteen of the workmen were killed, and several others were wounded. Some of the soldiers were also wounded, and one was killed.

PARAGUAY, a republic in South America. President, General Francisco Solano Lopez, born in 1827; assumed the presidency on September 10, 1862. Area of Paraguay proper (situated between the Rivers Parana and Paraguay), 73,000 English square miles; but, including part of the Grand Chaco, a disputed territory on the right bank of the Paraguay, between Bolivia, Paraguay, and the Argentine Republic, and a small tract of land between the Parana and Uruguay, to which Paraguay lays claim, the territory would exceed 200,000 square miles. The population, in 1867, amounted to 1,337,431. The only religion sustained is the Roman Catholic. There is one bishop at Asuncion. The standing army, in time of peace, is 15,000 men; the reserve, 46,000 men. According to recent documents, President Lopez had, in 1867, an army of 60,000 under arms: 40,000 in the South, to resist the main army of the allies, 10,000 reserve at Asuncion, and 10,000 in the Brazilian province of Matto-Grosso, which was conquered by the Paraguayans in 1865. But, at the beginning of 1868, the army had been considerably reduced.

At the close of the year 1867, the war of Paraguay with Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and Uruguay, continued without showing any prospect of a speedy termination. A new effort to mediate a peace had been made in September, 1867, by Mr. Gould, British Secretary of Legation at Buenos Ayres, who drew up and sent to Mr. Caminos, first secretary of

the President of Paraguay, the following memorandum:

Basis of Negotiations proposed to Marshal Lopez, President of Paraguay, by Mr. Gould, British Secretary of Legation in Buenos Ayres, on mission to the belligerents' camp.

1. A secret previous conference will assure the allied powers of the acceptance, on the part of the Paraguayan Government, of the proposals they might be disposed to make to it.

2. The independence and the integrity of the Republic of Paraguay will be formally recognized by the allied powers.

3. All the questions relative to the territories, or boundaries, in dispute before the present war, will either be reserved for an ulterior conference or submitted to the arbitration of neutral powers.

4. The allied troops will retire from the Paraguayan territory, and the troops of Paraguay will evacuate the positions occupied by them in the territory of the Empire of Brazil, so soon as the conclusion of peace is assured.

5. No indemnification will be required for the expenses of the war.

6. The prisoners of war on both parts will be put immediately at liberty.

7. The Paraguayan troops will be dismissed, excepting the number of men strictly necessary to maintain the interior tranquillity of the Republic.

8. His excellency the Marshal-President of the Republic will, after the conclusion of peace, or after the preliminaries of the same, withdraw to Europe, delegating the government to the vice-president, who, by the constitution of the Republic, is in like cases the person designated to take charge of it.

(Signed) G. T. GOULD.

Headquarters, Tuyucu, September 12, 1867.

The reply of Mr. Caminos to this paper is dated headquarters in Paso-Puco, the same day, September 12, 1867. The most important portion of it is as follows:

In the various clauses of this memorandum, I find a notable difference from those you had shaped to serve as the object of the conference to which you invited me, declaring that the Brazilian Minister in Buenos Ayres, and President Mitre, and the Marquis de Caxias in the allied camp, had previously spoken upon it to you; however, the most salient is the condition, not only of the separation of his Excellency the Marshal-President of the Republic from the government of the State, but likewise, which is more, to exile him to Europe, according to the terms of clause 8 of the memorandum presented to the allied chiefs.

For your personal satisfaction I must add that, as the vice-president is named by the President of the Republic, according to our institutions, he is not competent to assume the supreme command of the State in the absence of the President, and his mission is limited, in such a case, to convoke an Electoral Congress. As to the rest, I can assure you that the Republic of Paraguay will never sully its honors and its glories by consenting that its president and defender, who has rendered it so glorious, and who fights for its existence, should be deposed from his charge, and, still less, that he should be expatriated from the land which is the witness of his heroism and sacrifices, tokens which are a sufficient guarantee of the union that joins the lot of Marshal Lopez to that which God may have reserved for the Paraguayan nation.

The other articles of the memorandum shown to the allied chiefs may serve as a point of departure for a discussion, as I have already had the honor of declaring to you, although I am not ignorant that in the discussion some difficulties cannot avoid arising, which, however, the interests of peace may reduce to more convenient terms.

At the beginning of the year 1868, the main force of the allies was still engaged in carrying on the siege of the Paraguayan fortress Humaita. The forces of the allies and the Paraguayans were respectively estimated at 40,000 and 23,000, the relative advantages of position making the real strength of the Paraguayans about equal to that of the Brazilians.

On the 17th of February three monitors passed Curupaity, and on the 19th six iron-clads succeeded in forcing the passage of Humaita, which was defended by 180 pieces of artillery. The ships were much battered, but none lost. Ten men were wounded. On the same day the Marquis de Caxias stormed a work north of Humaita, taking fifteen cannon and a quantity of stores. The loss on each side was about six hundred men.

On the 21st of February, three iron-clads steamed on to Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay. On arriving in front of the city they were received by shots from sixty-eight pounders in the port of Tocubi, to which the vessels responded, shelling the arsenal, the custom-house, and the president's palace, for several hours. The division met with no obstacles, and the commodore reported that the city could easily be taken by effecting a landing at Santo Antonio, a few miles lower down. The defences of the place he reported to be unimportant, and the garrison to be small.

On the 2d of March the Paraguayans made an attempt to capture the eight Brazilian iron-clads stationed between Curupaity and Humaita. Before daylight, 48 boats with 1,200 picked men, armed with carbines, revolvers, hatchets, and hand-grenades, pulled quietly from the river bank, after covering themselves with boughs so as to resemble a floating islet. A guard-boat detected the artifice, but before the crew of the nearest vessel could ensconce themselves inside the towers, 14 boats were alongside, and the Paraguayans boarding; a short hand-to-hand fight ensued, in which the captain and first officer were severely wounded. The Cabral was also boarded from 12 boats, but her crew had time to enter the casemate. On both vessels the desperate struggle was continued through the port with fire-arms, every shot of the defenders telling in the dense mass of the assailants, and the former suffering severely from grenades thrown in. The plan of simultaneous attack had, however, been frustrated in the excitement, and by the current, and the iron-clads Silvano and Herval opened grape with deadly effect upon the boats, while the Brazil swept the decks of the boarded vessels. The Paraguayans leaped into the boats or the river, and sought to escape. The boats of the squadron were sent off to save the swimmers, but they refused to surrender, and only 13 prisoners were taken. The Paraguayan loss was estimated at 400 men, 140 bodies being found on the decks of the two vessels. On the part of the Brazilians, 32 were reported killed

and wounded. On the morning of the 3d of March the two wooden gunboats Beberibe and Mage forced the pass of Curupaity with trifling injury, and only one man wounded.

Marshal Lopez, seeing that after the passage of Humaita it was necessary to change his tactics, transported all his war material and all his guns to the Tebicuari, fortifying this inland position. On the 21st of March the Brazilians took possession of the fortifications at Tuyuti, and, on the 23d, Curupaity, having been abandoned by the Paraguayans, was occupied by the allies. The works taken possession of by the allies were found to be very strong. At Paso-Pocu these consisted of: First line, a ditch 18 feet wide and as deep. The parapet within was 6 feet 3 inches high and so much in breadth on top, and was covered with sods. Behind this parapet were the deposits for powder, extending for about four miles, at a distance of 36 to 42 feet from each other. Between each was a well-constructed terre-pleine, 14 feet 6 inches square and 3 feet 6 inches high, intended for a cannon, but on which, for some time before the advance was made, a palm-tree log covered with hides was placed to simulate the real military engine. The second line was more or less the same, and the ditches of both were full of water, and had a few bridges thrown over them. The redoubt called Sauce, at the angle nearest Tuyuti and Lake Piris, besides its natural defences of overflowed lands and ponds, had an antefosse, through which ran a watercourse that drained those overflowed tracts, whose waters were shut off by a sluice. This antefosse was over half a mile long, about 30 feet wide and 17 feet deep. Between this and the fosse of the intrenchment was a space about 130 yards wide and half a mile long. This inner ditch was 7 feet 6 inches deep and wide, with its parapet the same height above the terre-pleine, and with a banquette of 20 inches in height. Fortunately for the Brazilian assailants they came upon the antefosse soon after the defenders had raised the sluice to fill it, and they were thus able to cross it, but lost much ammunition. The Paraguayans had there four or five hundred men and two light field-pieces, and its assault cost 13 officers and 184 rank and file in killed and wounded.

On the morning of the 23d of March three Brazilian steamers, the Barroso, Rio Grande, and Pará, descended below the Paraguayan battery of Timbo in the Chaco. The Paraguayan steamer Igurey was seen hidden behind in an inlet, and after several shots were fired at her a seventy-pound shot from the monitor Rio Grande struck her below water, and in two or three hours she sunk in very deep water, which covered even her chimney. On going further on, the other steamer, the Taquary, was perceived in the narrow channel between the island of Araca and the Chaco. The Bahia entered the channel, and in a short time her fire sunk the Paraguayan steamer, thus leaving

the garrisons of Humaita and Timbo only boats to effect their communications with. On the same day all the shipping at Curuzu was brought up to Port Elisario above Curupaity.

On the 8th of May General Rivas, having been informed that the Paraguayans were constructing an advanced redoubt, sent a Brazilian battalion to dislodge them. In the engagement, which lasted an hour and a half, the Argentines did not take part, and the result was the complete defeat of the Paraguayans, leaving one hundred and eleven corpses on the field. Their total losses were calculated at two hundred and fifty to three hundred men put *hors de combat*. The Brazilians had nine killed and sixty-five wounded. A column of Paraguayan cavalry that was coming to protect the first one was also driven back, and in their retreat toward Timbo the two columns, who took the road by the river side, were decimated by the grape-shot of one of the iron-clads that followed them in a parallel line.

On the 16th of July the allies suffered a severe repulse before Humaita. An account written from Paso-Pocu on the evening of the 16th, states that Osorio, with 10,000 men, attacked the part of the works of Humaita known as the "triangle;" that the two battalions forming the vanguard got close to one of the redoubts without opposition, but when within short range received a terrible fire of grape and musketry, which threw them into disorder; that two other battalions were then brought up to their support, and the redoubt was carried with the bayonet, but with considerable loss; that he then sent word to the Marquis de Caxias that he held a redoubt, and wanted all the reserves at once to enable him to hold it and pursue the advantage gained so dearly, but that Caxias ordered him to retreat; that on this order being given the troops fell into confusion, and in their retreat were swept by grape, falling dead in hundreds, and that Osorio, who had two horses killed under him, and lost most of his staff, was unable to control them in their retreat. Two battalions were almost entirely destroyed in less than 40 minutes, and the writer says the Brazilian loss was at least 1,000 men, most of them killed.

Another repulse was suffered by the allies on the 18th of July. A new Paraguayan battery of two guns opening upon the allied position in the Chaco, and, thus placing it between two fires, that of the battery and that of Humaita, the Marquis de Caxias ordered General Rivas to attack and dismantle the new work. By General Gelly y Obes's dispatch to General Mitre it appears that the battery lay beyond a deep stream, and that the ground was almost flooded. Colonel Martinez was ordered to advance and reconnoitre the ground with the Rioja battalion, forty or fifty skirmishers, and two Brazilian battalions, with instructions not to pass the bridge which the Paraguayans had on the stream. Rivas, with the main forces, had not started when he received

word from Martinez that he had arrived at the point indicated, and had killed forty or fifty Paraguayans, and had learned from prisoners that the Paraguayans were in force. Rivas sent word that he was coming, but before he had mounted received information that Martinez had advanced. Orders were sent to him to retire, but when Rivas arrived he found the vanguard already routed and pursued. Checking the pursuit, he obtained reinforcements of two battalions, and drove the Paraguayans over the bridge, after a severe fight. The losses of the allies were severe, being stated in the dispatch at 350 killed and wounded. Martinez and Campos were either killed or prisoners. General Rivas's dispatch states the loss to have been as follows: Argentines, 94 killed and 224 wounded; Brazilians, 60 killed and 208 wounded; total, 586.

Notwithstanding these repulses, the allies, only a few days later, on the 25th of July, obtained possession of Humaita. The events, in connection with the evacuation of Humaita by the Paraguayans and the subsequent surrender, after a struggle of more than a week's duration of the remainder of the garrison, are thus described by the *Anglo-Brazilian Times* of Rio (August 22):

To evacuate Humaita the Paraguayans had 80 or 100 boats, and the evacuation was going on for a week before it was completed. First, the families were removed; then, the sick, the prisoners, a large quantity of munitions, the remainder of their food, and finally the garrison, the outposts being maintained to the last moment to deceive the allies. Almost all the non-combatants, and probably at least a third of the garrison, passed through the lake in the middle of the narrow peninsula without exciting suspicion; and it was only on the withdrawal of the outposts at Humaita that the allies became aware of the fact that the garrison was withdrawing to Timbo. The allied forces in the Chaco were then raised to 10,000 men, and the gunboats were brought up, and grape was poured into the narrow peninsula, which, however, being covered with bush, thickets, and tall reeds, favored the concealment of the Paraguayan movements. Hidden in the thickets, the Paraguayans had some heavy cannon, which played on the vessels; while, opposed to the allied position, they had a strong battery which guarded them from attack on that side. They transported boats overland to the lake, and armed some with small cannon, and during the night of the 25th of July no doubt many escaped, being assisted by the Paraguayans in Timbo. During the 26th the escape continued, but the allies made great exertions to open space for their fire, and to carry small cannon over to the commanding points. In doing this they were frequently attacked by the armed boats. At night on the 26th a great effort was made by the Paraguayans to escape in the darkness, with 20 to 40 boats and 600 to 800 men. Being discovered a heavy fire was kept upon them, and some of the boats were forced to return; but others, with the support of the armed boats of the Timbo Paraguayans, succeeded in passing, but with heavy loss. Gelly y Obes says they lost 500 out of 1,000. Two more flats with cannon were brought from Timbo and placed in the lake, and on the 27th the Brazilians dragged over some from the river to contend with them on the lake. After a reconnaissance on the 27th, in which loss was experienced, on the 28th an assault was attempted by the Brazilians, to the number of 3,000 to 4,000 men, upon the battery which the Paraguayans had, but they were received with so severe a fire from the

battery, and from infantry posted in the woods, that they were forced to retire after losing 400 men in the vain attempt. Fights continued daily and nightly between the allies and the garrison, aided in their attempts to escape by the Paraguayans of Timbo, and on the night of the 29th the last sent over some 20 boats to transport part of the garrison across and carry cooked meat to the rest. Only a few succeeded in getting over, because of the fire poured in from eleven cannon and a large number of troops. On the night of the 31st some 12 boats made an attempt to escape, but were beaten back by the armed boats stationed on the lake. They, however, returned suddenly, and, overpowering one of the boats, succeeded in passing and escaping. At midnight of the 1st of August another affair occurred: eight or ten Paraguayan boats making the attempt to pass the line of armed boats, their movements were seen, and the one in which Colonel Hermosa went was run down and destroyed with all its crew. Eight boats were captured, and their crews mostly killed or drowned. On bringing the boats to land and examining the bodies, some dead women were found dressed in soldiers' clothes. Of the 25 or 30 wounded two or three were women, one with an infant, whose arm was traversed by a ball. Some other young children were likewise among the saved. Up to the 4th, the night fighting continued, but on that day Father Ignacio Esmerats, a chaplain in the Brazilian hospitals, obtained permission to try if he could effect communication with the Paraguayans, as two officers previously sent to summon them to surrender had been driven off with bullets. In that he was successful, and on the 5th the Paraguayans on the peninsula surrendered, to the number of 98 officers and 1,230 men, the commander, Colonel Martinez, being among the number. They were three days without food, and some 200 were prostrated by exhaustion; 300 were sick or wounded. The conditions of capitulation stipulated that the garrison should not be forced to serve against Lopez, and that the officers might keep their swords and choose the allied nation in which to reside. The commander says that the effective force of the garrison, when it evacuated Humaita, was 2,500 men.

The abandoned fortress of Humaita was described as inferior in its position and construction to Curupaity. The form was an irregular, almost circular, polygon, with a perimeter of some $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, mounted with about 200 cannon. The works followed the course which the nature of the soil pointed out and rendered so defensible. The ditch was 16 feet wide and 13 feet deep, in general. The parapet was $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and, on the side of the allied positions, was sustained inside by trunks and palms, and showed signs of age. The glacis was natural, and the abatis on it was of little strength, being merely boughs of trees without connection or fastenings, without combination with the palisade, or protected by a terre-pleine from projectiles. The line that was opposed to the allied armies was covered with salient angles, to give cross fire upon assailants. On the south side the works were naturally defended by lakes, which covered them to the river. On this side only small cannon were placed, and the abatis was but a sham of branches. On the river side the best works and the heaviest cannon were found. The former consisted of six large and well-constructed batteries, of which the London battery was the only one casemated. No large central redoubt existed inside the fortress. It had in-

side a very large exercise-ground, round which buildings were ranged, with barrack-room for 6,000 men. Furniture was found in all, and in the officers' houses quantities of preserves, oil, wines, and pickles, were left behind. As the buildings were in comparatively good condition, all the hospitals and deposits were being moved from Corrientes to it, and it was made the basis of future operations. The works were immediately razed to the ground.

On the 26th of August the vanguard of the Brazilian army crossed the Jacaré, a stream flowing into the Tebicuari, and routed a force of 300 Paraguayan cavalry on the other side, killing forty-five men and making some prisoners, together with 126 equipped horses. On the 28th the same force attacked and carried a redoubt on the bank of the Tebicuari, which was defended by some 400 Paraguayans with three small cannon. It was also protected by abatis, secured to the ground by stakes. The assaulting force consisted of two brigades of infantry, a brigade and two half corps of cavalry, six cannon, and a contingent of sappers. The struggle, though short, was severe, and the official report gives the Paraguayan loss at 170 killed and 81 prisoners, and that of the Brazilians at 21 killed and 132 wounded. The three cannon were captured, together with arms, ammunition, horses, and oxen. Four monitors were then ordered to enter the Tebicuari, which were able to go up two leagues without difficulty, and on the 1st of September the crossing of the Tebicuari was made, and it was found that the Paraguayans had abandoned all the lines there, leaving a dismounted cannon, large deposits of munitions, and food, etc. The battery on the Paraguay was also dismounted, the pieces being thrown into the river. In the march of the Brazilian army from Humaita to the Tebicuari no less than 900 draught oxen were killed in the transporting of the baggage and munitions, notwithstanding that much was sent by water.

After abandoning the position on the Tebicuari, Lopez established his headquarters at Villeta. His army, at this time, was reported to number about 15,000 men. The new position was of considerable strength, owing to the dense woods, deep ravines, and the extensive marshes that surround it. The natural position of Villeta was in fact much stronger than it was at first generally anticipated. The Paraguayans were posted upon high hills, where they mounted their artillery. The allies threw up earthworks to fortify their positions.

On September 23d, a fight took place for the possession of the bridge on the stream Piciquires, which lasted several hours, and ended in the defeat of the Paraguayans, the allied forces taking full possession of the bridge, as well as of a very important position beyond it. The losses of the allies on this occasion are announced by General Caxias, in his order of the day to the army, dated September 26, 1868, as follows: "Our losses are: 234 men put *hors de combat*—being, officers killed, 12;

wounded seriously, 18; slightly, 8; soldiers killed, 78; wounded seriously, 169; slightly, 9." The loss of the Paraguayan troops was estimated to have been 400 killed, wounded, and prisoners.

Another engagement occurred on the 1st of October. The allied army, under General Viscount de Herval, was ordered to effect a reconnoissance of the positions occupied by the Paraguayan forces at Villeta. The viscount pushed forward, and engaged the enemy at several points, took a redoubt at the point of the bayonet and drove the Paraguayans before him. The object of the reconnoitring expedition being successfully accomplished, the allied forces returned to their encampment.

On the 15th of November, the allied forces, under the command of Marshal Caxias, made a desperate attack on Villeta, the stronghold of President Lopez, but were repulsed with a loss of 1,500 killed and wounded. After the failure to carry Villeta, the Brazilian iron-clads attacked, but with no better success, and were obliged to retreat beyond range of Lopez's batteries.

The month of December witnessed some of the severest and most decisive fighting of the whole war. On the 6th of December, the Brazilians, under the command of Marshal Caxias, fell upon the rear-guard of the Paraguayans, composed of about 4,000 men, and commanded by General Caballero. The attack was very impetuous, and the defence very brave. After several hours of severe fighting, the Paraguayans were completely routed. General Caballero himself was killed. A Paraguayan colonel, taken on the 11th, stated that the Paraguayan forces consisted of four brigades of infantry of about 900 men each, and about 1,000 cavalry, making a total of about 4,600 men, with 12 cannon. Of these forces he estimated the loss at 1,200 killed and wounded on the 6th. This force was instructed to withstand the Brazilian advance wherever practicable, and received orders to maintain the bridge of Itororo. Lopez ordered them to retire on the night of the 10th to Lomas Valentinas, but the commander, fearing to be cut off by the numerous Brazilian cavalry, determined to hold the ground, on which consequently another battle was fought on the 11th. The Paraguayans were again defeated, and Lopez was thus compelled to leave his camp at Villeta and to withdraw to Cerro Leon.

The occupation of Villeta by the Brazilians was on the 17th of December. On this occasion another cavalry engagement took place, in which the Paraguayans again lost about 100 men killed, and 50 taken prisoners. The Marquis de Caxias was delayed by the necessity of receiving supplies by the Chaco. He united with his other forces three battalions stationed in the Chaco, fearing no attack on that side of the river. In a reconnoissance of the batteries

of Angostura, Captain Augusto Netto de Mendonça, commander of the iron-clad *Mariz e Barros*, was killed by a splinter which struck his head. On the morning of the 21st, however, the three Brazilian army corps prepared to attempt the assault of the Paraguayan positions, and orders had been sent to the squadron and to the forces, principally Argentines, left in the camp at Palmas, to coöperate as far as possible. The Paraguayans were posted in their intrenchments on the hills called Lomas Valentinas, about nine miles from Villeta, and among the works connecting the Lomas with Angostura, which lies on the river Paraguay at a distance of six miles from Lomas Valentinas. About 50 cannon were mounted in the various works, and some 7,000 Paraguayans were ready to defend them against the assailants, who numbered only 15,000 to 18,000 men after the heavy losses in the previous fights. On the 21st the fighting commenced, and a division of Brazilian troops assaulted the lines of Pequisiri, uniting Angostura with Lomas Valentinas, and forced them, cutting off the communication between those two works, and capturing 30 cannon. At the same time a column of cavalry encircled the Paraguayan right at Lomas Valentinas, and, falling upon *Potreiro Marmoré*, captured 3,000 head of fat cattle. In the afternoon a reconnoissance in force was made on the heights of Lomas Valentinas, where the Paraguayans were intrenched on the summit of a high and extensive hill. By 6 p. m. the Brazilians succeeded in overpowering the defence at the first line, and in crossing the ditch, but the terrain, being covered with groves of wood and with huts, rendered it impossible for the cavalry to proceed. It was determined to maintain the position reached, and all through the night continued fighting went on in the endeavors of the Paraguayans to recover it. However, after severe fighting, the Brazilians succeeded in their purpose, and captured 14 cannon, including the 32-pounder *Whitworth*, and two others captured at Tuyuti. During the same night also, 650 head of cattle were cut off while leaving the Paraguayan camp. From the 22d to the 26th bombardments of Angostura and Lomas Valentinas were kept up, and the Argentine, the Uruguayan, and Brazilian forces left at Palmas were brought to headquarters, their cannon coming afterward. On the 24th Lopez was summoned to surrender, to prevent unnecessary effusion of blood, but his reply was, that he and all his troops were determined to defend the cause of Paraguay to the last. On the morning of the 27th, all the cannon and rockets of the allied armies opened upon Lomas Valentinas. Marshal *Caxias*, with 6,000 Brazilians and Argentines, marched at day-break to attack the rear, while Generals *Gelly y Obes* and *Castro* seconded the attempt by attacking the front. A storm of missiles was rained on Lomas Valentinas, and all the allied troops advanced against its works. Ground was

gained on all sides, and the chief redoubt in the rear was carried, the enemy retreating into his last defence, leaving 14 cannon, large quantities of food, powder, and other munitions, arms, etc., together with the personal baggage of Lopez. Lopez, however, escaped toward *Cerro Leon*, with Mrs. Lynch, General *Resquin*, and a small escort of cavalry. Among the many who came in and surrendered were Dr. *William Stuart* (English), and Colonel *Cister* (Hungarian), who brought his family with him. Colonel *Ernesto Augusto da Cunha Mattos*, of artillery, taken prisoner at Tuyuti on November 3, 1867, succeeded in making his escape, and rejoining the Brazilian forces. On the 28th a summons to surrender within 12 hours was sent to the Paraguayans in Angostura, but the flag was refused reception. Orders were then given for an assault next morning. As, however, a flag of truce came out of Angostura, advantage was taken to send a summons to surrender by 4 p. m., and by noon a reply came that the commandants wished to send five officers to verify whether Lopez had been driven from his position. This was granted, and the commissioners were escorted through the camps, hospitals, and works. At 5 a. m. next morning (30th) a reply came offering to yield, and at 11 a. m. the garrison marched out with the honors of war and stacked arms at the appointed place, the officers retaining their swords upon parole not to serve in the present war. Lieutenant-Colonels *Lucas Carillo* and *George Thompson* (English) were respectively first and second in command of the garrison, which numbered 1,200 men, exclusive of 800 wounded and sick, and women. A Brazilian corps occupied *Asuncion* on the 2d of January, 1869, finding it deserted, and on the 5th the main body of the Brazilian forces entered it also, the Argentines being left in charge of Angostura. All the Paraguayan wounded and non-combatants had been transported to *Asuncion*, and many families were returning thither and to Villeta; but the Marquis de *Caxias* proposed holding *Asuncion* as a fortress for the present. A naval expedition set out from *Asuncion* on the 4th of January, 1869, for *Matto-Grosso*, to expel any Paraguayans still in the province, and, if practicable, prevent the possible flight of Lopez to Bolivia. Vessels were also searching the lakes and rivers along the Paraguay, to capture or destroy the six Paraguayan steamers remaining of Lopez's flotilla. Of Lopez himself nothing was known since his escape after the rout at Lomas Valentinas, except that he had passed through *Cerro Leon* with a small escort. At *Cerro Leon* no garrison was found by the Brazilian cavalry corps in pursuit, only a large number of wounded, and many families from Villeta, *Asuncion*, and the country round about them. General *McMahon*, the United States minister, was reported to be resolved on supporting Lopez, and on establishing the seat of the American Legation wherever Lopez's head-

quarters in Paraguay might be. These (in January, 1869) were said to be about 50 miles from Asuncion, and he was said to be intrenched with 5,000 men.

Early in the year, the Government of Paraguay believed to have discovered a wide-spread conspiracy against the rule and even the life of President Lopez, and a number of the most prominent men of the country were arrested. No trustworthy information about the origin of the pretended conspiracy was ascertained during the year, but in January, 1869, it appeared from documents said to have been found in the camp of Lopez, after the capture of Angostura, and from the statement of several Paraguayans, that the suspicion of Lopez was awakened in February, 1869, when the iron-clads appeared before Asuncion, carrying with them the news that they had passed the hitherto invincible Humaita. There was a general desire for a gathering, according to these statements, to talk of common danger, and to devise means of defence. Lopez regarded all the men who had met that day, and all the foreigners of the city, as conspirators against him. The military officers he shot at sight, the civilians were imprisoned and in the course of time tortured until they perished, or else he had them executed in some barbarous manner. From the papers found in the camp of Lopez, it was ascertained that, at San Fernando, 90 prisoners were shot, among whom was the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Berges. On December 21st, a large number of prisoners were shot at Loma Negra, among whom were Barrios and his wife, a sister of Lopez, Benigno Lopez, a brother of the President, and the Bishop of Asuncion. The mother of Lopez had been exiled for having asked him to pardon her children.

Closely connected with this pretended conspiracy was the difficulty between President Lopez and the Minister of the United States in Asuncion, Charles A. Washburn. Previous to February, 1868, Mr. Washburn was on good terms with the Paraguayan Government. On the 22d February, a decree came ordering every one to leave Asuncion. Mr. Washburn refused to remove, alleging that his Legation was American territory. All the foreign consuls fled the city, and, with the exception of the American minister, none dared to disobey. Some twenty-two English, some two or three Americans, and a few others, sought refuge at the Legation. Mr. Washburn advised those people first to apply to the Vice-President, and that, if the Government had no objection, he would take them in. The Government consented, and accordingly Messrs. Carreras, Rodriguez, and servant, Bliss, Manlove, and Duffeld, besides twenty-two English, took up their quarters at the American Legation. Masterman, it appears, had been a resident at Mr. Washburn's house for fully eight months previously. Most of the foreigners after a while left the Legation, and as soon as they left it were arrested.

On the 16th of June, the acting Portuguese Consul, Pereira, fled from his chacra at Trinidad, and sought refuge at the American Legation. He was induced to this step in consequence of a notice he got from the French Consul of the feelings of Lopez toward him. Mr. Washburn at once admitted Pereira, although at the time there were four pickets of soldiers around the Legation. On the 20th of June, the Paraguayan Government demanded of Mr. Washburn a list of all parties at the Legation, which Mr. Washburn supplied on the 22d of June.

On June 27th, Gumecindo Benitez, Minister of Foreign Affairs, demanded almost peremptorily that Pereira be delivered over to the police officers. Mr. Washburn, in reply, reminded the foreign minister of the strange character of this request addressed to him. He pointed out, also, that the character of a consul is considered almost as sacred as that of a minister, and declined to give Pereira up.

Minister Benitez, on July 4th, pointed out that, from Mr. Washburn's letter, stating that it was in consequence of a communication from the French Consul that Pereira had gone to the Legation, it would seem that he received Pereira as a refugee, and not merely as a guest, and therefore "requested" that Pereira and all others "who, not belonging to the Legation, are at present in it, some as guests and others in other capacities," be dismissed from the hotel before sunset the next day.

Mr. Washburn replied that all the gentlemen referred to in the correspondence, in order to save him from embarrassment, had declared their readiness to leave, and would leave the same day. There would only remain Dr. Carreras, formerly Vice-President of Uruguay, Señor Rodriguez, formerly Secretary of the Uruguayan Legation, Mrs. Pereira, and two American ladies.

Minister Benitez, in his reply of July 12th, insists that the Orientals, Dr. Carreras and Dr. Rodriguez, should be dismissed from the Legation. He permits, however, the ladies, friends and attendants of Mrs. Washburn, to remain. The demand was again complied with, although Mr. Washburn, in his reply, stated that he was fully convinced of the entire innocence of the two Uruguayans, both of whom had been steadfast friends of the cause of Paraguay.

On July 13th, Minister Benitez demanded the dismissal of the American citizen Cornelius Bliss, and of the Englishman, George Masterman, "accused of crimes not less grave than the others" already dismissed. On July 14th, Mr. Washburn declined to accede to this request, stating that Mr. Masterman was the medical attendant of his family, had been mentioned as such in his communications to the Foreign Ministry, and that he considered him recognized as a member of the Legation. On July 23d, Minister Benitez demanded the immediate delivery of a sealed packet of communications which the ex-Minister of Foreign Af-

fairs, Jose Berges, "personally delivered to your Excellency." Mr. Washburn denied that he ever received such a package. In a long letter, on July 23d, Benitez distinctly charged Bliss with conspiring to accomplish the "treacherous assassination of the President of the Republic," and denied emphatically that they were recognized as members of the American Legation.

Minister Benitez, in a long letter dated July 31st, gave the substance of an interview he had with Mr. Washburn, in which he charged him with conspiring with the ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, Señor Berges. On August 3d, Mr. Washburn categorically denied the accusations made against himself personally.

Benitez replied, quoting at length, against Mr. Washburn, statements of Carreras and others at that time in Lopez's power, which seemed to implicate Mr. Washburn. Mr. Washburn, in reply, explained at great length the circumstances under which he sent letters abroad, and repeated again and again his denials of complicity with the alleged conspirators. The correspondence was continued in this style until the arrival of the United States war vessel *Wasp*. At the first interview of Captain Kirkland, of the *Wasp*, with President Lopez, the latter threatened to keep the United States Minister as a prisoner in the country, to which Captain Kirkland replied, that in that case the Government of the United States would not only use its whole power promptly to punish him, but would hunt him, if necessary, through all South America and even through Europe. Mr. Washburn was subsequently allowed to go on board the *Wasp*, but Messrs. Masterman and Bliss, while on the way to the vessel, were arrested. On board the *Wasp*, Mr. Washburn, on September 12th, sent a final letter to Lopez, in which he says:

The declarations of Berges, your two brothers, Venancio and Benigno, and Sr. Urdepilletta, as given in the notes of your two last Ministers of Foreign Relations, in so far as they implicate me of having any knowledge of a conspiracy, are entirely false, and you know it; and you know that not one of them would confirm or affirm the declaration imputed to him if he were out of your power, but would deny it *in toto*, and declare that he had never made it, or that he had done so under torture. Declarations of that kind, your Excellency ought to know, will have no weight outside of Paraguay. Not one word of them will be believed, and, that all may not be denied by them, you must not only kill off all the persons who have made them, but all by whom they were extorted.

Before finally leaving Paraguay, it is my duty to make my solemn protest against the arrest of those two members of my Legation, Porter Cornelius Bliss and George F. Masterman. Their arrest in the street, as they were going with me from the Legation to pass on board the steamer, was as gross a violation of the laws of nations as would have been their seizure by force in my house. It was an act, not only against my government, but against all civilized powers, and places Paraguay outside the pale of the family of nations; and for this act you will be regarded as a common enemy—one denying allegiance to the laws of nations.

You will also be regarded as a common enemy for having seized and made prisoners, and loaded with

fetters, nearly all the foreigners in Paraguay, and afterward entered their houses and taken away their money on the miserable pretext that, finding less in your treasury than you expected, those who had any money in the country, must, therefore, have robbed it from the government.

In November, Rear-Admiral Davis, commanding the United States squadron in the Paraguayan waters, accompanied, with several vessels, the new Minister of the United States to Paraguay, General McMahon, to the place of his destination. On December 3d, Admiral Davis anchored at Angostura and communicated with Lopez. The Dictator came to the river-bank, had an interview of three hours' duration with the Admiral, was courteous and frank in his demeanor, and declared that he intended to accede to the demand of the United States and deliver up the captives Bliss and Masterman. Some correspondence ensued, and, on December 10th, Bliss and Masterman were sent on board the flagship. On the 12th, the new American Minister, General McMahon, landed, presented his credentials, and was received by Lopez with great friendliness and the customary honors. The American vessel withdrew to Montevideo.

PARSONS, USHER, M. D., a physician, medical professor, and author, born in Alfred, York County, Me., in 1788; died in Providence, R. I., December 17, 1868. The early education of Dr. Parsons was obtained in the vicinity of his native town, the schools and academies of that part of Maine having long had a high reputation. Having acquired a good academic education, he went to Boston, and entered the office of Dr. John Warren as a medical student, and had just become qualified to practice when, in 1811, he entered the naval service, and joined the frigate *John Adams*, in 1812, as surgeon's mate. The officers and crew of the vessel volunteering for service on the lakes, Dr. Parsons went with them, reaching Erie in June, 1813. Great sickness prevailed in the fleet at this time, to such an extent, indeed, that finally the only surgeon fit for duty was the deceased, on whom devolved the task of attending to the sick men. At the battle of September 10th, he was the only medical officer on duty, and was on board the flagship *Lawrence*, commanded by Commodore Perry, during the engagement. His efficiency and courage during the day won the admiration of his commander, who, in his report to the Secretary of the Navy, referred in most flattering terms to the young surgeon, closing his remarks by stating that in the event of his having another command he should consider himself peculiarly fortunate in having Dr. Parsons with him as surgeon. For his conduct on this occasion, Dr. Parsons was appointed a full surgeon in the navy, with a commission bearing date of September 10th, the day of the battle. In May, 1814, he was ordered on board the *Lawrence*, which, with the fleet under Commodore Sinclair, sailed to Mackinac for the purpose of transporting the troops

destined to attack Detroit. The attack failed, and in November following the deceased was ordered to the frigate Java, at the request of Commodore Perry. His services from this time were not of particular importance. In 1823 he resigned his commission, married, and settled in his profession in Providence, R. I. Dr. Parsons was at one time Professor of Anatomy at Dartmouth College, Professor in Brown University at Providence, President of the Rhode Island Medical Society, and first Vice-President of the American Medical Association. He was also the author of several medical works and other literary productions.

PENNSYLVANIA. The financial condition of this State shows considerable improvement during the year. On the 1st of December, 1867, there was a balance in the treasury of \$4,661,836.46. The ordinary receipts for the fiscal year ending November 30, 1868, amounted to \$5,216,049.55. The ordinary expenses of the government for the same period were \$2,454,506.09; loans were redeemed to the amount of \$4,417,463.64, and \$1,979,690.91 were paid in interest on the various State loans. Other payments were made to the amount of \$12,800, and at the close of the year there were \$1,013,415.37 in the public treasury. The State debt of Pennsylvania amounted on the 1st of December, 1867, to \$37,704,409.77. During the year following that date it was reduced to \$33,286,946.13. The indebtedness of the Commonwealth on the 1st of December, 1868, was made up of the following items:

<i>Funded Debt.</i>	
6 per cent. loans.....	\$25,311,180 00
5 per cent. loans.....	7,749,771 56
4½ per cent. loans.....	112,000 00
Total funded.....	\$33,172,951 56

<i>Unfunded Debt.</i>	
Relief notes in circulation.....	\$96,415 00
Interest certificates outstanding.....	13,086 52
Domestic certificates unclaimed.....	4,448 33
Domestic creditors' certificates.....	44 67
Total unfunded.....	113,994 57

Total funded and unfunded..... \$33,286,946 13

The State has a sinking fund which, during the last fiscal year, yielded the sum of about \$3,000,000.

The last Legislature increased the State appropriation for the support of public schools from \$355,000 to \$500,000. The following statistics relating to common schools are taken from the official reports:

The number of school districts in the State is.....	1,913
Number of schools.....	13,666
Number of graded schools.....	2,332
Number of school directors.....	11,698
Number of superintendents.....	75
Number of teachers.....	16,771
Number of pupils.....	800,515
Average number of pupils.....	508.104
Cost of tuition for the year.....	\$3,273,269 43
Cost of building, purchasing and renting school-houses.....	1,991,152 55
Cost of contingencies.....	854,253 21
Total cost for tuition, building, etc., and contingencies.....	6,118,675 19
Total cost, including expenditures of all kinds.....	6,200,537 96
Estimated value of school property.....	10,556,765 00

The increase in these items, as compared with those of last year, is as follows:

In number of districts.....	29
In number of schools.....	231
In number of graded schools.....	137
In number of school directors.....	155
In number of superintendents.....	5
In number of teachers.....	248
In number of pupils.....	11,126
In the average number of pupils.....	27,234
In cost of tuition, building, etc., and contingencies.....	\$1,037,136 08
In total cost, including expenditures of all kinds.....	1,039,787 79

The average cost for the tuition of each pupil is about \$7.74½. The average amount paid to each teacher is 195.17½, the average wages for male teachers being \$37.28 a month, and those of females \$28.76. It is a noteworthy fact, that, while the number of male teachers in the State, exclusive of the city of Philadelphia, has diminished by 1,256, the number of female teachers has increased by 3,932. The average length of the school term for the year is 5 months, 19½ days.

An inquiry was set on foot, during the past year, by the board of controllers of the city of Philadelphia, to ascertain how many children in that city did not attend schools of any kind. The census was taken by the police, under the direction of the mayor, and revealed the somewhat startling fact that, out of 150,000 children between the ages of six and eighteen, 20,534 attended neither public nor private schools. A similar state of things has been found in other places, and it is estimated that in the whole State there are 75,000 children whose education is entirely neglected. In connection with this subject of popular education the following facts are of interest:

There were admitted into the houses of refuge of the State, during the past year, 536 children, whose average age was 14½ years. Of this number there were, who did not know the alphabet, 57; who knew the alphabet only, 92; who could read poorly, 262; who could read well, 21; who could not write, 246; who could write poorly, 177; who could write tolerably, 94; who could write well, 19.

There were in the almshouses of forty-six counties in the year 1867, when visited by the county superintendents who made the reports, 2,809 persons over ten years of age. Of these—

The number who could not read was.....	1,181
The number who could read a little.....	1,189
The number who could read well.....	412
The number who were good scholars.....	70

There were in the jails of the same number of counties, as reported by the same officers at the same time, 1,601 occupants. Of whom—

The number who could not read was.....	434
The number who could read a little was.....	540
The number who could read well was.....	504
The number who were good scholars was.....	123

There were received in the Eastern Penitentiary, for the year 1867, 291 convicts. The classification of these, by the officers of the prison, according to their educational relations, is as follows:

Illiterate.....	62
Read only.....	24
Read and write.....	203
Good education.....	2

The whole number of convicts received at this prison is 5,975. Of this number there have been—

Of illiterate.....	1,210
Of those who could read only.....	1,019
Of those who could read and write.....	3,714
Of those well instructed.....	32

The normal school system of Pennsylvania contemplates the ultimate establishment of twelve institutions in different parts of the State. Of these, four are already in operation and two others have their buildings in process of erection. The number of students at the four schools already established was 2,121 during the past year; 1,702 were in the normal department and 419 in the model schools. The number of graduates at all the schools was 77, all of whom declared their intention to become teachers in the common schools of the State. The prosperous condition of these institutions is shown by the fact that they expended \$30,-991.47 in improvements during the year. The two schools not yet completed are at Bloomsburg and California.

The Agricultural College in Centre County, which has been heretofore considered a comparative failure, has received the attention of the Legislature, and is in a fair way to be put on a basis which promises much for its future usefulness. The interest upon a fund of \$318,-500 has been appropriated to the endowment of this institution, and \$43,886 have been devoted to the purchase of three model and experimental farms—the largest at the college in Centre County, one in Chester County, and the other in Indiana County. The board of trustees has reorganized the faculty, and remodelled the course of study, and the new order of things is expected to go into full operation some time during the year 1869.

There are several schools for the instruction of soldiers' orphans, which are supported by the State. The total expenditure for this purpose, from the 1st of December, 1867, to the 31st of May, 1868, was \$236,370.26, and the total number of pupils in the schools was 3,431. At Media is a training-school for feeble-minded children, where physical, mental, and moral training is systematically applied to those defective natures which develop only under the most assiduous care. Since the foundation of the institution in 1853, 501 inmates have been received, and, in most cases, a very satisfactory degree of improvement has been attained in the condition of those generally regarded as hopeless. This school is supported by funds established by the States of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware, and by private benefactions.

The Legislature of Pennsylvania meets on the first Tuesday in January. The last session continued until the early part of May, but no laws of general interest were passed. An

attempt was made to have the question of so amending the constitution of the State as to give the rights of suffrage to negroes, submitted to a vote of the people, but the proposition received only 13 votes in its favor in the House of Representatives, while 73 were recorded against it.

The following resolution was introduced, and referred to the Committee on Federal Relations:

Resolved, That we, the representatives of the people of Pennsylvania, urge upon the Secretary of State, Hon. William H. Seward, the propriety and importance of instructing the United States Minister to demand of the British Government the immediate release of all American citizens imprisoned for alleged political offences, and to insist upon the adoption of some fixed policy that will insure to every American citizen on British soil such immunities and protection as he is entitled to under the laws of a proud republic.

When Edwin M. Stanton (who was a citizen of Pennsylvania), was removed from the office of Secretary of War, by the President, and restored to that position by the action of Congress, the following joint resolution was adopted by the Legislature and forwarded to the Senate of the United States, where it was allowed to lie on the table:

1. *Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in General Assembly met*, That the loyal men of this Commonwealth hail with joy the restoration of Hon. Edwin M. Stanton to the office from which he has been illegally excluded, and that the thanks of the people of Pennsylvania are hereby tendered to the Senators who have by their action in this case vindicated a meritorious officer and rebuked an apostate President.

2. *Resolved*, That it is the universal wish of the loyal men of Pennsylvania that Hon. Edwin M. Stanton shall retain the office he now holds; that he will sink his personal wishes for the public good, and that the country, more than ever requiring his services, may again rest in security with the unflinching Secretary at the head of military affairs.

3. *Resolved*, That while the suspension of Mr. Stanton for a time so unnecessarily and unjustly from the War Office is lamented, it is cause of congratulation to the country that the great leader of the Union armies, General U. S. Grant, was the Secretary *ad interim*, who brought to the administration of that office that courage, energy, ability, and loyalty, that delighted the heart of the nation in the darkness of rebellion in the past, and directs it to him with hope and confidence in future.

4. *Resolved*, That the Governor of the Commonwealth be requested to forward copies of these resolutions to the Secretary of War and the Senate of the United States.

ELISHA W. DAVIS,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.
JAMES L. GRAHAM,
Speaker of the Senate.
Approved the 11th day of February, A. D., 1868.
JOHN W. GEARY.

The following relates to the impeachment of President Johnson:

Whereas, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, in disregard of a law passed by the constitutional majority of Congress over his veto, issued an order to remove E. M. Stanton as Secretary of War, and appointed Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General of the United States Army, Secretary of War *ad interim*; and *whereas*, E. M. Stanton has refused

to obey the illegal order to remove him from office, and the national House of Representatives has passed a resolution to impeach Andrew Johnson of high crimes and misdemeanors; therefore

Resolved, That the prompt action of the majority of the members of Congress in passing the resolution for the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, of high crimes and misdemeanors, be and the same are hereby commended and approved.

Resolved, That the refusal of E. M. Stanton to obey the illegal order to remove him from office meets with the approval of the Union-loving and law-abiding citizens of Pennsylvania.

Resolved, That the Governor be and is hereby requested to forward a copy of these resolutions to the Speaker of the national House and to Mr. Stanton.

The Democratic State Convention met in the chamber of the House of Representatives at Harrisburg, on the 4th of March. Delegates to the National Democratic Convention were chosen, and presidential electors and State officers nominated. Charles E. Boyle, of Fayette County, was nominated for the office of Auditor-General, and General Wellington Lut, of Columbia, for that of Surveyor-General. These were the only State officers to be filled at the election of the year. The platform of principles adopted by the convention was contained in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the happiness of the people and the preservation and continuance of our power as a republic depend upon the perpetuity of the Union and the preservation of the constitution, and the prompt restoration of each and all of the States to the enjoyment of their rights and functions in the Union is essential to our progress, our prosperity, and the protection of our liberties, and radical legislation is the barrier thereto.

Resolved, That the Constitution of the United States is the supreme law; it is binding upon the people and upon every department of the Government, and it is the highest duty of those in and out of official place to yield implicit obedience to all its provisions until it is changed in the manner provided therein; that the recent attempts of the legislative branch of the Government to usurp the office of the Executive and to destroy the independence of the judiciary, are deliberate attacks upon the plainest provisions of the Constitution, in utter violence of its spirit, and tend to the overthrow of the Government itself.

Resolved, That the radicals in Congress have wrung from the people enormous sums of money, which they have squandered in reckless extravagance; that their system of revenue is ill devised, incongruous and inequitable; that rigid economy in every branch of the public service, a decrease in the number of officials, a reduction in the army and navy, and reform in the collection of the revenue, are imperatively demanded; and only by this means can a reduction in the amount of taxation now imposed on the industrial and manufacturing interests be attained, and the payment of our indebtedness be assured.

Resolved, That the Republican party is responsible to the country for the delay in the restoration of the Southern States to their just relations in the Union, and for the government of their people by military rule; that the purpose of these measures is to perpetuate radical power through the votes of illiterate negroes.

Resolved, That, in enacting the Tenure of Office law the legislative and executive branches of the Government each had a right to judge of its constitutionality, and that, in thus exercising the right, the Executive was only complying with that portion of his oath of office which required him to preserve, protect

and defend the Constitution of the United States, and that it is the right of every branch of the Government and of every citizen to have the questions involving the constitutionality of any law speedily adjudicated by the Supreme Court of the United States, and the right of all the people to have said decision enforced.

Resolved, That the pending impeachment of the President of the United States is a gross and reckless abuse of partisan power, without justifiable cause, and intended for the attainment of party purposes at the sacrifice of the most vital interests of the country.

Resolved, That a return to a specie-paying basis at the earliest practicable moment is essential to the interests of the people and the prosperity of the nation.

Resolved, That the national debt should be paid as rapidly as is consistent with the terms of the laws upon which the several loans are based.

Resolved, That the five-twenty bonds and the legal tender notes are component parts of the same finance system, and, until the Government is able to redeem the legal tenders in coin, the holders of those bonds should be required to receive legal tenders in payment.

Resolved, That every species of property should bear its fair proportion of taxation, and that the exemption of government bonds therefrom is unjust and inequitable.

Resolved, That we recognize with emotions of the deepest gratitude the efforts of the gallant volunteer soldiery who so freely took up arms to protect the flag and preserve the Union, and we denounce as unjust to them the efforts of the radicals to prevent a restoration of the Union until negro supremacy is established in certain States and negro equality made the rule in all.

Resolved, That the naturalization of foreign-born citizens places them on the same footing as those born in this country, and that it is the duty of the Government to see that all citizens, naturalized and native, are protected in their rights of life, liberty, and property, abroad as well as at home, and that, in the view of the democracy, the flag of the country ought and must be made to protect all our citizens.

The Republican State Convention assembled at the Academy of Music, in the city of Philadelphia, on the 11th of March. A vote of the delegates was taken, in order to ascertain their preferences with regard to candidates for President and Vice-President. The Convention pronounced unanimously in favor of General Grant for President; and, for Vice-President, gave 109 votes for Andrew G. Curtin, 22 for Benjamin F. Wade, and 1 for Edwin M. Stanton. General John F. Hartranft and Col. Jacob M. Campbell were unanimously nominated for reelection to the offices of auditor and surveyor-general. The resolutions adopted were as follows:

Resolved, That the great Republican party of America, without which the rebellion against the Government would have consummated a division of the Union and perpetuated human slavery, with the aid, comfort, and full approval of the present Democratic party, is in the fore-front of another peril and another trial. Electing its candidate for President in 1860, and reelecting him in 1864, it is now called upon to decide whether all its sacrifices of blood and treasure have not only been vain, but were simply contributions for a restoration of treason under the influence of a man who, clothed with the confidence of his country, is prevented from overthrowing the Government solely by the wise and patriotic stand taken by a loyal Congress.

Resolved, That we add our voice to the loud acclaim

in favor of Grant as the Republican candidate for President, and in so doing feel that we are not simply responding to the wishes of our constituents, or helping to pay a portion of the debt we owe to that great soldier, but are preparing the way to a substantial triumph, which, while perpetuating the Republican party, preserves and perpetuates Republican creeds.

Resolved, That we earnestly call upon the Senate of the United States, sitting as a Court of Impeachment, to proceed without fear, favor, or affection, and that the people of Pennsylvania will stand by and maintain the just judgment of law.

Resolved, That the soldiers and sailors of the Union who fought and conquered armed rebellion in the field, and who stand true to the principles which they vindicated and the flag which floated over them and led them to victory, are entitled to undying gratitude from loyal people; and, as they saved the country by trials, sufferings, and sacrifices, they have considerable claims to the highest honors of the nation.

Resolved, That we tender our most cordial thanks to Mr. Stanton for the firmness, courage, and patriotism with which he has maintained the majesty of the law and the rights of the people against the invasion of a faithless Executive and purchased instruments; that, as experience is alike the best instructor of man and nations, so the experience of the rebellion has given us renewed confidence in the pledges and precepts of the Declaration of Independence, and that with these as our guiding stars the Republican party must always succeed.

Resolved, That no contrast so eloquent could be presented as that between the loud professions of Andrew Johnson and the silent patriotism of Ulysses S. Grant; that, as one deals in promises to deceive, the other deals in acts that convince; and that, while Johnson has fallen rapidly away from his many voluntary covenants, Grant has accepted equal justice and Radical Republicanism as a part alike of conscience and duty.

Resolved, That the public debt, incurred for the purpose of preserving the existence of the nation, is a sacred obligation, binding the people to its payment in the utmost good faith, and to the full extent of its legal requirements; that the greatest prudence, judgment and skill are requisite, and should, as far as attainable, be employed at once to maintain the public faith and credit, and render the burden, of which no loyal citizen should complain, as light as practicable upon the productive industry of the country and the wages and proceeds of labor; that it is the soundest policy as well as the greatest wisdom that the domestic industry of the country should be sustained and protected against foreign competition by adequate tariff laws, and that, in whatever particulars existing laws on the subject are defective, they should be amended and made efficient for that purpose, as well as for the purpose of raising a revenue for the Government.

Resolved, That, by the election of Grant to the Presidency, all domestic dissensions and factious opposition to the complete reconstruction of the Union on the firm foundations laid by the wise and judicious legislation of Congress, will be immediately suppressed, and harmony and good feeling restored; settled relations of business established, and a revival and improvement of all disturbed sources of national wealth and prosperity will be secured, when it is once made manifest that the people of this country are firmly fixed in their determination that the fruits of the late bloody and obstinate struggle shall not be lost, and that factious and rebellious resistance to the laws shall be effectually overthrown, as under military hostility, which attempted to subvert the Government by savage cruelty, rapine, and murder.

Resolved, That Pennsylvania proudly tenders to the loyal people of the Union, Hon. Andrew G. Curtin, her great war Governor and soldiers' friend.

Resolved, That every American citizen, whether by birth or adoption, is entitled to the protection of the nation and its flag, and, while it is incumbent on the Government to initiate negotiations for the establishment of an international law of expatriation, recognizing naturalization by one nation as terminating allegiance due to another, and conferring all rights of citizenship, it is no less its duty to vindicate its people of all charges from oppression or interference at home and abroad, when in the legitimate and peaceful exercise of legal and personal rights.

At the last session of the Legislature the subject of adopting some measure for the prevention of fraudulent voting was brought up and discussed, and a registry law was the final result. This requires the board of aldermen of cities and the corresponding officers in townships to appoint a board of canvassers, who should meet in their respective districts on the first Monday of September in each year, and on that and the two following days "make out an alphabetical list of all such persons as they shall know to be qualified electors, who have voted at any preceding general election," designating in each case whether the voter is a housekeeper or boarder, what his occupation is, and with whom he boards, if not a housekeeper. When these lists have been completed they are to be publicly posted at two places in each district with a "notice thereon, that the board of canvassers will meet at the places of holding the general elections, on the twelfth day preceding the general election day, and for two days then next ensuing, for the purpose of revising, correcting, adding to, and subtracting from, and completing the list." The following is the section of the law prescribing the proof of residence, etc.:

Each person so claiming to be entitled to vote therein, shall produce at least one qualified voter of said division, as a witness of the residence of said claimant in said division for the period of at least ten days next preceding the general election, then next ensuing; which witness shall take and subscribe an affidavit to the facts stated by him; which affidavit shall define clearly the residence of the person so claiming to be a voter; and the person so claiming the right to be registered, shall also take and subscribe an affidavit stating *where he was born*; that he is a citizen of this Commonwealth and of the United States; and, if a naturalized citizen, shall also present his certificate of naturalization for examination, unless he shall have been a voter in such election district for five years then next preceding the general election next ensuing; that he had resided in this Commonwealth one year, or, if formerly a citizen therein, and has removed therefrom, that he has resided therein six months next preceding the general election then next following; that he has not moved into the division for the purpose of voting therein; that he has not been regarded as a voter elsewhere; which affidavits, both of the claimant and his witness, shall be preserved by the canvassers.

One copy of the revised list, when thus completed, is to be delivered to the board of assessors "who shall thereupon immediately assess a tax, according to law, upon every person whose name is contained on the list, and then deliver the same to the city commissioners, who shall cause a sufficient number of copies

to be printed for the use of the receiver of taxes, one of which they shall deliver to the inspectors of election of the division." The only evidence required that a person has a residence in the election division ten days next preceding the election, shall be the fact that his name is found on this list, "and the reception of the vote of any person not so proved shall constitute a misdemeanor in the election officers as receiving it, and on conviction thereof the election officer so offending shall be subject to a fine not exceeding \$500, and imprisonment not exceeding one year, at the discretion of the court."

There was much dissatisfaction felt with this law, on account of the trouble and time which were required of every voter before his vote would be received. It was also claimed that it was unconstitutional, as requiring qualifications of voters not demanded by the Constitution. The provision of that instrument on the subject is expressed in these words:

"In elections by the citizens, every white freeman of the age of twenty-one years, having resided in this State one year, and, in the election district where he offers to vote, ten days immediately preceding such election, and within two years paid a State or county tax, which shall have been assessed at least ten days before the election, shall enjoy the rights of an elector; but a citizen of the United States who had previously been a qualified voter of this State and removed therefrom and returned, and who shall have resided in the election district and pays taxes as aforesaid, shall be entitled to vote after residing in the State six months. *Provided*, That white freemen, citizens of the United States, between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-two years, in the election district ten days as aforesaid, shall be entitled to vote though they shall not have paid taxes."

Very soon after the passage of the law, steps were taken to test its validity. Bills in equity were filed in the Supreme Court in Philadelphia, by certain "residents, taxpayers, and qualified voters," of that city, to restrain the aldermen from appointing boards of commissioners and causing the registration of voters to be made in accordance with the provisions of the new law. The question was considered by the full bench of five judges in the early part of July, and a majority gave an opinion adverse to the law, pronouncing the same unconstitutional and void. Chief Justice Thompson pronounced the opinion of the court, and entered at considerable length into the merits of the case. The following passage from his opinion will serve to show the general objections to the law:

The accumulation of affidavits, not oaths merely—the attendance on the board of canvassers it may be, day after day, for the act contemplates that there may be required three days to revise the list, in hearing applicants for registration—the necessary applications by the voter to be assessed, which, if made at all, cannot be earlier than in the night time of the last of the ten days after the lists shall have been made out—the subjection to the assessment of a tax to complete the process, whether the voter may have previously thereto been assessed, or even paid his taxes or not, and the knowledge that, after all this, voters will at the polls be subject to be challenged, and all

that has been required and proved may heretofore be proved again—for the fact of registration is conclusive of nothing; it is only its absence which is evidence, and that against the citizen—are such a succession of embarrassments, if nothing more, as to be equivalent in many cases to a denial of the right of the elector altogether—an overthrow of the guaranty of the constitution, that "elections shall be free." I fully subscribe to what was said by the court in the case of *Com. vs. Maxwell*, 3, Casey, 444; "a law intended to take away or unnecessarily postpone or embarrass the right of election would be set aside as unwarrantable." This principle is affected by any unnecessary embarrassments of the rights of the elector. Nor is the evil distinguishable between the consequences of an act intended to embarrass, and one that does embarrass unnecessarily without intending it. In my judgment, this view, if there was nothing else to complain of, ought to set aside this act.

It was said also that the requirement of ten days' residence before registration increased the period required by the Constitution before the day of voting, and that naturalized citizens whose papers were received less than ten days before the election would be deprived of the privilege of voting to which they were entitled.

This law having been pronounced void by the highest tribunal in the State, no registration of voters was made for the fall elections. The State election took place on the second Tuesday of October, and resulted in the choice of the Republican candidates for the State offices. The whole vote cast for auditor-general was 653,155, of which Hartranft received 331,416, and Boyle 321,739, giving the former a majority of 9,077.

For several weeks prior to the election, the rapidity with which the naturalization of foreigners was carried on in the city of Philadelphia, led to numerous suspicions of fraud, or negligent examination of applicants in the tribunals charged with issuing naturalization papers. In the Supreme Court, where Judge Sharswood presided, nearly 3,000 persons were naturalized in a single week, and it was said that blank papers, signed by the prothonotary, were issued in large numbers. This matter was brought up for the adjudication of the Court, on a rule that the prothonotary show cause why an attachment should not issue against him for contempt, and Judge Sharswood declared, that there was no evidence of fraud or negligence on the part of that official. Certain certificates found on the person of a drunken man were pronounced forgeries, and the judge intimated his belief that they were placed there for the purpose of giving an opportunity to make charges of fraud and corruption against the tribunals and officials having authority to issue certificates of naturalization. On the day before the election, the question of the legality of the naturalization papers issued for several weeks previously, was brought before Judge Read, who decided that they were illegal, and that any person attempting to vote on the strength of such papers would be liable to arrest, a fine of \$1,000, and imprisonment

for three years. This had the effect to exclude from the polls in Philadelphia a large number of persons who had received certificates of citizenship from the Supreme Court during the months of September and the first three days of October. The vote in Philadelphia Co., at the State election, was 60,808 for the Democratic, and 60,633 for the Republican ticket.

At the Presidential election the whole vote of the State was 645,662. The Republican electors received 342,280 of these, and the Democratic 313,382, which gave a majority of 28,898 for the election of General Grant for president. The Legislature met early in January, 1869, and was constituted as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	18	62	80
Democrats	15	38	53
Republican majority..	3	24	27

PERSIA, a country in Asia. Shah (properly Shah yn Shah, which means King of Kings), Nasser-ed-Din, born in 1829; succeeded his father, Mohammed-Shah, in 1848. The heir-apparent, Mouzaffer-ed-Din-Mirza, died in 1868. Ministry (appointed 1866): War, Aziz-Khan; Finances, Mirza-Yussuf; Commerce and Public Instruction, Ali-Kooli-Mirza; Foreign Affairs, Mirza-Said-Khan; Justice, Mehemed-Kuli-Khan. The area is about 562,000 square miles; the population, about 10,000,000 (according to other estimates only 6,000,000). The nomad population is estimated at 3,000,000. The largest cities are Isfahan, about 60,000 inhabitants; Tabreez, 110,000 (according to a Tabreez letter in the *Levant Herald* of Constantinople, the city has over 70,000 houses and over 200,000 inhabitants); Teheran, 85,000; Meshed, 70,000. All the inhabitants, with the exception of about 500,000, are Mohammedans, of whom about 7,500,000 belong to the Shiite, 1,500,000 to the Sunnite, and 500,000 to other sects. The number of Christians is variously estimated at from 60,000 to 300,000. The majority of Christians are Nestorians and Armenians. The Gotha almanac for 1867 gives 200,000 Armenians and 100,000 Nestorians; but the Gotha almanac for 1869 estimates the number of Nestorians at only 25,000, and that of Armenians at 26,000. A correspondence of the Paris *Moniteur* (October 15, 1867) gives the following statistics on the district of Ooroomeeyah, which has for many years been the seat of Protestant missions: The district has a population of about 125,000 inhabitants, of which 31,300 belong to the town of Ooroomeeyah and 93,500 to the 360 villages. The country population is composed of 4 Armenian villages, with 1,000 inhabitants; 90 Nestorian villages, with about 20,000 inhabitants; of whom from 1,500 to 2,000 are Catholic Chaldees; 30 villages of Koords (Sunnite Mohammedans), 7,500 inhabitants; 215 Turkish villages (Shiite Mohammedans); 60,000 inhabitants; 21 villages, with a mixed population of Chaldees, Armenians, and Mohammedans, 6,000 inhabitants. The town of

Ooroomeeyah numbers 200 Catholic Chaldees, 600 Nestorian Chaldees, 1,000 Israelites, 1,500 Sunnites, and 28 Shiites. The total number of Israelites is about 16,000; that of the Parsees (especially in Yezd and Kerman), about 7,200. The receipts of the treasury of the crown in 1868, amounted to about 5,000,000 "tomans," (1 toman = \$1.95; or, $\frac{2}{3}$ £ sterling,) to which sum must be added the value of the extraordinary presents to the Shah. The Persian army at present numbers 90 regiments or battalions, of 800 men each, of regular infantry; 3 squadrons, of 500 men each, of regular cavalry, who are at the same time a body-guard to the Shah; 5,000 artillery, and 200 light artillery, mounted on camels; besides 30,000 irregular cavalry, who are called into service in case of emergency. The imports are valued about \$12,000,000, and the exports at \$7,000,000.

In a report from Mr. Ronald Thompson, of the British Legation at Teheran, to the English Government, the following information on Persia is given:

In the Royal Treasury of Persia it is said there is deposited gold coin of the value of £1,500,000, gold furniture and plate belonging to the Crown, £500,000, and the Crown jewels valued at £2,000,000, making in all £4,000,000, or 20 crores of tomans. The most remarkable of the Crown jewels are the Deryai-Noor, 178 carats, valued at 500,000 tomans, or £200,000; the Taj Mehel, 112 carats; and the English diamond, 73 carats, given by George IV. to Fatt Ali Shah. The Persian Government has no debt, the balance due by the Shah to Russia on account of the expenses of the war concluded in 1828, amounting to about £200,000, having been cancelled by the Emperor twelve years ago. The revenue from Persia demanded from the several provinces this year amounts to 4,912,500 tomans (8s.), or £1,965,000; but under the complex system of taxation much more will be wrung from the people, and intercepted by local functionaries on its way to the treasury. Small as is the revenue of Persia, it is in excess of the expenditure; this consists of £700,000 for the army, £300,000 for civil services, £100,000 for priesthood and syeds, and £200,000 for extraordinary disbursements; the residue, with presents from officials on appointment, being applicable to the Shah's private expenditure, the use of the army, and other purposes. The army consists nominally of about 105,500 men, but not more than a third of this number are on active service; the remainder form a kind of reserve, mostly disarmed and engaged in agricultural pursuits, but liable to be called upon at any moment; supposed to receive half-pay, but seldom really getting it. Every appointment in the army is disposed of to the highest bidder. The troops are armed with old-fashioned French muskets, purchased in Paris for about twenty-five francs each, old muskets purchased in England twenty years ago, and a few thousand made in Teheran. Probably there are not more than a hundred cannon in Persia mounted and fit for service; nearly all of them are smooth-bored and of small calibre, varying from six pounds to twelve pounds. The officers generally are said to be ignorant and inefficient, but the soldiers are described as obedient, sober, intelligent, and capable of enduring great fatigue. Last summer, Mr. Thompson saw several regiments perform stages of twenty-four miles for days together, and on one occasion they marched thirty-six miles over a sandy desert in the plain of Tankbrass, without a drop of water on the road, and under a burning sun, when the thermometer stood 102° in a double-fly Indian tent. The external trade of Per-

sia may be taken at about £4,000,000—viz., £2,500,000 imports and £1,500,000 exports. The latter have diminished by nearly £1,000,000 in the last three years, owing to the failure of the silk produce of Ghilan. Silk is the most valuable article which Persia has to contribute to the European market. A large quantity of eggs has been brought this year from Japan, and these, with the produce of eggs brought from the east of Persia, will, it is hoped, for the present at least, extricate the country from the serious difficulties caused by the heavy loss in the export of trade.

A writer in *Frazer's Magazine* (August, 1868), thus refers to a practice which is peculiar to Persia:

Among the Persians, the principle of "temporary unions" has been organized into religion, and the ceremonial is performed by the Mohammedan priests. Merchants, who come from a distant city—suppose to Ispahan—often reside there for two or three months, while waiting for goods. Finding it rather tedious, they beguile the time by marrying a wife for a number of months specified in the marriage contract. The process is straightforward and business-like. The merchant calls in the priest, and tells what he wants. The priest examines his book, and finds therein registered the names of women who are willing, for a consideration, to enter into temporary marriage; and ascertains how many of them are disengaged. What further is done we do not know, but, we believe, he assembles them veiled, and lets the merchant pick out one; however, it ends with his drawing out a regular marriage certificate, and pocketing his fee. An estimable Scotch military officer, who had for some years the charge of the Persian arsenal at Tabreez, under the treaty of the East India Company with the King of Persia, assured the writer of these lines that he had seen and read such marriage contracts, and could testify as eye-witness that a single day was not too short a duration of marriage to receive the priest's blessing and license! Of course those who first authorized this wonderful system, had no foresight of the monstrosity into which it would run. They must have believed that they would lessen existing evil, and act against the loathsome system of prostitution. But when once the fatal idea is admitted that a union which is intended to last some time shorter than life is marriage at all, and deserves honorable recognition, instead of curing the evil which exists, it does but degrade and pollute the ministers of the new system.

A company of English capitalists received from the Shah a concession giving them, for twenty years, the exclusive right to construct railways in the country, and an agent of the concessionaires proceeded to Teheran to break ground at once with a short six-mile line from the capital to the suburban village of Rey (Shah Abd-ul Azmi), a famous weekly resort of pious Teheranees. The ground was surveyed, and the report of the engineer employed estimates that the line may be constructed and stocked for a sum considerably under £100,000, on which the passenger traffic of some forty thousand devotees a week would, he reckons, yield a remunerative dividend—exclusive of an eight per cent. guarantee.

Early in 1868, the Persian Government published a "Green Book," containing a collection of diplomatic documents relating to the difficulties which have for some time existed between Persia and Turkey. The injuries which Persia alleges to have received are four: in the first place, the government of Teheran

complains of a violation of the frontiers, of which the Ottoman General, Chibli Pascha, has rendered himself guilty, at the head of an entire brigade; next, outrages committed by the Turkish Governor of Bagdad, against Persian farmers of Fao; thirdly, an attack against the Persian village of Sendjahi, by Turkish subjects, who killed thirty inhabitants. The Persians, lastly, complained of a chief of Turkish banditti, Hamaza Aga, who is continually raiding on their territory, and had lately burned the village of Seedach, and had not been pursued by the Turkish authorities.—The "Green Book" then contains a note from Fuad Pascha to the Persian Ambassador at the Court of Constantinople, in which he formally promises that a severe investigation shall take place on the subject of the events at Bagdad. It seems that a committee was, at one time, appointed and that it occupied itself with the question, but, in a note of the 24th November, 1867, the Persian Ambassador complains, that this investigation has not produced a satisfactory result, as the Governor of Bagdad, Namik Pascha, had not yet been dismissed.

PERSOZ, JEAN FRANÇOIS, a distinguished chemist, born in Switzerland, of French parents, June 9, 1805; died August, 1868. He succeeded Thenard as professor in the College of France in 1832; soon after he was professor of chemistry at Strasburg, and in 1835 he took charge of the school of medicine in the same city. In 1852 a professorship was created in the "Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers" at Paris, of the dyeing and printing of cloths, which he retained till his death. Two years previous he had supplied the place of M. Dumas in a course of chemistry at Sorbonne. M. Persoz published a great number of scientific works, both by himself and associated with other *savants*. Of the first are "Introduction à l'Étude de la Chimie moléculaire" (1839), and "Traité théorique et pratique de l'impression des tissus" (1846).

PERU, a republic in South America. President, elected in 1868, Colonel José Balta. Minister of the United States, General Alvin P. Hovey (appointed in May, 1866). Area, 510,107 square miles; population, estimated at 2,500,000. All the inhabitants belong to the Roman Catholic Church, which has an archbishop at Lima, and bishops at Arequipa, Chachapoyas or Maynas, Cuzco, Guamangay Ayacucho, Huanuco, Puno, and Trujillo. There is only one Protestant missionary at Callao. The revenue, in 1862, was \$21,245,832 (three-fourths of which was from the sale of guano); the expenses were \$21,446,466. In 1868 the ministers of Government, Justice, and Foreign Affairs presented to Congress the following budget for the next year: Government, \$9,083,772.10; Justice, \$4,414,121.70; Foreign Affairs, \$1,468,932.92. As the guano of the Chinchas will soon give out, the Government tried to make the necessary arrangements with respect to the northern deposits,

and the loading of the same was disposed of by auction to Messrs. Fernandez and Eche-
 nique. The national debt, on December 31,
 1866, amounted to \$50,140,621. The army,
 in 1866, consisted of 16,008 men; the navy
 consisted of 11 vessels, with 108 guns. In
 1868 the Government purchased, in the United
 States, two monitors, the *Oneota* and *Catawba*,
 which had been built, the one in 1865, and the
 other in 1866. Their names were changed into
Atahualpa and *Manco Capac*, two celebrated
Inca chiefs, noted in the history of Peru for
 their persistent battling with the Spaniards. The
 value of imports, in 1866, amounted to about
 \$14,000,000; the exports to \$35,766,797. The
 number of vessels entering the port of Callao,
 in 1866, was 1,481, of an aggregate tonnage of
 998,045; and the number of clearances 1,517,
 of an aggregate tonnage of 977,688. The sta-
 tistical report of the shipping of Callao during
 the year 1868 was as follows:

	Vessels.	Tons.
<i>Entries.</i>		
In ballast from different points..	335	294,962
With guano from Chinchas.....	358	281,497
With products from the coast...	365	31,881
With assorted cargoes.....	280	152,372
Total.....	1,338	760,712
<i>Sailings.</i>		
In ballast for Chinchas.....	438	354,954
In ballast for different points...	116	39,466
With guano for abroad.....	360	288,198
With assorted cargo for the coast	395	49,405
Total.....	1,309	727,022

There entered during the year 312 steam-
 ers, of 282,349 tons, and sailed, during the
 same period, 302 steamers, of 283,929 tons.
 In small-craft, there sailed 547 vessels, of
 3,282 tons; sailing-vessels entered, 553, of
 3,258 tons. The total tonnage of sailing-ves-
 sels and steamers was: entries, 1,046,343;
 sailings, 1,014,209; total tons, 2,060,552. The
 nationalities of sailing-vessels were as follows:

	Entered.	Sailed.
Peru.....	291	283
North American.....	163	156
British.....	372	362
French.....	144	150
Italian.....	146	137
German.....	42	43
Various.....	180	178
Total.....	1,238	1,309

Of the national flag of Peru there appear
 in the reports only one ship and four barks, the
 rest being schooners and sloops. The total
 tonnage of the different vessels was:

	Entered.	Sailed.
Danish.....	20,197	21,011
North American.....	164,049	151,837
British.....	322,155	306,128
French.....	74,433	79,280
Italian.....	64,250	56,036
German.....	29,780	30,973
Various nations.....	85,839	81,757
Total.....	767,712	727,022

Among ships from Asia, ten brought 4,266
 Asiatic colonists, of 4,732 who embarked at the
 ports from which they sailed, 466 having died
 on the voyage, being about a tenth of the
 whole. On the 22d of July, 315 German col-
 onists arrived from Europe on the Italian
 bark *Valparaiso*, and were disembarked in
 Huacho.

In 1868 the construction of a railroad was
 begun between Islay and Arequipa. The con-
 tract was awarded to Henry Meiggs for the
 sum of 12,000,000 soles, and the road is to be
 finished in three years. One clause in the con-
 tract binds Meiggs to pay 20,000 soles per
 month for every month that he is behindhand
 with the road, the Government paying him
 the same amount for every month that he gains
 in the completion of the road.

A concession was also granted to a company
 in Cerro de Pasco to construct a line of rail-
 road to connect all the different mines with
 the stamping and crushing mills in the town
 of Cerro. The road will reduce the former
 price of conveyance (by mules) to one-half,
 besides securing to the miners a continuation
 of their labors, which have always been inter-
 rupted by the military, either by pressing the
 laborers above-ground, or seizing the mules for
 the use of the revolutionists. The road at the
 close of the year had been begun, and was
 favorably progressing.

The revolution, which, in December, 1867,
 broke out against President Prado, was fully
 successful on the opening of the new year.
 There were a few more fights in the first days
 of January, 1868, in all of which the partisans
 of Prado were defeated. The latter resigned,
 and, on January 10th, embarked at Callao for
 Chili. General Canseco acted provisionally as
 President. The election for President and mem-
 bers of Congress took place in April. The
 election for President is indirect, the people
 choosing electors, who cast their vote in May.
 Colonel Balta was chosen President by an al-
 most unanimous vote. Congress assembled on
 the 28th of July, when Colonel Balta was pro-
 claimed President, and entered upon the duties
 of his office. The remainder of the year was
 unusually quiet, and not disturbed by any revo-
 lutionary outbreak.

On the 4th of September, the small steamer
Napo was dispatched by the Government to
 seek a passage to Chanchamayo, by ascending
 the River Ucayali through regions previous-
 ly unknown. She started from the port of
 Iquitos, and navigating the Ucayali from its
 confluence with the Marañon up to its forma-
 tion by the Tambo and the Urubamba (772
 miles), first ascended the Tambo, and later on
 the Urubamba, but had to return (January,
 1869), the machinery of the *Napo* not possess-
 ing sufficient power to contend with the
 current. She was only able to ascend five
 miles up the Tambo, sixty miles from the fort
 of Chanchamayo, and thirty-five miles from
 the Urubamba. "This expedition," says the *El*

Nacional, of Lima, "confirms the tidings which other explorers had given us of the great Ucayali, with respect to the facility with which it can be navigated in any season by larger vessels, as well as (what is now undoubtable) that the Ucayali is the true source of the Amazon and not the Marañon, as was formerly supposed."

On the 17th of December the Government issued a decree, declaring the navigation of Peruvian rivers free to flags of all nations. It was expected that this measure would be the means of attracting on a large scale foreign immigration, thus opening up the rich but unknown valleys of the Amazon. The Peruvian Government has several small steamers on the Peruvian head-waters of the Amazon, and Admiral Tucker, in command of the little flotilla, in 1868, had surveyed the different branches of the great artery. There exists in that region almost every description of mineral and agricultural wealth, but the difficulty of reaching the locality has always been an insuperable obstacle to immigration. When the railway from Lima to Jaaja, which was surveyed in 1868, shall be completed, the intervening distance between the head-waters of steam navigation and the terminus of the railroad will only be about twenty leagues, and the highway thus constructed will form the connecting link in a road which must be as important to Peru as the Pacific Railroad is to the United States.

The yellow fever, in 1868, raged for about three months with greater than usual severity. Among its victims were Don Toribio Pacheco, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, under the dictatorship of Prado, and Edmond de Lesseps, French chargé d'affaires.

In August, Peru was visited by a terrible earthquake, which destroyed several towns, and caused the loss of several thousand lives. (See EARTHQUAKES.)

PICKERING, OCTAVIUS, LL. D., a distinguished legal writer and law reporter, and an eminent naturalist, born in Wyoming, Pa., September 2, 1791; died in Boston October 29, 1868. He graduated from Harvard College in the class of 1810, and studied law in Boston, in the office of his eldest brother, Mr. John Pickering, was admitted to the bar in Suffolk County, March 6, 1816, and opened an office in Boston. He assisted in reporting the debates and proceedings of the Massachusetts Convention for revising the constitution, held in 1820. In 1822 Mr. Pickering became the State Reporter, and continued so during the last eight years of the chief justiceship of Isaac Parker, and the first ten of that of Judge Shaw, who succeeded to the office on the death of Judge Parker, in July, 1830. His reports of the decisions of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts during these eighteen years (1822-1840) fill 24 octavo volumes. They are known as "Pickering's Reports," and are regarded as a necessary part of every good law

library. He went abroad soon after giving up the office of reporter, and lived in England and on the Continent of Europe for seven years, returning home in 1849. He was much interested in science and natural history, and was for many years a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He was one of those who, in December, 1814, organized "The New-England Society for the Promotion of Natural History," belonged to the committee who framed its constitution, and was chosen its treasurer. This society, a month later, changed its name to that of "The Linnæan Society of New England," and it was on its ruins that the present thriving "Boston Society of Natural History" was founded in 1820. Of this last, as well as its predecessor, Mr. Pickering was an active member.

PORTUGAL, a kingdom in Europe. King, Luis I., born October 31, 1838; succeeded his brother, King Pedro V., November 11, 1861. Heir-apparent, Carlos, born September 28, 1863. A new ministry was formed on the 4th of January, composed as follows: Count d'Avila, President, and Minister of the Interior and Foreign Affairs; Viscount Seabrea, Minister of Justice; Senhor José Dias Ferreira, Minister of Finance; General José Maria de Magalhães, Minister of War; General José Rodriguez Caelho do Amaral, Minister of Marine; Councillor Sebastiano do Conto Castro Mascarenhas, Minister of Public Works. This ministry remained in office only until July 21st, when it resigned and was succeeded by another one, composed as follows: Presidency of the Council and War, Marquis de Sa da Bandeira; Interior, A. Alves Martins, Bishop of Vizeu; Justice and Worship, Anthony Pequete Seixas de Andrade; Finances, Charles Bento da Silva; Marine and Colonies, Joseph Maria Latino Coelho; Public Works, Commerce, and Industry, Sebastian Lopes Calheiros. Area, 36,510 square miles; population in 1863, 3,986,558; with the Azores and Madeira (in 1863), 4,350,216. The population of the Portuguese colonies in Africa and Asia is given (in the *Gotha Almanac* for 1869) as 10,881,022, of whom 9,000,000 are set down for Angola, Ambriz, Benguela, Mosammedes.* The revenue in the budget for 1868-'69 was estimated at 16,910,137 milreis, and the expenditures at 22,831,941. Public debt, in June, 1867, 220,968,202 milreis; in 1866, 196,562,673 milreis. The strength of the army in the kingdom was in May, 1868, 1,567 officers, and 23,092 soldiers; in the colonies, 1st line, 9,453; 2d line, 21,411. The fleet, in 1867, consisted of 26 armed, and 19 non-armed vessels; total 45 vessels, with 355 guns. The imports of Portugal, in 1866, amounted to 26,530,000 milreis; the exports to 19,190,000

* For a list of Portuguese colonies in Asia and Africa, see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1866. The total population of the colonies was then estimated at 3,811,818. The large difference proceeds solely from the discrepant statements concerning Angola, for which then 2,000,000 and now 9,000,000 are claimed.

milreis. The movement of shipping, in 1866, was as follows:

FLAG.	Entered.	Cleared.
Portuguese.....	5,490	5,250
Foreign.....	5,258	5,333
Total.....	10,748	10,583

From the official report and accounts for 1866 of the *Crédit Foncier* of Lisbon, it appears that this association, which commenced in 1865, loaned during the last six months of 1865 to 41 borrowers a sum of 1,300,000 fr., and in 1866 the operations amounted to 2,600,000 fr., and the number of clients to 400. In January, 1867, the sums loaned were equal to 1,650,000 fr., thus showing the rapid progress of the institution.

The new ministry, which was appointed in January, 1868 (see above), dissolved the Cortes, and a new election was ordered, which took place in April, and resulted in a ministerial majority. On the 15th of April the new Cortes were opened by the King, who announced that the Minister of Finance would shortly present bills to the Cortes for improving public credit and reorganizing the financial system of the kingdom, that public instruction was receiving attention, and that measures had been taken to tranquilize the country.

On the 25th of June a complete amnesty was granted for all political crimes.

In July a ministerial crisis was caused by the unanimous refusal of the Council of State to agree to the ministerial proposal to close the Chambers until November. The result was the formation of a new ministry (see above).

POST-OFFICE OF THE UNITED STATES. The foundations of the Post-office Department were laid by Congress at Philadelphia, May 10, 1775. A committee of six was appointed, Benjamin Franklin chairman, to "consider the best means of establishing posts for conveying letters and intelligence throughout the country." A plan was sketched out by Franklin, and adopted by Congress, that has always been substantially followed. The committee recommended "that a Postmaster-General be appointed for the United Colonies, who shall hold his office at Philadelphia, and shall be allowed a salary of \$1,000 per annum for himself, and \$340 per annum for a Secretary and Comptroller." Dr. Franklin was the first Postmaster-General, and the following list gives the names of all the Postmasters-General, with the dates of their appointment, from the foundation of the Government.

Benjamin Franklin, 1775; Richard Bache, 1776; Ebenezer Hazard, 1782; Samuel Osgood, 1789; Timothy Pickering, 1791; Joseph Habersham, 1795; Gideon Granger, 1802; R. J. Meigs, 1814; John McLean, 1823; W. T. Barry, 1829; Amos Kendall, 1835; J. M. Niles, 1840; Francis Granger, March, 1841; C. A. Wickliffe, September, 1841; Cave Johnson, 1845; Jacob Collamer, 1849; N. K. Hall,

1850; S. D. Hubbard, 1852; James Campbell, 1853; A. V. Brown, 1857; Joseph Holt, 1859; Horatio King, 1860; Montgomery Blair, 1861; William Dennison, 1864; and A. W. Randall, 1866.

In the early stages of our national history, the growth of the department was slow. In 1790 there were but seventy-five offices in the United States, and but 1,875 miles of post-routes. The general post-office in that year was located at New York; in 1796 it was transferred back to Philadelphia, and in 1800 was fixed at Washington, then just established as the capital. The growth of this service may be traced by the following figures, quinquennially arranged, showing the number of offices, the miles of post-routes, the expenses of transportation, the total expenses, and the total receipts.

YEARS.	Number of offices.	Miles of routes.	Expenses of transp'n.	Total expenses.	Total receipts.
1790....	75	1,875	22,081	32,140	37,935
1795....	453	13,207	75,359	117,873	160,620
1800....	903	20,813	128,644	213,994	280,804
1805....	1,558	31,076	239,635	377,367	421,373
1810....	2,300	36,406	327,966	495,969	551,684
1815....	3,000	43,966	487,799	748,121	1,043,065
1820....	4,500	72,492	782,425	1,160,926	1,111,937
1825....	5,679	94,032	785,646	1,206,584	1,252,041
1830....	8,450	115,176	1,274,009	1,932,708	1,850,583
1835....	10,770	112,774	1,719,007	2,757,390	2,993,857
1840....	13,468	155,739	3,213,043	4,718,236	4,543,522
1845....	14,183	143,940	2,898,680	4,320,732	4,439,843
1850....	18,417	178,672	3,095,974	5,212,953	5,499,985
1855....	24,110	227,908	6,076,335	9,968,342	6,642,136
1860....	28,498	240,594	9,637,139	19,170,610	8,518,067
1865....	28,882	142,340	7,432,289	13,694,728	14,556,159
1866....	29,389	180,921	8,201,954	15,352,079	14,386,986
1867....	25,163	203,245	11,240,730	19,235,483	15,237,027
1868....	26,481	216,928	12,647,949	22,730,592	16,292,600

The whole amount of postal receipts since 1790 has been \$284,658,142; the total amount of expenditures, \$319,236,096, showing that the income of the department, during the past seventy-eight years, has not equalled its expenditures by more than thirty-five millions of dollars, most of which deficiency has accrued in the last fifteen years. England with a penny postage, and paying over four millions of dollars subsidies to mail steamers, nets over seven million dollars profit per annum on her postal income; the United States, with a three-cent postage, and paying but a million of dollars to steam lines, suffers a deficiency of six and a half millions. This deficiency mainly occurs in the Southern and Western States and Territories. The late war closed over four thousand two hundred offices in the Southern States, but few of which it has been found necessary to reopen. But the year 1868, when there was a deficiency of six and a half millions of dollars, shows a postal profit of three and a half millions of dollars in thirteen States, and a loss of four and a quarter millions in thirty-four States and Territories. The remainder of the deficiency was from foreign mails, route agents, etc., etc., not chargeable to specific States. The following table exhibits the receipts and expenditures of each State and Territory for that year, and the excess of either:

STATES.	Receipts.	Expenditures.	Excess Expenditures.	Excess Receipts.
Maine.....	\$298,107	\$284,268	\$13,838
New Hampshire.....	187,075	166,583	20,491
Vermont.....	179,433	202,894	\$22,461
Massachusetts.....	1,292,749	733,801	558,947
Rhode Island.....	145,315	71,050	74,264
Connecticut.....	402,836	298,375	104,460
New York.....	3,688,002	1,912,927	1,775,075
New Jersey.....	324,844	287,630	37,214
Pennsylvania.....	1,434,781	1,108,781	527,999
Delaware.....	47,856	42,305	5,550
Maryland.....	331,670	364,131	32,460
Virginia.....	261,362	392,330	130,967
West Virginia.....	85,507	118,393	32,876
North Carolina.....	105,806	197,261	91,455
South Carolina.....	100,768	157,590	56,821
Georgia.....	208,654	256,748	48,094
Florida.....	36,724	105,175	71,450
Ohio.....	1,119,455	1,174,870	55,514
Michigan.....	508,186	526,041	17,854
Indiana.....	419,012	549,245	100,233
Illinois.....	1,306,733	1,008,715	298,918
Wisconsin.....	420,426	434,865	14,439
Iowa.....	396,119	375,999	20,119
Missouri.....	495,085	631,271	136,186
Kentucky.....	274,603	311,737	37,133
Tennessee.....	200,500	246,823	46,322
Alabama.....	136,325	272,759	136,424
Mississippi.....	101,155	214,191	113,035
Arkansas.....	47,347	247,594	200,246
Louisiana.....	220,484	335,543	106,058
Texas.....	145,916	396,062	250,145
California.....	398,392	655,557	257,165
Oregon.....	30,109	384,119	354,010
Minnesota.....	147,620	216,413	68,793
Kansas.....	99,692	630,594	530,902
Nebraska.....	54,494	138,586	84,091
Nevada.....	30,145	259,033	228,887
Colorado.....	34,167	52,559	18,392
Utah.....	16,098	485,573	469,505
New Mexico.....	8,264	250,122	242,858
Washington.....	6,364	101,472	95,108
Dakota.....	15,412	77,034	61,622
Arizona.....	1,908	150,411	148,443
Idaho.....	9,432	33,891	24,409
Montana.....	16,611	44,127	27,515
District of Columbia.....	122,694	97,261	25,433
Alaska.....	58	25	33
Total.....			4,285,796	3,456,448

Grants in aid of the postal revenue, during the past year, were as follows: for transportation between Atchison and Folsom, \$900,000; for steamship service to China, \$125,000; to Brazil, \$150,000; for free mail matter, \$3,800,000; for post-route maps, \$10,000; for new mail routes, \$486,525; and for the mail to California, \$225,000; in all, \$5,696,525.

Organization of the Department.—The Department is under the direction of a Postmaster-General, aided by three Assistant Postmasters-General. It is carried on by 26,481 postmasters, each having the charge of a local office; 6,891 contractors for carrying the mails on 8,226 routes; 1,468 money-order offices; 722 route agents and railway clerks; and 1,198 letter-carriers.

The First Assistant Postmaster-General presides over the appointment office. To his charge belongs all business relating to the establishment or discontinuance of post-offices, changes of name or location, appointment or removal of postmasters, route and local agents, and instructions to postmasters. All postmasters, whose salary is under one thousand dollars, are appointed in this bureau. The Oceanic mail steamship lines, and all foreign postal

arrangements, come under his supervision. About six thousand postmasters are annually appointed by this bureau, 1,150 new offices established, and 750 offices discontinued.

The Second Assistant Postmaster-General has the charge of the transportation of the mails, placing the same under contract, determining the frequency of trips, the mode of conveyance, and times of departure and arrival on all routes; the course of the mail, points of mail distribution, and all regulations for the government of the domestic mail service of the United States. He prepares the quadrennial advertisement of mail lettings, receives the bids, accepts the sureties, and has the supervision of the adjustment and execution of contracts. To his division is assigned the duty of receiving and examining the registers of the arrivals and departures of the mails, the service of route agents, and reports of mail failures. All business respecting lost money, mail depredations, and other violations of law, the preparation of post-route maps, diagrams, and other topographical work, belong to this bureau.

The Third Assistant Postmaster-General has charge of the finance business of the department. He has the supervision of the quarterly returns of postmasters, the weekly and monthly returns of depositories; and receives all applications for postage-stamps, stamped envelopes, and dead letters.

Post-Roads.—Post-roads established by law are, 1st, those roads of the country declared such by Congress; 2d, all waters on which steamboats regularly pass; 3d, the navigable canals on which mails are carried; 4th, all rail and plank roads; 5th, those roads on which the Postmaster-General causes the mails to be carried from the nearest offices on post-roads to court-houses not otherwise provided with the mail; 6th, all roads to special offices; and 7th, roads established as post-routes under the 10th section of the act of March 3, 1851, in cities and towns, where the postmasters are appointed by the President. Post-roads must be established by Congress, and the Postmaster-General can neither establish nor lengthen them. He can only place mail service on such roads as have been established by law, and for the expense of which an appropriation has been made. During the past three years, the aggregate length of mail routes has increased over seventy-four thousand miles, and the annual transportation over twenty-six millions of miles. The carriage of mail matter over a mail route by any other than the contractor is illegal, unless the same has been prepaid by a stamped envelope; and a fine of from \$50 to \$150 for each offence is imposed upon the person establishing an express for the transmission of mail matter out of the mails, and on the owner of every stage, coach, car, steamboat, or other vehicle, making regular trips, and carrying any person acting as such express.

The Finances.—The Post-office Department has nothing to do with the funds received for

postage, nor does it pay postmasters' or contractors: this is the work of the Treasury. No moneys are to be paid into the department, nor are any to be paid out directly by it. When postmasters remit the proceeds of postage to the department without due authority from the Postmaster-General, it is returned at the risk of the person sending it. All the financial operations connected with the mails are transacted by the Treasury Department. For the purpose of paying over the funds due, offices are classed as collection, draft, or deposit offices. Collection offices, which class includes nearly all the offices of the country, except those that are the termini of routes, pay over the net proceeds of their office quarterly to the contractor who brings their mail. Draft offices are ordered to retain their funds in hand to meet drafts; and deposit offices are required to deposit, quarterly or oftener, their funds with some depository. No allowance is made for deficiency in weight of coin or for counterfeit currency.

The forging, counterfeiting, or using counterfeit stamps is a felony, subjecting the offender to a penalty of confinement at hard labor for not less than two nor more than ten years.

Postmasters.—Postmasters of offices, where the salaries exceed \$1,000, are appointed and removed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate. The commission, which runs for four years, issues from the State Department, and is signed by the President, and countersigned by the Secretary of State; he is legally known as "Deputy Postmaster." His bond is renewed every four years. At all offices, where the salary does not exceed \$1,000, the Postmaster-General has the sole power of appointment and removal. Minors, married women, and all other persons, who cannot legally execute an official bond and take the required oath, are incapable of holding the office of postmaster. No one can be postmaster, who does not reside in the city or town wherein the office is situated, or within the delivery of the office; and all the assistants or clerks must be at least sixteen years old. Nor is a postmaster permitted to transfer the charge of his office, and the performance of its duties, to another. He must permit no person, except his sworn assistants, clerks, and letter-carriers, to have access to letters, papers, or whatever constitutes a part of the mail, or to the mail locks or keys; nor should the mails be opened or made up within the reach of persons not authorized to handle them. In case of death, the responsibilities of the sureties continue till a successor is qualified; and the sureties can perform the duties of the office till that event. Postmasters, their clerks, postriders, and drivers of mail stages, are exempt from militia duties and from serving on juries.

The salaries of postmasters are fixed once in two years, based on the amount of stamps cancelled in the two previous quarters. They

are allowed sixty per cent. on the first \$100 of letter-postage, fifty per cent. on the next \$300, forty per cent. on the next \$2,000, and fifteen per cent. on all over \$2,000. They are also allowed in the salary all emoluments, such as box-rents, and fifty per cent. on newspaper-postage; but the salary can never exceed \$4,000. They are allowed no perquisites, the salary equalling the compensation formerly received from commissions and box-rents. The postmaster of New York has a salary of \$6,000: all other offices are divided into five classes. Postmasters of the first class receive from \$3,000 to \$4,000 annual salary; postmasters of the second class receive from \$2,000 to \$3,000; those of the third class, from \$1,000 up to \$2,000; those of the fourth class, from \$100 up to \$1,000; and those of the fifth class receive less than \$100. Postmasters of the first and second class are allowed rent, fuel, light, and clerk hire, if their commissions on cancelled stamps will allow it. In our larger cities Government usually erects an edifice, of which the lower stories are used for post-offices, and the higher for courts or internal revenue offices.

Franking and Postage.—The law requires the prepayment by stamps of postage on all letters, excepting those written to and by the President, Vice-President, Members of Congress, or (on official business) to and by the chiefs of the executive departments, the heads of bureaus, and chief clerks, and others invested with the franking privilege. This privilege, formerly belonging to postmasters, has been withdrawn, except on matter sent on official business. The right to send or receive mail matter free is either a personal privilege or a trust for the maintenance of official correspondence. The franking privilege cannot be delegated to another, but travels with the person possessing it, and can be exercised in but one place at the same time. Counterfeiting a frank subjects the offender to a fine of \$500. One-half the penalties, for violation of the franking privilege, goes to the prosecutor, one-half to the United States. Government makes an annual allowance to the department of \$700,000, in consideration of the free matter it carries; but the actual cost, probably, exceeds \$3,000,000. All mailable matter is divided into three classes; 1, letters, or correspondence wholly or partly in writing; 2, regular or printed matter, issued at stated periods; 3, miscellaneous matter, such as pamphlets, books, proof-sheets, and all other matter which is, or hereafter may be, by law declared mailable. No packet can be received in the mail weighing over four pounds. Packages containing liquids, poisons, explosive chemicals, or other matter, calculated to endanger the safety of the mails, must be excluded. No envelope or packet is allowed to contain letters addressed to different persons, and such envelope or packet must be sent at once to the dead-letter office. Letters or packages ad-

dressed to fictitious persons or firms must be forwarded each month to the dead-letter office.

Postage must be prepaid on all mail matter, except, 1, matter lawfully franked; 2, foreign letters; 3, printed matter, sent to regular subscribers; and 4, letters sent by soldiers, sailors, and marines. The single rate of postage is three cents per half ounce, with an additional rate of three cents for each additional half ounce or fraction of a half ounce. Prepaid and free letters are forwarded, at the request of the party addressed, from one post-office to another without additional charge. Letters indorsed with a request for return to the writers are sent back, when uncalled for, without charge. All drop letters must be prepaid at two cents per half ounce, where the carrier delivery is established; at other offices, one cent.

The postage on newspapers published every day of the week, prepaid quarterly in advance, is thirty-five cents per quarter; when published six times a week, thirty cents; tri-weekly, fifteen cents; weekly, five cents. Weekly papers to subscribers living within the county of publication are free, even when the subscriber takes the mail matter from an office in an adjoining county. The exchange of newspapers and periodicals is free. Religious, educational, and agricultural papers of small size, issued less frequently than once a week, may be sent in packages to one address for one cent for each four ounces. And newsdealers may send to actual subscribers papers and periodicals prepaid at quarterly rates, and may receive them from publishers at subscriber's rates. Books cost four cents per four ounces. Unsealed circulars, not exceeding three to one address, are two cents; miscellaneous matter, two cents per four ounces. All transient matter must be prepaid by stamps; if unpaid, double postage must be collected on delivery. To send writing on printed matter subjects the entire package to letter postage.

The rates of postage have constantly varied in this country, always tending downward. Franklin was the first Postmaster-General who allowed newspapers of his own city, other than his own, to travel post; and he introduced the system of free exchange between newspapers. He materially lowered the existing rates of postage, fixing the Oceanic rate at four pence, whatever the distance; on land, 60 miles, four pence; 100 miles, six pence; 200 miles, eight pence; and every additional hundred miles, two pence. In 1813, Congress fixed the rates at 6½, 10, 12½, 18½ and 25 cents per single letter, according to distance. In 1845, the half-ounce scale was adopted for single letters, and the rates were established at five and ten cents, against the earnest opposition of Hon. C. A. Wickliffe, then Postmaster-General. Six years later, a farther reduction was made, and one cent was charged for drop letters, prepaid; three cents for sin-

gle letters, not travelling over 3,000 miles; when not prepaid, five cents; when sent over 3,000 miles, double these rates. In 1855, a law was passed making drop letters one cent; single letters under 3,000 miles, three cents; over that distance, ten cents, and prepayment compulsory. In July, 1856, all postage was made payable in stamps. The history of this and of all countries proves that there is no instance on record where a reduction of rates has been followed by a permanent reduction of revenue; and that all improvement and facilities bring a corresponding increase of postage. In England, the penny postage enlarged the annual number of letters from eighty-seven and a half millions to seven hundred and seventy-five millions; and the net income of the department, after the payment of all expenses and a number of heavy subsidies to steam lines, has risen from \$1,735,000 in 1857 to \$7,106,000 in 1867; a gain of over four hundred per cent. within ten years.

Transportation of the Mails.—All transportation is by contract, and no Member of Congress, postmaster, clerk in a post-office, or in the Post-office Department, can be a contractor or concerned in a contract for carrying the mail. The lettings must be advertised in not more than five newspapers in the State where the service is to be performed, for at least twelve weeks before the contract is made. And, by the terms of the contract, the Postmaster-General may discontinue or curtail the service in whole or in part, allowing to the contractor one month's extra pay on the amount of service discontinued, and a *pro rata* compensation for the amount of service retained.

All the States and Territories are divided into four mail contract sections. A letting of one of these occurs each spring, the service to commence the first of July following. The sections and their current contract terms are as follows:

1. Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York; these contracts expire June 30, 1869.

2. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, and Ohio; current term to end June 30, 1872.

3. West Virginia, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Indian Territory; June 30, 1871.

4. Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, Montana, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, California, and Nevada; June 30, 1870.

There are 8,226 mail routes in these States, of an aggregate length of 216,928 miles, let to 6,891 contractors. Of these, railroads carry the mails 36,018 miles at a cost of about twelve cents per mile; steamboats, 19,647 miles at a little over seventeen cents per mile; and stage-

coach and other vehicles, 161,263 miles for about twelve cents per mile, so that steamboats carry the mails over nine per cent. of the routes, railroads over seventeen per cent., and horse vehicles seventy-four per cent. As the average amount of mail carried by car is much heavier than the average amount carried by horse vehicles, while the price is about the same, it follows that every new railroad not only benefits the letter-sending public by speed, but by economy. By the law approved January 25, 1839, the Postmaster-General is not permitted to "allow more than three hundred dollars per mile per annum to any railroad company" for carrying the mails; but this limitation is modified by the act approved March 3, 1845, where the Postmaster-General is authorized, when it is necessary to convey more than two daily mails over a railroad route, to pay such additional compensation as he may think just and reasonable. Under this law the New Jersey Railroad, the Philadelphia and Trenton Road, and other roads conveying the great mails between New York and Washington, with a daily average of from ten to eleven tons each, are allowed \$375 per mile per annum. On other railroads the pay is smaller, being proportionate to the work done. About thirty roads receive from twenty to forty-five dollars per mile per annum. During the past year the Department paid \$11,454,130 for the transportation of the mails. After the contract is signed, no additional allowance can be made by the Postmaster-General beyond the amount stipulated in the contract, unless additional service is required; and then the additional compensation shall not be allowed to exceed the proportion of the additional service.

Postmasters at the termini of each route are required to keep registers of all mails received and sent from their offices, giving the exact time of each arrival and departure, and the cause of each delinquency. When the contractor fails to carry his mail, and has no valid excuse, he is subject to a forfeiture of not less than the pay of each trip not run, and not more than threefold that amount; and when the mail is carried, but fails to arrive in time to make connection, the contractor is subject to a forfeiture of one-fourth of his pay. And when he has left his mail or any part thereof for the accommodation of his passengers, or when he fails to deliver the mail immediately upon arrival, he forfeits not exceeding three months' pay. The amount of fines and deductions from these sources, in the fiscal year of 1867, was \$145,908. The mail must not be carried by any person under the age of sixteen; and if the carrier, while in charge of the mail, become intoxicated, the postmaster must certainly dismiss him.

In the case of railroads, where the depot is within eighty rods of the post-office, the railroad company must deliver it at the office; but when the distance is over eighty rods, the mail is delivered at the depot and taken to the of-

fice by the Mail Messenger service at the expense of the Department.

The Letter-carrier System, etc.—The free delivery of letters by carriers commenced in July, 1863, and has met with great acceptance. Eleven hundred and ninety-eight carriers distribute the mails in forty-eight principal cities. Boxes have to some extent been driven out, the carrier system being more speedy and more safe. These carriers deliver over ninety-five millions of letters and papers each year, and collect about sixty-three millions. The expense of the system is about a million of dollars per annum, the expense for the last fiscal year being \$996,370.78.

Money and other valuables sent by mail are at the risk of the owner; but, in case of loss, the Department will endeavor to discover the cause, and, in case of theft, to punish the offender. All necessary expenses, incurred in prosecuting a case of mail depredation, are reimbursed by the Department, and rewards are offered, not exceeding fifty dollars, for the apprehension of the criminal. The Attorneys of the United States will conduct the prosecution when made before the Federal courts.

There are about fifty special agents in the Department, who are engaged in the Oceanic transportation of the mails, in charge of offices where the postmaster is delinquent, in examining mail depredations and losses, or seeing that the postal system is properly executed. To be a successful special agent requires self-control, perseverance, caution, and good business habits. Publicity is never given to the means whereby success is attained.

Dead Letters.—Dead and unclaimed letters are divided into five classes: 1st, letters not called for; 2d, those which cannot be forwarded because of illegible or omitted address, or because they contain obscene matter; 3d, those on which one full rate of postage has not been paid, or when the stamps have been previously used or cut from stamped envelopes; 4th, packages exceeding four pounds in weight; and 5th, refused letters. At offices where the salary of the postmaster amounts to five hundred dollars or over, these letters may be advertised once a week for one cent per letter. Investigation into the causes of the non-delivery of letters proves that three-fourths of them fail to reach the parties addressed through the faults of the writers.

During the last fiscal year, 4,162,144 dead letters were received by the Department at Washington, being a diminution of 144,364 from the number received the previous year, and over a million less than those of the year before. This growing diminution is partly owing to the extension of the letter-carrier system, and partly to the use of envelopes, bearing a request to be returned if not called for. Of these four millions of dead letters, nearly one million nine hundred thousand were returned to the writers, the greater part of those not returned being unsigned, circulars,

or of no importance. 32,422 dead letters contained \$98,606.20, of which amount \$89,759.36 was delivered or returned, so that over ninety-one per cent. of valuable matter contained in dead letters was restored to the owners. Of the foreign letters from Europe, nearly three per cent. are returned as dead; of letters sent from this country to Europe, less than six-tenths of one per cent. Unclaimed money taken from dead letters, and all money derived from the sale of waste paper in post-offices, is deposited in the Treasury for the service of the Department. That taken from dead letters is always subject to the call of the owner.

The Money-order Office.—This branch of the post-office was established May 17, 1864, and went into operation on the first day of the following November, with 141 offices. The object of the system was the establishment of an agency for the safe and cheap transmission of small sums of money. As a general rule, postmasters are forbidden to issue to one person more than three orders of fifty dollars each on one day on the same office. And when orders for \$150 or over in favor of one person are presented on the same day at a second-class office, the postmaster is at liberty to defer the payment for five days. For the sake of security, the names of payor and payee are omitted from the order. By the mail immediately succeeding the issue of the order, the postmaster who receives the money notifies the officer on whom it is drawn of the names of both parties. The latter office is thus furnished with all information necessary to guard against fraud or mistake. A money order is invalid unless presented within ninety days from date; after that date the postmaster will issue a new order without the payment of a second fee. An order may be repaid at the office at which it is drawn, provided that it is less than one year old, and does not bear more than one indorsement. No money-order business is allowed to be done on Sundays. To forge or counterfeit an order is a penal offense, and but one instance of this kind has ever occurred.

The fees of this office are fixed on a sliding scale of one-half per cent., as follows: on orders not exceeding \$20, ten cents; not exceeding \$30, fifteen cents; not exceeding \$40, twenty cents; not exceeding \$50, twenty-five cents. When the postmaster has the maximum salary of \$4,000, he is not allowed to retain any portion of the fee. When his salary is under that amount, he is allowed one-third of the fees received, and one-fourth of one per cent. upon the gross amount of orders paid. These fees, during the past fiscal year, have yielded a profit of over fifty thousand dollars, thus paying the expenses of the bureau.

Such has been the success of the money-order office that it has been determined to extend it to foreign countries; Switzerland has been selected for the trial experiment, and the

postal treaty with that country embraces the requisite provisions. The chief difficulty anticipated arises from the premium on gold, but it is confidently expected that the plan will work well, and that the system will soon be extended to all parts of Europe.

The following table shows the growth of the bureau:

YEARS.	Number of offices.	Number of orders.	Fees.	Amount transmitted.
1864.....	141
1865.....	419	74,277	\$11,536 40	\$1,360,122
1866.....	766	243,609	35,799 98	3,977,259
1867.....	1,324	474,496	70,888 57	9,279,327
1868.....	1,468	831,937	124,487 00	16,197,858

Postal Cars.—The postal car service, by which is meant the sorting of mail matter while in transit, commenced on the Iowa division of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad on the 28th of August, 1864. The next service was inaugurated for the very heavy mails between New York and Washington, and this was immediately followed by its introduction on the Chicago and Rock Island, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, the Pennsylvania Central, and other prominent roads. It may now be considered as a permanent fixture on all important railroads. Under the former system, certain offices, the principal postal centres of the country, were designated as Distribution Offices. On the arrival of the mails at these offices, the matter was re-sorted for the distribution office next beyond; the delay for this purpose often keeping the mail over one train. Letters travelling a long distance were, therefore, always behind the traveller and the express; and the longer the distance, the greater the delay. By the new plan, mail matter is sorted in the cars while in transit. Letters for way stations are so bagged as to be thrown off at proper places, and those for terminal offices are classified according to the general direction of the route. The mail is now ready for transhipment from depot to depot, if necessary, without visiting the post-office. By the catching service, the mail bag is taken into and thrown from the cars while in motion. An iron arm, projecting from the car, seizes the mail-bag, at the station, and gives it to the postal clerks. And thus the local mails between contiguous offices are received, sorted, and delivered, on the same day, and without checking the speed of the train.

During the fiscal year 1868, about five hundred and forty millions of letters, besides a large amount of free matter, passed through the mails; of these, fourteen millions came from foreign countries. During the same period, the department issued 383,470,500 postage stamps, of the value of \$11,751,014; 70,022,050 stamped envelopes, of the value of \$2,044,738; and 3,372,600 newspaper wrappers, valued at \$67,374; total value, \$13,863,124.

Registered Letters.—By the payment of an extra fee, mail matter may be registered to most parts of the civilized world. The regis-

tered package, duly stamped, is placed in a large red envelope, addressed to the postmaster of the place to which the letter is to be sent. The address and appearance of the letter are thus concealed. On domestic packets to any part of the United States or Territories, the fee is fifteen cents; to England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, Belgium, the Netherlands, Prussia (including all the German States), Austria, Italy, and Switzerland, the fee is eight cents for letters or other postal packets; and for letters only, directed to Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Russia, Greece, Moldavia, Wallachia, most parts of Turkey, and Panama, the fee is eight cents. Letters only may be transmitted to the Papal States (*via* the North-German Union) for twelve cents for each half ounce; to Egypt, for twenty cents; and to Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island, for five cents. The registration fee is in all cases to be paid in postage stamps attached to the letter or packet, and cancelled at the mailing office.

Oceanic Mail Service.—This service now exchanges about fourteen millions of letters annually with foreign countries, is rapidly increasing, and, under reduced rates, is destined to a yet more rapid growth. New postal treaties have been recently made with England, Belgium, the Netherlands, the North-German Union, Switzerland, and Italy. These postal treaties were generally negotiated by Hon. John A. Kasson, who was instructed to proceed to Europe, and propose these treaties on the general basis of the international postal intercourse, recommended by the Paris Conference of 1863, the main points being the reduction of rates; the reduction or abolition of territorial transit charges; the establishment of uniform postal rates to all parts of Europe; and generally to simplify and render uniform the exchange of international correspondence. Thus far it has not been possible to conclude a new postal convention with France, that power claiming too large a proportion of the rates of postage, and refusing to grant transit in closed mails except at rates which would be prohibitory.

The advantages secured by these treaties are: 1, a material reduction of international letter postage, generally one half; 2, the standard weight for letters to be one half ounce, with uniform progression from that base; 3, prepayment of letters optional, but generally a fine of five cents, besides the lacking postage, when not prepaid, prepayment of all other packets compulsory; 4, the transit charge for letters in closed mails to be one half the interior rate in each country; for instance: one and a half cents for the United States, one half-penny for Great Britain; 5, the removal of all restrictions upon the exchanges of printed matter in the mails at reduced postage charges; 6, granting to each post department the right to make use of all mail communications, established under the author-

ity of the other, for the dispatch of correspondence, either in open or closed mails, on the same terms as those applicable to the inhabitants of the country providing the means of transmission; 7, the country dispatching the mail to pay for its transportation, and the total postage collected to be equally divided between the two offices, after deducting the expense of intermediate transit; and 8, each post department to make its own arrangement for the dispatch of mails to the other by ships sailing on stated days. Under these treaties there are now four weekly services of mails to Europe, and the day is probably not far distant when a regular daily mail communication will be maintained by steam across the Atlantic. We now exchange international mails with Great Britain and Ireland, France and Algeria, Belgium, the North-German Union, Bremen, Hamburg, the Netherlands, Italy, Switzerland, Canada, and British North American provinces, Mexico, Guatemala, Venezuela, and Hong Kong, China; and through the mails of one or more of those countries, used as intermediaries, with Russia, Poland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Austria, Greece, European and Asiatic Turkey, Syria, Egypt, Africa (Mediterranean and Atlantic coasts), islands of the Mediterranean Sea and Indian Ocean, Arabia, India, China, Japan, Ceylon, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Moluccas, Philippine Islands, Australia, New Zealand, Madeira Islands, Canary Islands, St. Helena, Ascension, Azores, Cape de Verdes, Bermudas, Bahamas, West India Islands, Falkland Islands, Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, the Argentine Republic, English, French, and Dutch Guiana, Central America, New Granada, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and many other portions of the world. Direct mail steamship communications are also maintained between the United States and neighboring countries, including Brazil, Central America, Bahamas, Bermudas, and West India Islands, British Columbia, and Vancouver's Island, Sandwich Islands, Japan, and China.

The mails to England and Europe generally cost the department twenty cents per ounce for letter matter, six cents per ounce on paper, book, and other matter. During the year 1868 the expenses of the Oceanic mail service were somewhat over a million of dollars, divided as follows:

To England	\$389,681 96
Japan and China	291,666 67
Brazil	157,500 00
Havana	64,940 12
Hawaiian Islands	56,250 00
Havre, France	30,984 86
San Francisco, <i>via</i> Panama...	27,343 87
Mexico	1,726 43
All other places	7,169 67

\$1,057,203 58

A uniform mail service is now maintained between San Francisco and Hong Kong, in China, the trips averaging thirty days each.

A monthly branch line has also been established between Yokohama, Japan, and Shanghai, China, touching at Hiogo and Nagasaki. On the completion of the Pacific Railroad across the continent, this steam line will probably take the mails of Europe and America to all the east. Monthly trips are also made on the mail steamship routes between New York and Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, occupying about twenty-seven days each trip; and also between San Francisco and Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands, with an average trip of twelve days.

The post-office system, as planned by Franklin, remained in operation from 1775 till 1851, merely growing with the growth of the nation, but receiving no material alteration. It expanded, but did not alter. But in that year three cents postage was established, and, since then, many and marked improvements have been made. In 1855 the registry of letters commenced; confined at first to domestic offices, it now extends to nearly all Europe. In 1856 prepayment of postage was made compulsory. In July, 1863, free delivery by carriers commenced in our large cities. In 1864 the money-order system and the postal car service were inaugurated. In 1867 and 1868 postal conventions were made with most of the civilized nations of the earth, and Oceanic mail service extended to Brazil, the Sandwich Islands, China, and Japan.

Postal facilities have been greatly increased within the last six years. The service is now superior to that of any other country in the world, except England, and only territorial expansion, sparseness of population, and the franking privilege, keep us behind England. During the past year, postal service in the new States and Territories cost \$3,849,560, while only \$1,014,700 was reimbursed from those States; the postal deficiency, therefore, in these States was over \$2,800,000, and, in the Southern States, the loss of the past year was \$1,337,000. Time and growth will cure these deficiencies. Of the thousand million letters, papers, etc., that yearly pass through the mails of the United States, nearly all arrive at their destination. More than ninety-nine per cent. of letters safely and speedily reach the persons addressed. Of the other one per cent., a great proportion are returned to the writers: and it is the fault of the writers, and not of the department, that all dead letters are not returned. Improvements, expensive at first, become self-supporting by the postal increase they produce; for correspondence grows faster than population or business. While the population of this country, during the last eighty years, has made a decennial growth of about thirty-four per cent., the postal revenue has averaged an increase of over one hundred per cent.

POTTER, CHANDLER EASTMAN, a distinguished scholar, editor, and author, of New Hampshire, born in Concord, N. H., March 7, 1807; died at Flint, Mich., August 3, 1868. He fitted for college in his native town, but

entered Dartmouth College rather late, graduating in the class of 1831. After leaving Hanover, he engaged in teaching in Concord, Manchester, and Portsmouth. Subsequently he read law with Ichabod Bartlett, of Portsmouth, where he commenced practice. While preparing for his profession, he was one year a member of the State Legislature. In 1844 he removed to Manchester, where, for four years, he was editor and proprietor of the *Manchester Democrat*. In 1848 he was appointed Judge of the Police Court of Manchester, a position which he filled for several years. Afterward he was for two years editor of the *Farmer's Monthly Visitor*, and was also concerned in the publication of the *Granite Farmer and Visitor*. As an agricultural, historical, and general newspaper writer Judge Potter was very favorably known to the reading public. He was the author of the extensive history of Manchester. Much of his time in former years he devoted to the study of the Indian language, in which he was, probably, better versed than any other scholar in the State. Many of his sketches of Indian life and character have been published. The civil and military history of New Hampshire received much of his careful and critical attention. He was also editor and compiler of all that portion of the recent excellent report of the Adjutant-General of New Hampshire, which included its military history from the commencement of the Revolution down to the opening of the late war. How well and faithfully he performed that important work the reports themselves will forever bear noble testimony. He closed these labors only a few weeks before his decease, and was resting from them by taking a Western trip, when death came. As commander of the famous Amoskeag Veterans of Manchester, Colonel Potter became extensively known to the military public of our country. After commanding the organization for two or three years, he was twice called back to it by the most flattering voice of its members, and was its colonel at his decease. He was the chief officer of the Veterans at the time of their celebrated visit to Baltimore and Washington, under the administration of ex-President Pierce. His addresses at the public receptions of his battalion in the various cities which they have visited were admirable productions both in a literary and historical point of view. For many years he had been an active member of the New Hampshire Historical Society. He very frequently was on its roll of officers and was two terms its president. Judge Potter was not only an able man in various public relations, but in social life he was courteous, genial, and kind. He was a true gentleman; his pleasant manners and interesting conversation won him many friends.

POUILAT, CLAUDE SERVAIS MATHIAS, a distinguished natural philosopher, born at Curanne (Doux), France; died June 14, 1868.

Was educated at Besançon, taught mathematics at the college of Tonnerre, entered the Normal School in 1811, of which he became tutor—and then lecturer, afterward professor of physical science at the Lycée Bourbon; in 1818 he supplied the place of Biot, in a course of natural philosophy, and at the same time was made examiner of candidates for admission to the École Polytechnique. In 1827 he was employed to teach the Duc de Chartres, and afterward the other sons of Louis Philippe, in his especial branch. In 1829 he became professor and sub-director at the “Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers;” two years afterward he succeeded Dulong at the École Polytechnique. In 1837 he became a member of the Academy of Sciences. After the *coup d'état* in 1851, Pouilat refused to take oath to the new government, was dismissed from Sorbonne and all his official positions, and confined himself exclusively to his academic duties and the publishing of his works. Pouilat has contributed much in the different departments of physic, on the phenomena of diffraction, latent heat, solar heat, on the radiating and absorbing power of the atmosphere, on the height of clouds, and laws of electricity. He has left a work of great value, “*Éléments de Physique Expérimentale et de Météorologie.*”

PRESBYTERIANS. I. OLD SCHOOL PRESBYTERIANS.—The statistics of this Church, as reported in the General Assembly, in May, 1868, were, as shown in the following table:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Churches.	Communicants.
Albany.....	95	71	10,855
Alleghany.....	87	107	13,434
Baltimore.....	111	174	15,768
Buffalo.....	49	38	5,251
Chicago.....	115	113	8,173
Cincinnati.....	104	117	11,683
Illinois.....	123	151	10,076
Indiana.....	67	90	7,213
Iowa.....	64	110	4,858
Kansas.....	21	26	1,013
Kentucky.....	55	158	6,311
Missouri.....	64	136	6,437
Nashville.....	15	10	706
New Jersey.....	240	206	28,140
New York.....	232	160	22,441
Northern India.....	22	14	352
Northern Indiana.....	65	99	6,435
Ohio.....	106	145	11,941
Pacific.....	43	34	1,834
Philadelphia.....	237	230	28,502
Pittsburg.....	117	152	19,565
St. Paul.....	46	56	1,694
Sandusky.....	43	60	3,690
Southern Iowa.....	59	76	4,465
Wheeling.....	105	160	17,930
Wisconsin.....	45	54	3,300
Total.....	2,330	2,737	252,555

Synods, 26; presbyteries, 147; licentiates, 223; candidates for the ministry, 326; churches organized, 102; baptisms, 5,191 adults, 11,212 infants; persons in Sunday-schools, 221,340. The contributions for Church purposes amounted to \$4,289,595. The freedmen's committee on May 1, 1868, supported 130 missionaries, and 38 schools. The Board of Missions supports missionaries among the Chippewa, Ottawa, Omaha, Creek, and Seminole Indians; in

the United States of Colombia, Brazil, Liberia, Corisco, India, Siam, China, Japan. The total statistics of the Missionary Society were, 79 American missionaries and 22 natives of the countries in which it operates; 85 American and 179 native teachers; 1,616 communicants in the mission churches, and 6,851 scholars in the boarding and day schools.

The Old School General Assembly met at Albany, N. Y., on the 21st of May. The chief topic of discussion was the basis of reunion of the Old School and New School Presbyterian Churches, which had been presented by the joint committee of the two Assemblies. The basis was adopted by a vote of 186 to 79 on the first article. It contains, besides the preamble, the following points:

1. The reunion shall be effected on the doctrinal and ecclesiastical basis of our common standards; the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments shall be acknowledged to be the inspired Word of God, and the only infallible rule of faith and practice; the Confession of Faith shall continue to be sincerely received and adopted, “as containing the system of doctrine taught in the Holy Scriptures” [it being understood that this Confession is received in its proper, historical—that is, the Calvinistic or Reformed—sense; it is also understood that various methods of viewing, stating, explaining, and illustrating the doctrines of the Confession, which do not impair the integrity of the Reformed or Calvinistic system, are to be freely allowed in the United Church, as they have hitherto been allowed in the separate Churches]; and the government and discipline of the Presbyterian Church in the United States shall be approved as containing the principles and rule of our polity.

2. All the ministers and churches embraced in the two bodies shall be admitted to the same standing, in the united body, which they may hold in their respective connections up to the consummation of the union; imperfectly organized churches shall be counselled and expected to become thoroughly Presbyterian, as early, within the period of five years, as is permitted by the highest interests to be consulted; and no other such churches shall be hereafter received.

3. The boundaries of the several Presbyteries and Synods shall be adjusted by the General Assembly of the United Church.

4. The official records of the two branches of the Church, for the period of separation, shall be preserved and held as making up the one history of the Church; and no rule or precedent, which does not stand approved by both the bodies, shall be of any authority until reestablished in the united body, except in so far as such rule or precedent may affect the rights of property founded thereon.

5. The corporate rights now held by the two General Assemblies, and by their Boards and Committees, shall, as far as practicable, be consolidated, and applied for their several objects, as defined by law.

6. There shall be one set of Committees or Boards for Home and Foreign Missions, and the other religious enterprises of the Church, which the churches shall be encouraged to sustain, though free to cast their contributions into other channels, if they desire to do so.

7. As soon as practicable after the union shall be effected, the General Assembly shall reconstruct and consolidate the several permanent Committees and Boards, which now belong to the two Assemblies, in such a manner as to represent, as far as possible, with impartiality, the views and wishes of the two bodies constituting the United Church.

8. The publications of the Board of Publication, and of the Publication Committee, shall continue to be

issued as at present, leaving it to the Board of Publication of the United Church to revise these issues, and perfect a catalogue for the joint Church, so as to exclude invidious references to past controversies.

9. In order to a uniform system of ecclesiastical supervision, those Theological Seminaries that are now under Assembly control may, if their Boards of Direction so elect, be transferred to the watch and care of one or more of the adjacent Synods; and the other Seminaries are advised to introduce, as far as may be, into their constitutions, the principle of Synodical or Assembly supervision; in which case they shall be entitled to an official recognition and approbation on the part of the General Assembly.

10. It is agreed that the Presbyteries possess the right to examine ministers applying for admission from other Presbyteries; but each Presbytery shall be left free to decide for itself when it shall exercise the right.

11. It shall be regarded as the duty of all our judicatories, ministers, and people in the United Church, to study the things which make for peace, and to guard against all needless and offensive references to the causes that have divided us; and, in order to avoid the revival of past issues, by the continuance of any usage in either branch of the Church that has grown out of our former conflicts, it is earnestly recommended to the lower judicatories of the Church that they conform their practice, in relation to all such usages, as far as is consistent with their convictions of duty, to the general custom of the Church prior to the controversies that resulted in the separation.

12. The terms of the reunion, if they are approved by the General Assemblies of 1868, shall be overtured to the several Presbyteries under their care, and shall be of binding force, if they are ratified by three-fourths of the Presbyteries connected with each branch of the Church, within one year after they shall have been submitted to them for approval.

13. If the two General Assemblies of 1869 shall find that the plan of reunion has been ratified by the requisite number of Presbyteries in each body, they shall, after the conclusion of all their business, be dissolved by their respective moderators, in the manner and form following, viz.: Each moderator shall address the assembly over which he presides, saying, "By virtue of the authority delegated to me by the Church, and in conformity with the plan of union adopted by the two Presbyterian Churches, let this Assembly be dissolved; and I do hereby dissolve it, and require a General Assembly, chosen in the same manner, by all the Presbyteries in connection with this body, and all those in connection with the General Assembly meeting this year in —, to meet in —, on the — day of May, A. D. 1870; and I do hereby declare and proclaim that the General Assembly thus constituted will be the rightful General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, now, by the grace of God, happily united."

The Assembly afterward unanimously voted in favor of amending the first article (so as to leave out that part which we have placed in brackets), and declared their proposition of amendment to mean that the first article of the basis is not to be interpreted as giving license to the propagation of doctrines which have been condemned by either Assembly, nor to permit any Presbytery in the United States to license or ordain to the work of the ministry any candidate who maintains any form of doctrine condemned by either Assembly. A protest was presented against the adoption of the basis of union, signed by fifty-one members, to which the Assembly adopted a reply. In re-

sponse to a communication on a general union of Presbyterian churches from the Presbyterian Convention which was held in Philadelphia in November, 1867, a committee was appointed to confer upon a plan of union with representatives of the bodies which were represented in the convention. The committee were instructed, if an intimate union was found inexpedient or impracticable, to confer upon some plan of confederation of the separate Presbyterian churches. The majority of the Southern Presbyteries having withdrawn and organized themselves into a separate Church, the Assembly decided to recognize their independence, at the same time expressing the hope that they may some day see their way clear to return to their former relations. The Assembly declined to modify or repeal the action of the last General Assembly in relation to the signers of the Declaration and Testimony, but referred the whole subject to the Synods of Missouri and Kentucky and other Synods concerned.

II. NEW SCHOOL PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—The following statistics were reported to the General Assembly of 1868:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Communi- cants.	Sunday-school scholars.
Albany	79	8,354	7,052
Utica	79	7,502	6,563
Onondaga	74	9,555	5,410
Geneva	100	9,702	8,611
Susquehanna.....	37	3,521	3,027
Genesee	138	14,149	15,097
New York & New Jersey,	227	33,886	37,777
Pennsylvania.....	123	17,239	19,185
West Pennsylvania.....	32	3,953	3,818
Michigan.....	122	11,030	14,340
Western Reserve.....	96	6,716	8,383
Ohio.....	47	4,499	5,087
Cincinnati.....	56	4,112	5,032
Wabash.....	42	3,293	3,559
Indiana.....	47	5,008	5,626
Illinois.....	86	6,307	8,751
Peoria.....	105	7,211	10,407
Wisconsin.....	44	1,868	2,916
Iowa.....	63	3,108	4,139
Minnesota.....	38	1,956	2,656
Missouri.....	45	2,123	3,964
Tennessee.....	21	2,707	1,945
Alta California.....	29	1,327	1,232
Total.....	1,800	168,932	184,687

There are 111 presbyteries; 1,590 churches; 121 licentiates, and 290 candidates for the ministry. There were 3,805 adult and 4,967 infant baptisms. The collections were:

General Assembly.....	\$9,723.07
Home Missions.....	132,848.00
Foreign Missions.....	108,196.00
Education.....	33,678.00
Publications.....	13,986.00
Ministerial relief.....	10,516.00
Congregational.....	2,441,086.00

The committee on home missions employed 450 missionaries during the year. The whole number of new churches formed was 54.

The General Assembly of this Church met at Harrisburgh, Pa., on the 21st of May. Its attention was much absorbed in the consideration of the plan of reunion agreed upon by the joint committee of the Old School and New

School General Assemblies (see the points of the board of reunion above, under Old School Presbyterian Church). No serious opposition was offered except to the 10th article, against which a protest was presented, signed by thirty-six members. Except this, the plan was adopted without an opposing vote, four members only declining to vote on the first article, and two or three on the second. The plan to establish a mission-house at Newark, N. J., for the education of Germans for the work of the ministry among their own people, was approved.

III. PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH (in the Southern States).—This branch of American Presbyterianism comprises the large majority of both the Old School and the New School Presbyterians in the late slave States.

The minutes of the General Assembly present the following "general view of the Presbyterian Church, during the six months ending April 1, 1868:"

Synods.....	10
Presbyteries.....	48
Ministers.....	786
Licentiates.....	51
Candidates.....	92
Churches.....	1,298
Licenses.....	13
Ordinations.....	6
Installations.....	21
Pastoral relations dissolved.....	16
Churches organized.....	10
Churches dissolved.....	6
Members added on examination.....	2,857
Members added on certificate.....	1,411
Total number of communicants.....	76,949
Adults baptized.....	765
Children baptized.....	1,695
Children in S. S. and Bible classes.....	33,714
Amount contributed to sustentation.....	\$23,087
Amount contributed to foreign missions.....	5,494
Amount contributed to publications.....	12,260
Amount contributed to education.....	8,277

The General Assembly met in Baltimore, May 21st. It was unusually well attended, all the Presbyteries being fully represented. The trustees of the General Assembly reported their organization under an act of incorporation of the Legislature of North Carolina.

IV. UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—The statistics of this Church, as reported at the General Assembly of 1868, were as follows:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Congregations.	Communicants.
Synod of New York.....	87	97	13,874
First Synod of the West.....	81	120	13,130
Synod of Pittsburg.....	71	115	12,000
Synod of Ohio.....	45	81	6,117
Second Synod of the West.....	68	194	8,031
Synod of Illinois.....	93	114	7,014
Synod of Iowa.....	55	82	4,200
Missionary Presbyteries (Egypt, Oregon, Sealkote).....	17	13	456
Total.....	541	735	65,612

The number of settled pastors was 401; of ministers without charge, 140; of licentiates, 53; of students, 40; of families, 28,162; infant baptisms, 4,122; adult baptisms, 493; Sunday-

school scholars, 32,737; contributions, \$729,639 (for home missions, \$29,031; foreign missions, \$48,902; freedmen's mission, \$12,361; education, \$2,055; publication, \$3,258; church extension, \$12,944); average contribution for every member, \$11.12.

The General Assembly of the United Presbyterian Church met at Argyle, N. Y., May 27th. The subject of union came up on the presentation of the report on the basis of union which was offered by the Presbyterian Convention which met in Philadelphia, in November, 1867. The report expressed interest in union, recommended free interchange of sentiment on points of difference, expressed gratification at some things in the basis, but declared that, as a whole, it would not answer as a basis of union, and recommended the appointment of "delegates to meet with delegates from the other bodies, to endeavor to obtain such terms of union as will not relinquish principle, and especially our unqualified assent to the Westminster Confession and Catechisms." It was adopted unanimously. The Assembly pledged cooperation with the movement to procure the formal acknowledgment of God in the National Constitution. The Directory of Worship was adopted. The article prohibiting instrumental music in worship in the churches was retained. The proposal of the General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church, to appoint committees to confer together with a view to effect a union between the two Churches, was accepted, and a committee appointed.

The following is the basis of the union between the Reformed and the United Presbyterian Churches, agreed upon at a meeting of the two Committees:

Resolved, 1. That these Churches agree to form an organic union on the basis of the principles embraced in their respective testimonies, and the other subordinate standards which they hold in common.

2. That these Churches, when united, shall be called the United Presbyterian Church, consisting of the Reformed Presbyterian Church, and the United Presbyterian Church; and that the supreme judiciary of the United Church shall be called the General Assembly of the United Presbyterian Church of North America.

3. That the testimony of the United Presbyterian Church shall be acknowledged as the testimony of the United Church.

4. That, for the present, the substantial agreement of the testimonies of these respective Churches being recognized, congregations in the United Church shall be at liberty to use either, as may be most conducive to their edification.

5. That the different boards and institutions of the respective Churches shall not be affected by this union, but shall have the control of their funds, and retain all their corporate or other rights and privileges, until the interests of the Church shall require a change.

V. ASSOCIATE PRESBYTERIANS AND ASSOCIATE REFORMED PRESBYTERIANS.—The United Presbyterian Church arose ten years ago out of a union of the Associate Presbyterian and Associate Reformed Presbyterian Churches. Small portions of either of these two connections de-

clined to enter the union, and now call themselves the "Associate Synod of North America" and the "Associate Reformed Synod of New York." The former body consists of 4 Presbyteries, 12 ministers, 40 congregations, 514 families, 1,091 members. The contributions for benevolent purposes were \$326.07. The latter has 16 ministers and about 1,600 communicants.

Besides these two bodies, there is, in the Southern States, the "Associate Reformed Presbyterian Church South," with about 70 ministers.

VI. REFORMED PRESBYTERIANS.—Of these there are two organizations, the "General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church" and the "Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church." The statistics of the General Synod were: Pastors, 77; number of families, 3,026; number of communicants, 8,487; contributed to foreign missions, \$6,482.68; home missions, \$2,340.93; freedmen's missions, \$3,429.86; seminary, \$1,424.16; and all other objects, \$25,676.26. The "Synod" has 63 ministers and 5,821 communicants. The General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church met at Pittsburg, Pa., in the latter part of May. Its action was not favorable to the policy of a general union of the Presbyterian Churches. It went so far as to adopt resolutions in favor of union with those churches whose doctrines, order, and worship, correspond with its own, and appointed a committee to correspond on the subject. It confined its invitation, however, to the United Presbyterian Church, and the Reformed Presbyterian Synod. In other respects the General Synod manifested a fixed determination to adhere to its order unchanged, especially to those rules forbidding the singing of hymns or any compositions but those of divine inspiration. Mr. George H. Stuart, formerly President of the United States Christian Commission, who had often joined with congregations of other denominations in singing hymns, and had communed in churches differing in doctrine and orders from the Reformed Presbyterian, was censured for his offence against the rules of the Church, and suspended from his offices and membership until he should acknowledge his error, and submit to the law and authority of the Church. A disclaimer and repudiation of this action of the General Assembly has been addressed to the public, signed by thirteen of the delegates who voted against it.

VII. CUMBERLAND PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—The following estimate of statistics was given in 1868 by a leading paper of this Church: Communicants, 130,000; ministers, 1,500; general assembly, 1; synods, 24; presbyteries, 99.

The General Assembly of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church met at Lincoln, Ill., May 21. It was the largest that had convened in the history of the Church. The publishing interests of the Church continue in a prosper-

ous condition. The receipts for the year were \$6,991.24, making the total capital of the establishment \$12,208.98. A memorial was presented asking the Assembly to declare affirmatively upon the following propositions:

1. That things secular and civil belong to the State.
2. That things moral and ecclesiastical belong to the Church.
3. That in regard to things which are mixed, being partly secular and civil, and partly moral and ecclesiastical, the secular and civil aspects belong to the State, but the moral and ecclesiastical aspects belong to the Church.
4. That it is the prerogative of the Church of Christ to sanction correct morals, to express its views through the pulpit, the press, and the various judicatures, on all moral questions, regardless of civil codes or political creeds.

The answer adopted by the Assembly reiterated the statement of the Confession of Faith on the first proposition. It considered the second "not respectful to the State, as a power ordained of God. For there are many moral questions over which the State has jurisdiction also." It is agreed substantially with the third, judging that in questions of divided jurisdiction, while the Church is to be free and untrammelled in her teaching and adjudication, she must be wise and prudent, and will find ample instructions in her just and scriptural standards. It declared agreement with the fourth, except as to the phrase "civil codes," and that while it is the prerogative and duty of the Church to reprove and rebuke all sin, and approve and establish all righteousness and true holiness, she should not put herself in an attitude of defiance or disregard for the civil laws of the land.

VIII. THE ESTABLISHED CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.—The General Assembly of this Church, which met on the 21st of May, resolved against the disestablishment of the Irish Church, by a vote of 211 to 81. A committee was appointed to inquire into the alleged evils of patronage, and to consider what modifications could be made. The number of communicants was reported at 259,861. The contributions to society and benevolent funds were as follows: Home purposes, £132,954 4s. 8½d.; foreign missions, £20,883 5s. 6½d.; other assembly schemes, £11,265 0s. 10d.; total—£165,093 11s. 0¾d.

IX. FREE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.—The General Assembly of this Church voted, 427 to 105, in favor of a union with the United Presbyterian Church. The Irish disestablishment question was not voted on in the General Assembly at its regular session, but a meeting of the Commission of the Assembly, on the 17th of June, voted 99 to 34 in favor of disestablishment.

The contributions to society and benevolent funds were as follows: Sustentation fund, £128,549 7s. 9d.; local building fund, £56,279 3s. 5½d.; congregational fund, £126,343 17s. 4½d.; missions and education, £66,729 16s. 11d.; miscellaneous, £17,652 6s. 10d.; total—£395,559 12s. 4½d.

X. UNITED PRESBYTERIAN SYNOD OF GREAT

BRITAIN.—This body met in Edinburgh on the 11th of May. The question of union received favorable consideration. Resolutions indorsing the proposal for disendowing the Irish Church establishment, denouncing the plans for an Irish Roman Catholic university, and for endowing denominational schools, were adopted. The following statistics were reported: Communicants, 176,391; increase from 1866, 1,961; attendants at church, 205,462; baptisms, 11,608; Sunday-school teachers, 9,536; do. scholars, 75,062; Bible classes, 717; attendance, 19,606. Home missions and augmentation: total income, £13,302; increase £7,443; congregational incomes, £265,561; stipends paid, £103,495.

XI. SCOTTISH REFORMED PRESBYTERIANS.—The Synod met on the 8th of May. The report of the joint committee on reunion, being in substance identical with that submitted to the Free Assembly and the United Presbyterian Synod, was unanimously approved, and the committee continued. The report relates mainly to financial matters, states the different methods of the several churches, and agrees to a central ministerial sustentation fund in the United Church, to secure a minimum of £150 a year to every pastor. It also agrees that there shall be in the United Church two supreme judicatories, one for England and one for Scotland; but that these coöperate in work, recognize the validity of each other's acts, and shall at stated intervals, or as occasion requires, hold a common council. The statistics of this Church were as follows: members, 6,516; contributions for ministerial support, £4,991; do. for other purposes, £4,342.

XII. ENGLISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—The statistics of this Church were reported, in 1868, as follows: congregations, 119; communicants, 20,732; contributions, £59,551. The number of congregations in 1845 was 62.

XIII.—IRISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.—The General Assembly of this Church was held at Belfast on the 18th of June. The Assembly, by a vote of 210 to 180, passed a resolution declaring its adherence to the establishment principle, protesting against the threatened withdrawal of the *Regium donum*, and appointing a committee to take steps so as to secure that "justice should be done to the Irish Presbyterian Church in the matter of endowment." A protest, signed by 175 members, was presented against this decision. On the question of instrumental music, it was voted "that the common law of the Church excludes instrumental music in the worship of God, and that congregations be required to conform to that law." There appears a decrease of 11,632 in the number of communicants. The total amount raised by the Church was for church erection, £27,424; for foreign missions, etc., £5,859; from pew rent, £34,724; from Sunday collections, £12,177; from Sunday-school collections, £741; total, £94,218, being £10,-

448 more than during the preceding year. There are 81,303 families connected with the Church, and between 70,000 and 80,000 Sunday-school scholars; sittings in the churches, 223,869. The Indian Mission reports a native church at Surat, with a membership of 75 baptized persons. A mission to China has been established, to consist of a clerical and a medical missionary. The church, manse, school, and debt fund, now £23,000, is to be raised to a minimum of £30,000.

PRUSSIA, a kingdom in Europe. King, Wilhelm I., born March 22, 1797; succeeded his brother Friedrich Wilhelm III. on February 2, 1861. Heir-apparent, Friedrich Wilhelm, born October 18, 1831. The ministry, in 1868, consisted of the following members: Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen, Presidency and Foreign Affairs (appointed in 1862); Baron von der Heydt, Finance (1866); General Dr. von Roon, War, (1859) and Navy (1861); H. Count von Itzenplitz, Commerce and Public Works (1862); Dr. von Mühler, Worship, Instruction, and Medical Affairs (1862); Leonhard, Justice (December, 1867); Von Selchow, Agriculture (1862); F. A. Count zu Eulenburg, Interior (1862). Ambassador of the United States at Berlin, George Bancroft (1867); Prussian ambassador in Washington, Baron von Gerolt.

The area of Prussia, inclusive of the new territory acquired in 1866, and of the duchy of Lauenburg, is 135,806 square miles. The population, according to the census of December 3, 1867, was 24,043,296. This includes 18,228 soldiers, who at that time were located in the other states of the North-German Confederation. The population of each of the old provinces and of new acquisitions, in 1867, was, according to the official census, as follows:

OLD PROVINCES.	
Prussia.....	3,090,960
Posen.....	1,537,338
Brandenburg.....	2,719,775
Pomerania.....	1,445,635
Silesia.....	3,585,752
Saxony.....	2,067,066
Westphalia.....	1,707,726
Rhine Provinces.....	3,455,358
Hohenzollern.....	64,632
Jade.....	1,743
NEW TERRITORY.	
Hanover.....	1,937,637
Schleswig-Holstein.....	981,718
Cassel and Wiesbaden.....	1,379,745
Lauenburg.....	49,978
Garrisons outside of the kingdom...	18,228
24,043,296	

Among the old provinces, Rhenish Prussia has the densest population, and Pomerania the thinnest. In the newly-acquired territory, the District of Wiesbaden has the greatest number of souls to the square mile, and the province of Hanover the least. These figures are exclusive of the duchy of Lauenburg, which has 50,002 inhabitants, and, if we add its population to that

of the provinces, the entire population of Prussia amounts to 24,111,212 souls. In the old provinces, exclusive of Hohenzollern and the Jade district, the population has increased 9,342,492, or 90.52 per cent. since the year 1816; the average annual increase was therefore 1.77 per cent.

The religious statistics of the present dominions of the King of Prussia, according to the census of 1864, were as follows: United Evangelical Church, 15,413,207; Roman Catholics, 7,803,346; Israelites, 314,797; other religious denominations, 59,289 (including 14,196 Mennonites, 1,530 Greeks, 43,032 dissidents).

Prussia, according to the census of 1867, had the following cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants: Berlin, 702,437; Breslau, 171,926; Cologne, 125,172; Königsburg, 106,296.

With regard to language, the inhabitants of Prussia are divided as follows: Germans, 88.1 per cent.; Poles, 10.0; Danes, 0.6; Lithuanians, 0.6; Wends, 0.4; Bohemians and Moravians, 0.3.

The budget of 1869 estimates the revenue and expenditure of Prussia at 167,536,494 thalers. The amount has been reduced since 1867, as a considerable part of the revenue derived from duties, the post, etc., and some items of the expenditure, such as army, fleet, telegraphs, etc., are now administered by the North-German Confederation. The principal sources of revenue for the year 1869 are: domains and forests; direct taxes, such as property-tax, house-tax, income-tax, and trades and professions tax; and indirect taxes. The Prussian national debt amounted at the beginning of 1867 to 248,853,609 thalers bearing interest, and 15,842,347 not bearing interest. In the course of that year a new loan of 27,760,400 thalers was contracted, which raised the interest-bearing debt to 276,614,009 thalers, but the sum of 5,952,815 was paid off, and the debt was thus reduced at the beginning of 1868 to 270,661,194 thalers. The non-interest-bearing debt remained unchanged, so that the entire national debt, at the commencement of 1868, amounted to 286,503,541 thalers. From this we must deduct 92,266,912 thalers, the interest and capital of which are to be paid out of the earnings of the railways, and 10,028,000 thalers of the loan of 1856 paid off in 1868 through the Prussian Bank. Deducting these two items, making together 102,294,912 thalers, the exact amount of the national debt is fixed at 168,366,282 thalers bearing interest, and 15,842,347 thalers not bearing interest, or, together, 184,208,629 thalers. Nearly one-half of this debt, or 82,591,856 thalers pays no more than $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and the entire sum is equal to 7.7 thalers per head of the population.

The Prussian Government is making great exertions to develop the industry of the country. Competent persons are frequently sent to

report on the industrial condition of other countries; and a number of special industrial schools have been established and endowed.

Among these institutions the Industrial Academy of Berlin (*Gewerbe-Academie*), which is attended by about 500 pupils, takes the first place. As preparatory schools for this establishment, there are provincial industrial schools in all the provinces, for the education of artisans and managers of manufactories. These educational establishments are supported by the state at a cost of about 152,500 thalers per annum. There are, besides, several technical schools for weavers, pattern-designers, etc., exclusive of those founded by various societies to improve the education of workmen, in which, in addition to a knowledge of elementary science, they also acquire theoretical instruction in their own calling. The manufacture of metal may be regarded as entitled to the first place among the various branches of Prussian industry, sustained as it is by the rich iron, copper, lead, and zinc deposits to be found in the country. The small-arms manufactures in Sommerda, Suhl, and Spandau are celebrated; Solingen and Remscheid produce steel weapons and cutlery; and Aix-la-Chapelle and Iserlohn excellent needles. Besides the places mentioned, Berlin, Breslau, Königsberg, Stettin, Magdeburg, Hanover, Elbing, and several other towns, carry on the manufacture and casting of iron and other metals on a large scale. The cotton-trade has its principal seat in Rhenish Prussia (Elberfeld, Barmen, Cologne, Gladbach, and Lennep), in Saxony (Nordhausen, Muhlhausen, and Heiligenstadt), in Silesia (Reichenbach, Schweidnitz, Landshut, and Waldenburg), and in Berlin; while flax-spinning and linen-weaving are pursued mainly in Bielefeld, Freiburg, Erdmannsdorf, Hirschberg, and Waldenburg. The production of silk and velvet goods is carried on in Elberfeld, Crefeld, Viersen, Cologne, Muhlheim, and Aix-la-Chapelle, all in Rhenish Prussia.

In the year 1867 there were 2,828 mines working in Prussia, occupying 178,476 workmen and producing annually 59,312,950 thalers. The most important of these products are coals, of which 420,571,116 centners, valued at 39,157,939 thalers, were raised. The great coal-producing districts are the Government circles of Arnberg, Dusseldorf, and Oppeln. In the year 1824, in the old provinces of Prussia, the entire coal production was no more than 24,000,000 of centners, while in 1867 it reached the immense quantity of nearly 413,000,000.

Iron ore is principally found in the districts of Arnberg, Dusseldorf, Coblenz, Wiesbaden, Oppeln, and in the province of Hanover. The quantity produced in 1867 was 47,699,649 cent. Of the other ores, in the same year, were obtained: lead, 1,831,272 cent.; copper, 3,492,827 cent.; and zinc, 7,260,343 cent.

The movement of shipping of the ports of the Baltic Sea was, in 1867, as follows:

FLAG.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Lasts.	Vessels.	Lasts.
Foreign	4,750	474,447	4,704	470,586
Prussian.....	10,836	527,031	10,919	547,115
Total.....	15,586	1,001,478	15,623	1,017,701

(For an account of the army, navy, and merchant navy, *see* the article GERMANY.)

Education in Prussia is in a very flourishing condition. There were, in 1864, 144 gymnasia (colleges), with 2,188 teachers; the number increased in 1866, in the old provinces, to 153 gymnasia, besides 26 progymnasia, 56 "Real" schools of first rank and 27 of second rank. There are in the old provinces 6 universities (Berlin, Bonn, Breslau, Greifswalde, Halle, Königsberg), and one academy, in Munster; the number of matriculated students in 1864 being 5,873; to which, in 1866, were added 3 universities (Kiel, Gottingen, and Marburg), in the recently acquired territory. (For latest statistics of the Prussian universities, *see* GERMANY.)

There were, in 1865, 62 primary normal schools, with 3,610 pupils; 25,056 public primary schools, with 36,157 teachers and 2,825,322 scholars; 906 private primary schools, with 1,683 teachers and 52,692 scholars; 519 higher schools for girls and boys, with 2,626 teachers and 91,052 scholars; 601 boarding-schools, with 2,676 teachers and 36,014 pupils, and 912 Sunday and benevolent schools, with 61,895 pupils.

According to the Berlin *Military Gazette*, a fort has been built at the entrance to Kiel harbor, which, together with the fortifications now existing, renders it impossible for an enemy's fleet to approach the town. The fort is armed with twelve rifled 72-pounders, from Krupp's gun-factory. The *Gazette* adds that a monster cannon—a 370-pounder—has also been manufactured by Krupp for the protection of the coast. The inner barrel of this gun is made of a single steel casting of 840 cwt., and is strengthened by three massive steel rings, weighing 600 cwt. The total weight of the gun is 1,000 cwt. The gun-carriage is also of steel, and weighs 300 cwt. The solid shot are of steel, and weigh 1,100 lbs. each; the shells weigh 1,181 lbs.

The Prussian Diet which had been opened on the 15th of November, 1867, was closed by the King on the 29th of January, 1868. In his speech from the throne, the King expressed his satisfaction that important measures had been passed, mainly by the joint action of the Government and the representatives of the country. He thanked both Chambers of the Diet for the readiness which they had displayed in voting additional grants for the maintenance of the dignity of the crown. The King then alluded to the measures which had been adopted to alleviate the distress in the province of East Prussia, and for the establishment of a provincial fund for Hanover. He also referred to the unanimity of views displayed by the

Chambers and the Government, respecting the compensation treaties concluded with the former rulers of Hanover and of Nassau.

The Prussian Government, throughout the year, expressed the most earnest desire for the preservation of peace in Europe. On September 15th, the King of Prussia, in answer to an address from the rector of the University of Kiel, expressing a wish for the maintenance of peace, said:

As to the hope you express for the preservation of peace, no one can share it more sincerely than I do; for it is a painful necessity for a sovereign, who is responsible before the Almighty, to give the fatal word for war. And yet, there are circumstances in which a prince neither can nor should avoid such responsibility. You yourselves have witnessed here, with your own eyes, evidence of the fact that the necessity of a war may force itself upon a prince as well as upon a nation. If there exists between us a link of confidence and friendliness, it is to war that we owe it. However, I do not see in all Europe any circumstance menacing peace, and I say so confidently, in order to tranquillize you.

A new session of the Diet began in November. The King, in his opening speech, after referring to the subjects which would most engage the attention of the Diet, thus referred to some important occurrences since the close of the last session:

By the conclusion of a revised Rhine Navigation Act, a new international agreement has been obtained for the traffic upon one of the most important of rivers.

It affords me satisfaction that a return of the distress which afflicted a portion of the province of Prussia last year need not be apprehended this winter—a result due to the measures which were taken with your approval, to the devoted activity of the authorities and corporations, and to this year's favorable harvest in every province of the monarchy.

The relations of my Government with foreign powers in every direction are satisfactory and friendly. The events in the Western Peninsula of Europe can give rise to no other feeling within us than the wish and confidence that the Spanish nation will succeed in finding in the independent formation of her national position a guarantee of her future prosperity and power.

A proof of united progress in civilization and humanity has been afforded by the international congress which has just accomplished at Geneva the task of completing and extending to the navies the principles already settled previously for treating and caring for the wounded in war. We may hope that the moment is far distant which will call for the application of those principles. The sentiments of the sovereigns of Europe and the nations' desire for peace give ground for trusting that the advancing development of the general welfare will not only suffer no material disturbance, but will also be freed from those obstructing and paralyzing effects which have only too often been created by groundless fears, taken advantage of by the enemies of peace and public order.

On the 9th of December, the Chamber of Deputies adopted a resolution requesting the Government to take steps for causing the Prussian Ministry for Foreign Affairs to be amalgamated by the year 1870 with a concentrated Foreign office for the North-German Confederation. During the debate, Count Bismarck said: "Confidential negotiations with our Federal allies have convinced me that we shall be able to lay the necessary bill on this subject before the North-German Parliament at its next meeting."

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. *Message of President JOHNSON to the two Houses of Congress, at the commencement of the second regular session of the Fortieth Congress, December 7, 1868.*

Fellow-Citizens of the Senate and House of Representatives:

Upon the reassembling of Congress, it again becomes my duty to call your attention to the state of the Union, and to its continued disorganized condition under the various laws which have been passed upon the subject of reconstruction.

It may be safely assumed, as an axiom in the government of States, that the greatest wrongs inflicted upon a people are caused by unjust and arbitrary legislation, or by the unrelenting decrees of despotic rulers, and that the timely revocation of injurious and oppressive measures is the greatest good that can be conferred upon a nation. The legislator or ruler who has the wisdom and magnanimity to retrace his steps, when convinced of error, will sooner or later be rewarded with the respect and gratitude of an intelligent and patriotic people.

Our own history—although embracing a period of less than a century—affords abundant proof that most, if not all, of our domestic troubles are directly traceable to violations of the organic law and excessive legislation. The most striking illustrations of this fact are furnished by the enactments of the past three years upon the question of reconstruction. After a fair trial, they have substantially failed, and proved pernicious in their results, and there seems to be no good reason why they should longer remain upon the statute-book. States to which the Constitution guarantees a republican form of government, have been reduced to military dependencies, in each of which the people have been made subject to the arbitrary will of the commanding general. Although the Constitution requires that each State shall be represented in Congress, Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas are yet excluded from the two Houses, and, contrary to the express provisions of that instrument, were denied participation in the recent election for a President and Vice-President of the United States. The attempt to place the white population under the domination of persons of color in the South, has impaired, if not destroyed, the kindly relations that had previously existed between them; and mutual distrust has engendered a feeling of animosity which, leading in some instances to collision and bloodshed, has prevented that coöperation between the two races so essential to the success of industrial enterprises in the Southern States. Nor have the inhabitants of those States alone suffered from the disturbed condition of affairs growing out of these congressional enactments. The entire Union has been agitated by grave apprehensions of troubles which might again involve the peace of the nation; its interests have been injuriously affected by the derangement of business and labor, and the consequent want of prosperity throughout that portion of the country.

The Federal Constitution—the *magna charta* of American rights, under whose wise and salutary provisions we have successfully conducted all our domestic and foreign affairs, sustained ourselves in peace and in war, and become a great nation among the powers of the earth—must assuredly be now adequate to the settlement of questions growing out of the civil war waged alone for its vindication. This great fact is made most manifest by the condition of the country when Congress assembled in the month of December, 1865. Civil strife had ceased; the spirit of rebellion had spent its entire force; in the Southern States the people had warmed into national life, and throughout the whole country a healthy reaction in public sentiment had taken place. By the application of the simple, yet effective, provisions of the Constitution, the Executive Department, with the voluntary aid of the States, had brought the work of restoration as

near completion as was within the scope of its authority, and the nation was encouraged by the prospect of an early and satisfactory adjustment of all its difficulties. Congress, however, intervened, and refusing to perfect the work so nearly consummated, declined to admit members from the unrepresented States, adopted a series of measures which arrested the progress of restoration, frustrated all that had been so successfully accomplished, and, after three years of agitation and strife, has left the country farther from the attainment of union and fraternal feeling than at the inception of the Congressional plan of reconstruction. It needs no argument to show that legislation which has produced such baneful consequences should be abrogated, or else made to conform to the genuine principles of republican government.

Under the influence of party passion and sectional prejudice, other acts have been passed not warranted by the Constitution. Congress has already been made familiar with my views respecting the "Tenure-of-Office Bill." Experience has proved that its repeal is demanded by the best interests of the country, and that while it remains in force the President cannot enjoin that rigid accountability of public officers so essential to an honest and efficient execution of the laws. Its revocation would enable the Executive Department to exercise the power of appointment and removal in accordance with the original design of the Federal Constitution.

The act of March 2, 1867, making appropriations for the support of the army for the year ending June 30, 1868, and for other purposes, contains provisions which interfere with the President's constitutional functions as Commander-in-Chief of the army, and deny to States of the Union the right to protect themselves by means of their own militia. These provisions should be at once annulled; for while the first might, in times of great emergency, seriously embarrass the Executive in efforts to employ and direct the common strength of the nation for its protection and preservation, the other is contrary to the express declaration of the Constitution, that "a well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed."

It is believed that the repeal of all such laws would be accepted by the American people as at least a partial return to the fundamental principles of the Government, and an indication that hereafter the Constitution is to be made the nation's safe and unerring guide. They can be productive of no permanent benefit to the country, and should not be permitted to stand as so many monuments of the deficient wisdom which has characterized our recent legislation.

The condition of our finances demands the early and earnest consideration of Congress. Compared with the growth of our population, the public expenditures have reached an amount unprecedented in our history.

The population of the United States in 1790 was nearly four millions of people. Increasing each decade about thirty-three per cent., it reached in 1860 thirty-one millions—an increase of seven hundred per cent. on the population in 1790. In 1869 it is estimated that it will reach thirty-eight millions, or an increase of eight hundred and sixty-eight per cent. in seventy-nine years.

The annual expenditures of the Federal Government in 1791 were four million two hundred thousand dollars; in 1820, eighteen million two hundred thousand dollars; in 1850, forty-one millions; in 1860, sixty-three millions; in 1865, nearly thirteen hundred millions; and in 1869 it is estimated by the Secretary of the Treasury, in his last annual report, that they will be three hundred and seventy-two millions.

By comparing the public disbursements of 1869, as estimated, with those of 1791, it will be seen that the

increase of expenditure since the beginning of the Government has been eight thousand six hundred and eighteen per centum, while the increase of the population for the same period was only eight hundred and sixty-eight per centum. Again: the expenses of the Government in 1860, the year of peace immediately preceding the war, were only sixty-three millions; while in 1869, the year of peace three years after the war, it is estimated they will be three hundred and seventy-two millions—an increase of four hundred and eighty-nine per centum, while the increase of population was only twenty-one per centum for the same period.

These statistics further show that in 1791 the annual national expenses, compared with the population, were little more than one dollar per capita, and in 1860 but two dollars per capita, while in 1869 they will reach the extravagant sum of nine dollars and seventy-eight cents per capita.

It will be observed that all of these statements refer to and exhibit the disbursements of peace periods. It may, therefore, be of interest to compare the expenditures of the three war periods—the war with Great Britain, the Mexican war, and the war of the rebellion.

In 1814 the annual expenses incident to the war of 1812 reached their highest amount—about \$31,000,000—while our population slightly exceeded eight millions; showing an expenditure of only three dollars and eighty cents per capita. In 1847 the expenditures growing out of the war with Mexico reached \$55,000,000, and the population about twenty-one millions; giving only two dollars and sixty cents per capita for the war expenses of that year. In 1865 the expenditure called for by the rebellion reached the vast amount of \$1,290,000,000, which, compared with a population of thirty-four millions, gives thirty-eight dollars and twenty cents per capita.

From the fourth day of March, 1789, to the thirtieth of June, 1861, the entire expenditures of the Government were seventeen hundred millions of dollars. During that period we were engaged in war with Great Britain and Mexico, and were involved in hostilities with powerful Indian tribes; Louisiana was purchased from France at a cost of fifteen millions of dollars; Florida was ceded to us by Spain for five millions; California was acquired from Mexico for fifteen millions; and the Territory of New Mexico was obtained from Texas for the sum of ten millions. Early in 1861 the war of the rebellion commenced, and from the first of July of that year to the thirtieth of June, 1865, the public expenditures reached the enormous aggregate of thirty-three hundred millions. Three years of peace have intervened, and during that time the disbursements of the Government have successively been five hundred and twenty millions, three hundred and forty-six millions, and three hundred and ninety-three millions. Adding to these amounts three hundred and seventy-two millions, estimated as necessary for the fiscal year ending the thirtieth of June, 1869, we obtain a total expenditure of sixteen hundred millions of dollars during the four years immediately succeeding the war, or nearly as much as was expended during the seventy-two years that preceded the rebellion, and embraced the extraordinary expenditures already named.

These startling facts clearly illustrate the necessity of retrenchment in all branches of the public service. Abuses which were tolerated during the war for the preservation of the nation will not be endured by the people, now that profound peace prevails. The receipts from internal revenues and customs have, during the past three years, gradually diminished, and the continuance of useless and extravagant expenditures will involve us in national bankruptcy, or else make inevitable an increase of taxes, already too onerous, and in many respects obnoxious on account of their inquisitorial character. One hundred millions annually are expended for the military force, a large portion

of which is employed in the execution of laws both unnecessary and unconstitutional; one hundred and fifty millions are required each year to pay the interest on the public debt; an army of tax-gatherers impoverishes the nation; and public agents, placed by Congress beyond the control of the Executive, divert from their legitimate purposes large sums of money which they collect from the people in the name of the Government. Judicious legislation and prudent economy can alone remedy defects and avert evils which, if suffered to exist, cannot fail to diminish confidence in the public councils, and weaken the attachment and respect of the people toward their political institutions. Without proper care, the small balance which it is estimated will remain in the Treasury at the close of the present fiscal year will not be realized, and additional millions be added to a debt which is now enumerated by billions.

It is shown by the able and comprehensive report of the Secretary of the Treasury, that the receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, were \$405,638,083, and that the expenditures for the same period were \$377,840,284, leaving in the Treasury a surplus of \$28,297,798. It is estimated that the receipts during the present fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, will be \$341,392,868, and the expenditures \$336,152,470, showing a small balance of \$5,240,398 in favor of the Government. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, it is estimated that the receipts will amount to \$327,000,000, and the expenditures to \$303,000,000, leaving an estimated surplus of \$24,000,000.

It becomes proper in this connection to make a brief reference to our public indebtedness, which has accumulated with such alarming rapidity and assumed such colossal proportions.

In 1789, when the Government commenced operations under the Federal Constitution, it was burdened with an indebtedness of \$75,000,000, created during the war of the Revolution. This amount had been reduced to \$45,000,000, when, in 1812, war was declared against Great Britain. The three years' struggle that followed largely increased the national obligations, and in 1816 they had attained the sum of \$127,000,000. Wise and economical legislation, however, enabled the Government to pay the entire amount within a period of twenty years, and the extinguishment of the national debt filled the land with rejoicing, and was one of the greatest events of President Jackson's administration. After its redemption a large fund remained in the Treasury, which was deposited for safe keeping with the several States, on condition that it should be returned when required by the public wants. In 1849—the year after the termination of an expensive war with Mexico—we found ourselves involved in a debt of \$64,000,000; and this was the amount owed by the Government in 1860, just prior to the outbreak of the rebellion. In the spring of 1861 our civil war commenced. Each year of its continuance made an enormous addition to the debt; and when, in the spring of 1865, the nation successfully emerged from the conflict, the obligations of the Government had reached the immense sum of \$2,873,992,909. The Secretary of the Treasury shows that on the 1st day of November, 1867, this amount had been reduced to \$2,491,504,450; but at the same time his report exhibits an increase during the past year of \$25,625,102; for the debt on the 1st of November last is stated to have been \$2,527,129,552. It is estimated by the Secretary that the returns for the past month will add to our liabilities the further sum of \$11,000,000—making a total increase, during thirteen months, of \$46,500,000.

In my message to Congress of December 4, 1865, it was suggested that a policy should be devised which, without being oppressive to the people, would at once begin to effect a reduction of the debt, and, if persisted in, discharge it fully within a definite number of years. The Secretary of the Treasury forcibly recommends legislation of this character, and justly

urges that the longer it is deferred the more difficult must become its accomplishment. We should follow the wise precedents established in 1789 and 1816, and, without further delay, make provision for the payment of our obligations, at as early a period as may be practicable. The fruits of their labors should be enjoyed by our citizens, rather than used to build up and sustain moneyed monopolies in our own and other lands. Our foreign debt is already computed by the Secretary of the Treasury at \$850,000,000; citizens of foreign countries receive interest upon a large portion of our securities, and American tax-payers are made to contribute large sums for their support. The idea that such a debt shall become permanent should be at all times discarded, as involving taxation too heavy to be borne, and payment once in every sixteen years, at the present rate of interest, of an amount equal to the original sum. This vast debt, if permitted to become permanent and increasing, must eventually be gathered into the hands of a few, and enable them to exert a dangerous and controlling power in the affairs of the Government. The borrowers would become servants to the lenders—the lenders the masters of the people. We now pride ourselves upon having given freedom to 4,000,000 of the colored race; it will then be our shame that 40,000,000 of people, by their own toleration of usurpation and profligacy, have suffered themselves to become enslaved, and merely exchanged slave-owners for new task-masters in the shape of bondholders and tax-gatherers. Besides, permanent debts pertain to monarchical governments, and, tending to monopolies, perpetuities, and class legislation, are totally irreconcilable with free institutions. Introduced into our republican system, they would gradually but surely sap its foundations, eventually subvert our governmental fabric, and erect upon its ruins a moneyed aristocracy. It is our sacred duty to transmit unimpaired to our posterity the blessings of liberty which were bequeathed to us by the founders of the Republic, and by our example teach those who are to follow us, carefully to avoid the dangers which threaten a free and independent people.

Various plans have been proposed for the payment of the public debt. However they may have varied as to the time and mode in which it should be redeemed, there seems to be a general concurrence as to the propriety and justness of a reduction in the present rate of interest. The Secretary of the Treasury in his report recommends five per cent.; Congress, in a bill passed prior to adjournment, on the 27th of July last, agreed upon four and four and a half per cent.; while by many three per cent. has been held to be an amply sufficient return for the investment. The general impression as to the exorbitancy of the existing rate of interest has led to an inquiry in the public mind respecting the consideration which the Government has actually received for its bonds, and the conclusion is becoming prevalent that the amount which is obtained was in real money three or four hundred per cent. less than the obligations which it issued in return. It cannot be denied that we are paying an extravagant percentage for the use of the money borrowed, which was paper currency, greatly depreciated below the value of coin. This fact is made apparent when we consider that bondholders receive from the Treasury, upon each dollar they own in Government securities, six per cent. in gold, which is nearly or quite equal to nine per cent. in currency; that the bonds are then converted into capital for the national banks, upon which these institutions issue their circulation, bearing six per cent. interest; and that they are exempt from taxation by the Government and the States, and thereby enhanced two per cent. in the hands of the holders. We thus have an aggregate of seventeen per cent. which may be received upon each dollar by the owners of Government securities. A system that produces such results is justly regarded as favoring a few at the expense of the many, and has led to the fur-

ther inquiry whether our bondholders, in view of the large profits which they have enjoyed, would themselves be averse to a settlement of our indebtedness upon a plan which would yield them a fair remuneration, and at the same time be just to the tax-payers of the nation. Our national credit should be sacredly observed; but in making provision for our creditors we should not forget what is due to the masses of the people. It may be assumed that the holders of our securities have already received upon their bonds a larger amount than their original investment, measured by a gold standard. Upon this statement of facts it would seem but just and equitable that the six per cent. interest now paid by the Government should be applied to the reduction of the principal in semi-annual instalments, which, in sixteen years and eight months, would liquidate the entire national debt. Six per cent. in gold would, at present rates, be equal to nine per cent. in currency, and equivalent to the payment of the debt one and a half times in a fraction less than seventeen years. This, in connection with all the other advantages derived from their investment, would afford to the public creditors a fair and liberal compensation for the use of their capital; and with this they should be satisfied. The lessons of the past admonish the lender that it is not well to be over-anxious in exacting from the borrower rigid compliance with the letter of the bond.

If provision be made for the payment of the indebtedness of the Government in the manner suggested, our nation will rapidly recover its wonted prosperity. Its interests require that some measure should be taken to release the large amount of capital invested in the securities of the Government. It is not now merely unproductive, but in taxation annually consumes one hundred and fifty millions of dollars, which would otherwise be used by our enterprising people in adding to the wealth of the nation. Our commerce, which at one time successfully rivalled that of the great maritime powers, has rapidly diminished, and our industrial interests are in a depressed and languishing condition. The development of our inexhaustible resources is checked, and the fertile fields of the South are becoming waste for want of means to till them. With the release of capital new life would be infused into the paralyzed energies of our people, and activity and vigor imparted to every branch of industry. Our people need encouragement in their efforts to recover from the effects of the rebellion and of injudicious legislation; and it should be the aim of the Government to stimulate them by the prospect of an early release from the burdens which impede their prosperity. If we cannot take the burdens from their shoulders, we should, at least, manifest a willingness to help to bear them.

In referring to the condition of the circulating medium, I shall merely reiterate, substantially, that portion of my last annual message which relates to that subject.

The proportion which the currency of any country should bear to the whole value of the annual produce circulated by its means is a question upon which political economists have not agreed. Nor can it be controlled by legislation, but must be left to the irrevocable laws which everywhere regulate commerce and trade. The circulating medium will ever irresistibly flow to those points where it is in greatest demand. The law of demand and supply is as unerring as that which regulates the tides of the ocean; and, indeed, currency, like the tides, has its ebbs and flows throughout the commercial world.

At the beginning of the rebellion the bank-note circulation of the country amounted to not much more than two hundred millions of dollars; now the circulation of national-bank notes, and those known as "legal tenders," is nearly seven hundred millions. While it is urged by some that this amount should be increased, others contend that a decided reduction is absolutely essential to the best interests of the country. In view of these diverse opinions, it may be

well to ascertain the real value of our paper issues, when compared with a metallic or convertible currency. For this purpose, let us inquire how much gold and silver could be purchased by the seven hundred millions of paper money now in circulation? Probably not more than half the amount of the latter—showing that when our paper currency is compared with gold and silver, its commercial value is compressed into three hundred and fifty millions. This striking fact makes it the obvious duty of the Government, as early as may be consistent with the principles of sound political economy, to take such measures as will enable the holder of its notes and those of the national banks to convert them, without loss, into specie or its equivalent. A reduction of our paper circulating medium need not necessarily follow. This, however, would depend upon the law of demand and supply, though it should be borne in mind that by making legal-tender and bank-notes convertible into coin or its equivalent, their present specie value in the hands of their holders would be enhanced one hundred per cent.

Legislation for the accomplishment of a result so desirable is demanded by the highest public considerations. The Constitution contemplates that the circulating medium of the country shall be uniform in quality and value. At the time of the formation of that instrument, the country had just emerged from the war of the Revolution, and was suffering from the effects of a redundant and worthless paper currency. The sages of that period were anxious to protect their posterity from the evils which they themselves had experienced. Hence, in providing a circulating medium, they conferred upon Congress the power to coin money and regulate the value thereof, at the same time prohibiting the States from making any thing but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts.

The anomalous condition of our currency is in striking contrast with that which was originally designed. Our circulation now embraces, first, notes of the national banks, which are made receivable for all dues to the Government, excluding imposts, and by all its creditors, excepting in payment of interest upon its bonds and the securities themselves; second, legal-tender notes, issued by the United States, and which the law requires shall be received as well in payment of all debts between citizens as of all Government dues, excepting imposts; and, third, gold and silver coin. By the operation of our present system of finance, however, the metallic currency, when collected, is reserved only for one class of Government creditors, who, holding its bonds, semi-annually receive their interest in coin from the national Treasury. There is no reason, which will be accepted as satisfactory by the people, why those who defend us on the land and protect us on the sea; the pensioner upon the gratitude of the nation, bearing the scars and wounds received while in its service; the public servants in the various departments of the Government; the farmer who supplies the soldiers of the army and the sailors of the navy; the artisan who toils in the nation's workshops, or the mechanics and laborers who build its edifices and construct its forts and vessels-of-war—should, in payment of their just and hard-earned dues, receive depreciated paper, while another class of their countrymen, no more deserving, are paid in coin of gold and silver. Equal and exact justice requires that all the creditors of the Government should be paid in a currency possessing a uniform value. This can only be accomplished by the restoration of the currency to the standard established by the Constitution; and by this means we would remove a discrimination which may, if it has not already done so, create a prejudice that may become deep-rooted and wide-spread, and imperil the national credit. The feasibility of making our currency correspond with the constitutional standard may be seen by reference to a few facts derived from our commercial statistics.

The aggregate product of precious metals in the United States from 1849 to 1867 amounted to \$1,174,000,000, while, for the same period, the net exports of specie were \$741,000,000. This shows an excess of product over net exports of \$433,000,000. There are in the Treasury \$103,407,985 in coin; in circulation in the States on the Pacific coast about \$40,000,000, and a few millions in the national and other banks—in all less than \$160,000,000. Taking into consideration the specie in the country prior to 1849, and that produced since 1867, and we have more than \$300,000,000 not accounted for by exportation or by the returns of the Treasury, and, therefore, most probably remaining in the country.

These are important facts, and show how completely the inferior currency will supersede the better, forcing it from circulation among the masses, and causing it to be exported as a mere article of trade, to add to the money capital of foreign lands. They show the necessity of retiring our paper money, that the return of gold and silver to the avenues of trade may be invited, and a demand created which will cause the retention at home of at least so much of the productions of our rich and inexhaustible gold-bearing fields as may be sufficient for purposes of circulation. It is unreasonable to expect a return to a sound currency so long as the Government and banks, by continuing to issue irredeemable notes, fill the channels of circulation with depreciated paper. Notwithstanding a coinage by our mines since 1849 of \$874,000,000, the people are now strangers to the currency which was designed for their use and benefit, and specimens of the precious metals bearing the national device are seldom seen, except when produced to gratify the interest excited by their novelty.

If depreciated paper is to be continued as the permanent currency of the country, and all our coin is to become a mere article of traffic and speculation, to the enhancement in price of all that is indispensable to the comfort of the people, it would be wise economy to abolish our mints, thus saving the nation the care and expense incident to such establishments, and let all our precious metals be exported in bullion. The time has come, however, when the Government and national banks should be required to take the most efficient steps and make all necessary arrangements for a resumption of specie payments. Let specie payments once be earnestly inaugurated by the Government and banks, and the value of the paper circulation would directly approximate a specie standard.

Specie payments having been resumed by the Government and banks, all notes or bills of paper issued by either, of a less denomination than twenty dollars, should by law be excluded from circulation, so that the people may have the benefit and convenience of a gold and silver currency which, in all their business transactions, will be uniform in value at home and abroad.

"Every man of property or industry—every man who desires to preserve what he honestly possesses, or to obtain what he can honestly earn, has a direct interest in maintaining a safe circulating medium—such a medium as shall be real and substantial, not liable to vibrate with opinions, not subject to be blown up or blown down by the breath of speculation, but to be made stable and secure. A disordered currency is one of the greatest political evils. It undermines the virtues necessary for the support of the social system, and encourages propensities destructive of its happiness; it wars against industry, frugality, and economy, and it fosters the evil spirits of extravagance and speculation." It has been asserted by one of our profound and most gifted statesmen, that "of all the contrivances for cheating the laboring classes of mankind, none has been more effectual than that which deludes them with paper money. This is the most effectual of inventions to fertilize the rich man's fields by the sweat of the poor man's brow. Ordinary tyranny, oppression, excessive taxation—these bear lightly on the happiness of the mass of the community

compared with a fraudulent currency, and the robberies committed by depreciated paper. Our own history has recorded for our instruction enough, and more than enough, of the demoralizing tendency, the injustice, and the intolerable oppression on the virtuous and well-disposed, of a degraded paper currency authorized by law, or in any way countenanced by Government." It is one of the most successful devices, in times of peace or war, of expansions or reductions, to accomplish the transfer of all the precious metals from the great mass of the people into the hands of the few, where they are hoarded in secret places or deposited under bolts and bars, while the people are left to endure all the inconvenience, sacrifice, and demoralization resulting from the use of depreciated and worthless paper.

The Secretary of the Interior, in his report, gives valuable information in reference to the interests confided to the supervision of his department, and reviews the operations of the Land-Office, Pension Office, Patent-Office, and the Indian Bureau.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, 6,655,700 acres of public land were disposed of. The entire cash receipts of the General Land-Office for the same period were \$1,632,745, being greater by \$284,893 than the amount realized from the same sources during the previous year. The entries under the homestead law cover 2,328,973 acres, nearly one-fourth of which was taken under the act of June 21, 1866, which applies only to the States of Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Florida.

On the 30th of June, 1868, 169,643 names were borne on the pension-rolls, and during the year ending on that day the total amount paid for pensions, including the expenses of disbursement, was \$24,010,982, being \$5,391,025 greater than that expended for like purposes during the preceding year.

During the year ending the 30th of September last, the expenses of the Patent-Office exceeded the receipts by \$171; and, including reissues and designs, 14,153 patents were issued.

Treaties with various Indian tribes have been concluded, and will be submitted to the Senate for its constitutional action. I cordially sanction the stipulations which provide for reserving lands for the various tribes, where they may be encouraged to abandon their nomadic habits, and engage in agricultural and industrial pursuits. This policy, inaugurated many years since, has met with signal success whenever it has been pursued in good faith and with becoming liberality by the United States. The necessity for extending it as far as practicable in our relations with the aboriginal population is greater now than at any preceding period. Whilst we furnish subsistence and instruction to the Indians, and guarantee the undisturbed enjoyment of their treaty rights, we should habitually insist upon the faithful observance of their agreement to remain within their respective reservations. This is the only mode by which collisions with other tribes and with the whites can be avoided, and the safety of our frontier settlements secured.

The companies constructing the railway from Omaha to Sacramento have been most energetically engaged in prosecuting the work, and it is believed that the line will be completed before the expiration of the next fiscal year. The six per cent. bonds issued to these companies amounted, on the 5th instant, to \$44,337,000, and additional work had been performed to the extent of \$3,200,000.

The Secretary of the Interior in August last invited my attention to the report of a Government director of the Union Pacific Railroad Company, who had been specially instructed to examine the location, construction, and equipment of their road. I submitted for the opinion of the Attorney-General certain questions in regard to the authority of the Executive which arose upon this report, and those which had from time to time been presented by the commissioners appointed to inspect each successive section

of the work. After carefully considering the law of the case, he affirmed the right of the Executive to order, if necessary, a thorough revision of the entire road. Commissioners were thereupon appointed to examine this and other lines, and have recently submitted a statement of their investigations, of which the report of the Secretary of the Interior furnishes specific information.

The report of the Secretary of War contains information of interest and importance respecting the several bureaus of the War Department and the operations of the army. The strength of our military force on the 30th of September last, was 43,000 men, and it is computed that, by the first of January next, this number will be decreased to 43,000. It is the opinion of the Secretary of War that within the next year a considerable diminution of the infantry force may be made without detriment to the interests of the country; and in view of the great expense attending the military peace establishment, and the absolute necessity of retrenchment wherever it can be applied, it is hoped that Congress will sanction the reduction which his report recommends. While in 1860, 16,300 men cost the nation \$16,472,000, the sum of \$65,682,000 is estimated as necessary for the support of the army during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870. The estimates of the War Department for the last two fiscal years were, for 1867, \$33,814,461, and for 1868, \$25,205,669. The actual expenditures during the same periods were, respectively, \$95,224,415 and \$123,246,648. The estimate submitted in December last for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, was \$77,124,707; the expenditures for the first quarter ending the 30th of September last, were \$27,219,117, and the Secretary of the Treasury gives \$66,000,000 as the amount which will probably be required during the remaining three-quarters, if there should be no reduction of the army—making its aggregate cost for the year considerably in excess of \$93,000,000. The difference between the estimates and expenditures for the three fiscal years which have been named is thus shown to be \$175,545,343 for this single branch of the public service.

The report of the Secretary of the Navy exhibits the operations of that department and of the navy during the year. A considerable reduction of the force has been effected. There are 42 vessels, carrying 411 guns, in the six squadrons which are established in different parts of the world. Three of these vessels are returning to the United States, and four are used as storeships, leaving the actual cruising force 35 vessels, carrying 356 guns. The total number of vessels in the navy is 206, mounting 1,743 guns. Eighty-one vessels of every description are in use, armed with 696 guns. The number of enlisted men in the service, including apprentices, has been reduced to 8,500. An increase of navy-yard facilities is recommended as a measure which will, in the event of war, be promotive of economy and security. A more thorough and systematic survey of the North Pacific Ocean is advised, in view of our recent acquisitions, our expanding commerce, and the increasing intercourse between the Pacific States and Asia. The naval pension fund, which consists of a moiety of the avails of prizes captured during the war, amounts to \$14,000,000. Exception is taken to the act of 23d July last, which reduces the interest on the fund loaned to the Government by the Secretary, as trustee, to three per cent., instead of six per cent., which was originally stipulated when the investment was made. An amendment of the pension laws is suggested to remedy omissions and defects in existing enactments. The expenditures of the department during the last fiscal year were \$20,120,394, and the estimates for the coming year amount to \$20,993,414.

The Postmaster-General's report furnishes a full and clear exhibit of the operations and condition of the postal service. The ordinary postal revenue for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1868, was \$16,292,606, and the total expenditures, embracing all the service

for which special appropriations have been made by Congress, amounted to \$22,730,592, showing an excess of expenditures of \$6,437,991. Deducting from the expenditures the sum of \$1,896,525, the amount of appropriations for ocean steamship and other special service, the excess of expenditures was 4,541,466. By using an unexpended balance in the Treasury of \$3,800,000, the actual sum for which a special appropriation is required to meet the deficiency is \$741,466. The causes which produced this large excess of expenditure over revenue were the restoration of service in the late insurgent States, and the putting into operation of new service established by acts of Congress, which amounted within the last two years and a half to about 43,700 miles—equal to more than one-third of the whole amount of the service at the close of the war. New postal conventions with Great Britain, North Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Italy, respectively, have been carried into effect. Under their provisions important improvements have resulted in reduced rates of international postage, and enlarged mail facilities with European countries. The cost of the United States transatlantic ocean mail service since January 1, 1863, has been largely lessened under the operation of these new conventions, a reduction of over one-half having been effected under the new arrangements for ocean mail steamship service which went into effect on that date. The attention of Congress is invited to the practical suggestions and recommendations made in his report by the Postmaster-General.

No important question has occurred during the last year in our accustomed cordial and friendly intercourse with Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, France, Austria, Belgium, Switzerland, Portugal, the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Rome, Greece, Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Liberia, Morocco, Tripoli, Tunis, Muscat, Siam, Borneo, and Madagascar.

Cordial relations have also been maintained with the Argentine and the Oriental Republics. The expressed wish of Congress, that our national good offices might be tendered to those republics, and also to Brazil and Paraguay, for bringing to an end the calamitous war which has so long been raging in the valley of the La Plata, has been assiduously complied with, and kindly acknowledged by all the belligerents. That important negotiation, however, has thus far been without result.

Charles A. Washburn, late United States minister to Paraguay, having resigned, and being desirous to return to the United States, the rear-admiral commanding the South Atlantic squadron was early directed to send a ship-of-war to Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay, to receive Mr. Washburn and his family, and remove them from a situation which was represented to be endangered by faction and foreign war. The Brazilian commander of the allied invading forces refused permission to the Wasp to pass through the blockading forces, and that vessel returned to its accustomed anchorage. Remonstrance having been made against this refusal, it was promptly overruled, and the Wasp therefore resumed her errand, received Mr. Washburn and his family, and conveyed them to a safe and convenient seaport. In the mean time an excited controversy had arisen between the President of Paraguay and the late United States minister, which, it is understood, grew out of his proceedings in giving asylum in the United States legation to alleged enemies of that republic. The question of the right to give asylum is one always difficult, and often productive of great embarrassment. In States well organized and established, foreign powers refuse either to concede or exercise that right, except as to persons actually belonging to the diplomatic service. On the other hand, all such powers insist upon exercising the right of asylum in States where the law of nations is not fully acknowledged, respected, and obeyed.

The President of Paraguay is understood to have

opposed to Mr. Washburn's proceedings the injurious and very improbable charge of personal complicity in insurrection and treason. The correspondence, however, has not yet reached the United States.

Mr. Washburn, in connection with this controversy, represents that two United States citizens attached to the legation were arbitrarily seized at his side, when leaving the capital of Paraguay, committed to prison, and there subjected to torture for the purpose of procuring confessions of their own criminality, and testimony to support the President's allegations against the United States minister. Mr. McMahon, the newly-appointed minister to Paraguay, having reached the La Plata, has been instructed to proceed without delay to Asuncion, there to investigate the whole subject. The rear admiral commanding the United States South Atlantic squadron has been directed to attend the new minister with a proper naval force to sustain such just demands as the occasion may require, and to vindicate the rights of the United States citizens referred to, and of any others who may be exposed to danger in the theatre of war. With these exceptions, friendly relations have been maintained between the United States and Brazil and Paraguay.

Our relations during the past year with Bolivia, Ecuador, Peru, and Chili, have become especially friendly and cordial. Spain and the Republics of Peru, Bolivia, and Ecuador, have expressed their willingness to accept the mediation of the United States for terminating the war upon the South Pacific coast. Chili has not finally declared upon the question. In the mean time the conflict has practically exhausted itself, since no belligerent or hostile movement has been made by either party during the last two years, and there are no indications of a present purpose to resume hostilities on either side. Great Britain and France have cordially seconded our proposition of mediation, and I do not forego the hope that it may soon be accepted by all the belligerents, and lead to a secure establishment of peace and friendly relations between the Spanish-American Republics of the Pacific and Spain—a result which would be attended with common benefits to the belligerents, and much advantage to all commercial nations. I communicate, for the consideration of Congress, a correspondence which shows that the Bolivian Republic has established the extremely liberal principle of receiving into its citizenship any citizen of the United States, or of any other of the American Republics, upon the simple condition of voluntary registry.

The correspondence herewith submitted will be found painfully replete with accounts of the ruin and wretchedness produced by recent earthquakes, of unparalleled severity, in the Republics of Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia. The diplomatic agents and naval officers of the United States who were present in those countries at the time of those disasters furnished all the relief in their power to the sufferers, and were promptly rewarded with grateful and touching acknowledgments by the Congress of Peru. An appeal to the charity of our fellow-citizens has been answered by much liberality. In this connection I submit an appeal which has been made by the Swiss Republic, whose government and institutions are kindred to our own, in behalf of its inhabitants, who are suffering extreme destitution, produced by recent devastating inundations.

Our relations with Mexico during the year have been marked by an increasing growth of mutual confidence. The Mexican Government has not yet acted upon the three treaties celebrated here last summer, for establishing the rights of naturalized citizens upon a liberal and just basis, for regulating consular powers, and for the adjustment of mutual claims.

All commercial nations, as well as all friends of republican institutions, have occasion to regret the frequent local disturbances which occur in some of the constituent States of Colombia. Nothing has occurred, however, to affect the harmony and cordial friendship which have for several years existed be-

tween that youthful and vigorous republic and our own.

Negotiations are pending with a view to the survey and construction of a ship-canal across the Isthmus of Darien, under the auspices of the United States. I hope to be able to submit the results of that negotiation to the Senate during its present session.

The very liberal treaty which was entered into last year by the United States and Nicaragua has been ratified by the latter republic.

Costa Rica, with the earnestness of a sincerely friendly neighbor, solicits a reciprocity of trade, which I commend to the consideration of Congress.

The convention created by treaty between the United States and Venezuela, in July, 1865, for the mutual adjustment of claims, has been held, and its decisions have been received at the Department of State. The heretofore recognized Government of the United States of Venezuela has been subverted. A provisional government having been instituted under circumstances which promise durability, it has been formally recognized.

I have been reluctantly obliged to ask explanation and satisfaction for national injuries committed by the President of Hayti. The political and social condition of the Republics of Hayti and St. Domingo is very unsatisfactory and painful. The abolition of slavery, which has been carried into effect throughout the island of St. Domingo and the entire West Indies, except the Spanish islands of Cuba and Porto Rico, has been followed by a profound popular conviction of the rightfulness of republican institutions, and an intense desire to secure them. The attempt, however, to establish republics there encounters many obstacles, most of which may be supposed to result from long-indulged habits of colonial supineness and dependence upon European monarchical powers. While the United States have, on all occasions, professed a decided unwillingness that any part of this continent or of its adjacent islands shall be made a theatre for a new establishment of monarchical power, too little has been done by us, on the other hand, to attach the communities by which we are surrounded to our own country, or to lend even a moral support to the efforts they are so resolutely and so constantly making to secure republican institutions for themselves. It is indeed a question of grave consideration whether our recent and present example is not calculated to check the growth and expansion of free principles, and make those communities distrust, if not dread, a government which at will consigns to military domination States that are integral parts of our Federal Union, and, while ready to resist any attempts by other nations to extend to this hemisphere the monarchical institutions of Europe, assumes to establish over a large portion of its people a rule more absolute, harsh, and tyrannical than any known to civilized powers.

The acquisition of Alaska was made with a view of extending national jurisdiction and republican principles in the American hemisphere. Believing that a further step could be taken in the same direction, I last year entered into a treaty with the King of Denmark for the purchase of the islands of St. Thomas and St. John, on the best terms then attainable, and with the express consent of the people of those islands. This treaty still remains under consideration in the Senate. A new convention has been entered into with Denmark, enlarging the time fixed for final ratification of the original treaty.

Comprehensive national policy would seem to sanction the acquisition and incorporation into our Federal Union of the several adjacent continental and insular communities as speedily as it can be done peacefully, lawfully, and without any violation of national justice, faith, or honor. Foreign possession or control of those communities has hitherto hindered the growth and impaired the influence of the United States. Chronic revolution and anarchy there would be equally injurious. Each one of them, when firmly

established as an independent republic, or when incorporated into the United States, would be a new source of strength and power. Conforming my administration to these principles, I have on no occasion lent support or toleration to unlawful expeditions set on foot upon the plea of republican propagandism, or of national extension or aggrandizement. The necessity, however, of repressing such unlawful movements clearly indicates the duty which rests upon us of adapting our legislative action to the new circumstances of a decline of European monarchical power and influence, and the increase of American republican ideas, interests, and sympathies.

It cannot be long before it will become necessary for this Government to lend some effective aid to the solution of the political and social problems which are continually kept before the world by the two republics of the island of St. Domingo, and which are now disclosing themselves more distinctly than heretofore in the island of Cuba. The subject is commended to your consideration with all the more earnestness because I am satisfied that the time has arrived when even so direct a proceeding as a proposition for an annexation of the two republics of the island of St. Domingo would not only receive the consent of the people interested, but would also give satisfaction to all other foreign nations.

I am aware that upon the question of further extending our possessions it is apprehended by some that our political system cannot successfully be applied to an area more extended than our continent; but the conviction is rapidly gaining ground in the American mind, that with the increased facilities for intercommunication between all portions of the earth, the principles of free government, as embraced in our Constitution, if faithfully maintained and carried out, would prove of sufficient strength and breadth to comprehend within their sphere and influence the civilized nations of the world.

The attention of the Senate and of Congress is again respectfully invited to the treaty of the establishment of commercial reciprocity with the Hawaiian Kingdom, entered into last year, and already ratified by that government. The attitude of the United States toward these islands is not very different from that in which they stand toward the West Indies. It is known and felt by the Hawaiian Government and people that their government and institutions are feeble and precarious; that the United States, being so near a neighbor, would be unwilling to see the islands pass under foreign control. Their prosperity is continually disturbed by expectations and alarms of unfriendly political proceedings, as well from the United States as from other foreign powers. A reciprocity treaty, while it could not materially diminish the revenues of the United States, would be a guarantee of the good-will and forbearance of all nations until the people of the islands shall of themselves, at no distant day, voluntarily apply for admission into the Union.

The Emperor of Russia has acceded to the treaty negotiated here in January last, for the security of trade-marks in the interest of manufacturers and commerce. I have invited his attention to the importance of establishing, now while it seems easy and practicable, a fair and equal regulation of the vast fisheries belonging to the two nations in the waters of the North Pacific Ocean.

The two treaties between the United States and Italy for the regulation of consular powers and the extradition of criminals, negotiated and ratified here during the last session of Congress, have been accepted and confirmed by the Italian Government. A liberal consular convention which has been negotiated with Belgium will be submitted to the Senate. The very important treaties which were negotiated between the United States and North Germany and Bavaria, for the regulation of the rights of naturalized citizens, have been duly ratified and exchanged, and similar treaties have been entered into with the

Kingdoms of Belgium and Wurtemberg, and with the Grand Duchies of Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt. I hope soon to be able to submit equally satisfactory conventions of the same character now in the course of negotiation with the respective Governments of Spain, Italy, and the Ottoman Empire.

Examination of claims against the United States by the Hudson's Bay Company and the Puget's Sound Agricultural Company, on account of certain possessory rights in the State of Oregon and Territory of Washington, alleged by those companies in virtue of provisions of the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, of June 15, 1846, has been diligently prosecuted, under the direction of the joint international commission to which they were submitted for adjudication by treaty between the two governments, of July 1, 1863, and will, it is expected, be concluded at an early day.

No practical regulation concerning colonial trade and the fisheries can be accomplished by treaty between the United States and Great Britain until Congress shall have expressed their judgment concerning the principles involved. Three other questions, however, between the United States and Great Britain remain open for adjustment. These are, the mutual rights of naturalized citizens, the boundary question—involving the title to the island of San Juan, on the Pacific coast—and mutual claims arising since the year 1853, of the citizens and subjects of the two countries for injuries and depredations committed under the authority of their respective governments. Negotiations upon these subjects are pending, and I am not without hope of being able to lay before the Senate, for its consideration during the present session, protocols calculated to bring to an end these justly exciting and long-existing controversies.

We are not advised of the action of the Chinese Government upon the liberal and auspicious treaty which was recently celebrated with its plenipotentiaries at this capital.

Japan remains a theatre of civil war, marked by religious incidents and political severities peculiar to that long-isolated empire. The Executive has hitherto maintained strict neutrality among the belligerents, and acknowledges with pleasure that it has been frankly and fully sustained in that course by the enlightened concurrence and cooperation of the other treaty powers, namely: Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, North Germany, and Italy.

Spain having recently undergone a revolution marked by extraordinary unanimity and preservation of order, the provisional government established at Madrid has been recognized, and the friendly intercourse which has so long happily existed between the two countries remains unchanged.

I renew the recommendation contained in my communication to Congress, dated the 18th of July last—a copy of which accompanies this message—that the judgment of the people should be taken on the propriety of so amending the Federal Constitution that it shall provide—

1. For an election of President and Vice-President by a direct vote of the people, instead of through the agency of electors, and making them ineligible for reelection to a second term.
2. For a distinct designation of the person who shall discharge the duties of President, in the event of a vacancy in that office by death, resignation, or removal of both the President and Vice-President.
3. For the election of Senators of the United States directly by the people of the several States, instead of by the Legislatures; and—
4. For the limitation to a period of years of the terms of Federal judges.

Profoundly impressed with the propriety of making these important modifications in the Constitution, I respectfully submit them for the early and mature consideration of Congress. We should, as far as possible, remove all pretext for violations of the organic law, by remedying such imperfections as time and

experience may develop, ever remembering that "the Constitution which at any time exists, until changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all."

In the performance of a duty imposed upon me by the Constitution, I have thus communicated to Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommended for their consideration such measures as have seemed to me necessary and expedient. If carried into effect, they will hasten the accomplishment of the great and beneficent purposes for which the Constitution was ordained, and which it comprehensively states were, "to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity." In Congress are vested all legislative powers, and upon them devolves the responsibility, as well for framing unwise and excessive laws, as for neglecting to devise and adopt measures absolutely demanded by the wants of the country. Let us earnestly hope that before the expiration of our respective terms of service, now rapidly drawing to a close, an all-wise Providence will so guide our counsels as to strengthen and preserve the Federal Union, inspire reverence for the Constitution, restore prosperity and happiness to our whole people, and promote "on earth peace, good-will toward men."

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, December 9, 1868.

Correspondence between President JOHNSON and General U. S. GRANT, relative to the office of Secretary of War, etc.:

WAR DEPARTMENT, }
WASHINGTON CITY, February 4, 1868. }

SIR: In answer to the resolution of the House of Representatives of the 3d instant, I transmit herewith copies furnished me by General Grant of correspondence between him and the President relating to the Secretary of War, and which he reports to be all the correspondence he has had with the President on the subject.

I have had no correspondence with the President since the 12th of August last. After the action of the Senate on his alleged reason for my suspension from the office of Secretary of War, I resumed the duties of that office as required by the act of Congress, and have continued to discharge them without any personal or written communication with the President. No orders have been issued from this Department in the name of the President with my knowledge, and I have received no orders from him.

The correspondence sent herewith embraces all the correspondence known to me on the subject referred to in the resolution of the House of Representatives.

I have the honor to be, sir, with great respect, your obedient servant.

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.
HON. SCHUYLER COLFAX,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, January 24, 1868. }

SIR: I have the honor very respectfully to request to have in writing the order which the President gave me verbally on Sunday, the 19th instant, to disregard the orders of Hon. E. M. Stanton as Secretary of War until I knew from the President himself that they were his orders.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT, General.
His Excellency A. JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

As requested in this communication, General Grant is instructed in writing not to obey any order from the War Department assumed to be issued by the

direction of the President unless such order is known by the General commanding the Armies of the United States to have been authorized by the Executive.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

January 29, 1868.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., January 23, 1868. }

SIR: On the 24th instant I requested you to give me in writing the instructions which you had previously given me verbally, not to obey any order from Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War, unless I knew that it came from yourself. To this written request I received a message that has left doubt in my mind of your intentions. To prevent any possible misunderstanding, therefore, I renew the request that you will give me written instructions, and till they are received will suspend action on your verbal ones.

I am compelled to ask these instructions in writing in consequence of the many and gross misrepresentations, affecting my personal honor, circulated through the press for the last fortnight, purporting to come from the President, of conversations which occurred either with the President privately in his office or in Cabinet meeting. What is written admits of no misunderstanding.

In view of the misrepresentations referred to, it will be well to state the facts in the case.

Some time after I assumed the duties of Secretary of War *ad interim* the President asked me my views as to the course Mr. Stanton would have to pursue, in case the Senate should not concur in his suspension, to obtain possession of his office. My reply was, in substance, that Mr. Stanton would have to appeal to the courts to reinstate him, illustrating my position by citing the ground I had taken in the case of the Baltimore police commissioners.

In that case I did not doubt the technical right of Governor Swann to remove the old commissioners and to appoint their successors. As the old commissioners refused to give up, however, I contended that no resource was left but to appeal to the courts.

Finding that the President was desirous of keeping Mr. Stanton out of office, whether sustained in the suspension or not, I stated that I had not looked particularly into the "Tenure-of-Office Bill," but that what I had stated was a general principle, and if I should change my mind in this particular case I would inform him of the fact.

Subsequently, on reading the "Tenure-of-Office Bill," closely, I found that I could not, without violation of the law, refuse to vacate the office of Secretary of War the moment Mr. Stanton was reinstated by the Senate, even though the President should order me to retain it, which he never did.

Taking this view of the subject, and learning on Saturday, the 11th instant, that the Senate had taken up the subject of Mr. Stanton's suspension, after some conversation with Lieutenant-General Sherman and some members of my staff, in which I stated that the law left me no discretion as to my action should Mr. Stanton be reinstated, and that I intended to inform the President, I went to the President for the sole purpose of making this decision known, and did so make it known. In doing this I fulfilled the promise made in our last preceding conversation on the subject.

The President, however, instead of accepting my view of the requirements of the "Tenure-of-Office Bill," contended that he had suspended Mr. Stanton under the authority given by the Constitution, and that the same authority did not preclude him from reporting, as an act of courtesy, his reasons for the suspension to the Senate; that, having appointed me under the authority given by the Constitution, and not under any act of Congress, I could not be governed by the act. I stated that the law was binding on me, constitutional or not, until set aside by the proper tribunal.

An hour or more was consumed, each reiterating

his views on this subject, until, getting late, the President said he would see me again.

I did not agree to call again on Monday nor at any other definite time, nor was I sent for by the President until the following Tuesday.

From the 11th to the Cabinet meeting on the 14th instant, a doubt never entered my mind about the President's fully understanding my position, namely, that, if the Senate refused to concur in the suspension of Mr. Stanton, my powers as Secretary of War *ad interim* would cease, and Mr. Stanton's right to resume at once the functions of his office would under the law be indisputable; and I acted accordingly. With Mr. Stanton I had no communication, direct or indirect, on the subject of his reinstatement, during his suspension. I knew it had been recommended to the President to send in the name of Governor Cox, of Ohio, for Secretary of War, and thus save all embarrassment—a proposition that I sincerely hoped he would entertain favorably—General Sherman seeing the President, at my particular request, to urge this, on the 13th instant.

On Tuesday (the day Mr. Stanton reentered the office of the Secretary of War) General Comstock, who had carried my official letter announcing that with Mr. Stanton's reinstatement by the Senate I had ceased to be Secretary of War *ad interim*, and who saw the President open and read the communication, brought back to me from the President a message that he wanted to see me that day at the Cabinet meeting, after I had made known the fact that I was no longer Secretary of War *ad interim*.

At this meeting, after opening it as though I were a member of the Cabinet, when reminded of the notification already given him that I was no longer Secretary of War *ad interim*, the President gave a version of the conversations alluded to already. In this statement it was asserted that in both conversations I had agreed to hold on to the office of Secretary of War until displaced by the courts, or resign, so as to place the President where he would have been had I never accepted the office. After hearing the President through, I stated our conversations substantially as given in this letter. I will add that my conversation before the Cabinet embraced other matter not pertinent here, and is therefore left out.

I in nowise admitted the correctness of the President's statement of our conversations, though, to soften the evident contradiction my statement gave, I said (alluding to our first conversation on the subject) the President might have understood me the way he said, namely, that I had promised to resign if I did not resist the reinstatement. I made no such promise. I have the honor to be, etc., etc.,

U. S. GRANT, General.

His Excellency A. JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, January 30, 1868. }

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the return of my note of the 24th instant, with your indorsement thereon that I am not to obey any order from the War Department, assumed to be issued by the direction of the President, unless such order is known by me to have been authorized by the Executive; and in reply thereto to say that I am informed by the Secretary of War that he has not received from the Executive any order or instructions limiting or impairing his authority to issue orders to the Army as has heretofore been his practice under the law and the customs of the Department. While this authority to the War Department is not countermanded, it will be satisfactory evidence to me that any orders issued from the War Department by direction of the President are authorized by the Executive.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT, General.
His Excellency A. JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, *January 31, 1868.*

GENERAL: I have received your communication of the 25th instant, renewing your request of the 24th, that I should repeat in a written form my verbal instructions of the 19th instant, namely, that you obey no order from Hon. Edwin M. Stanton, as Secretary of War, unless you have information that it was issued by the President's direction.

In submitting this request (with which I complied on the 29th instant), you take occasion to allude to recent publications in reference to the circumstances connected with the vacation by yourself of the office of Secretary of War *ad interim*, and, with the view of correcting statements which you term "gross misrepresentations," give at length your own recollection of the facts under which, without the sanction of the President, from whom you had received and accepted the appointment, you yielded the Department of War to the present incumbent.

As stated in your communication, some time after you had assumed the duties of Secretary of War *ad interim* we interchanged views respecting the course that should be pursued in the event of non-concurrence by the Senate in the suspension from office of Mr. Stanton. I sought that interview, calling myself at the War Department. My sole object in then bringing the subject to your attention was to ascertain definitely what would be your own action should such an attempt be made for his restoration to the War Department. That object was accomplished; for the interview terminated with the distinct understanding that, if, upon reflection, you should prefer not to become a party to the controversy, or should conclude that it would be your duty to surrender the Department to Mr. Stanton upon action in his favor by the Senate, you were to return the office to me prior to a decision by the Senate, in order that, if I desired to do so, I might designate some one to succeed you. It must have been apparent to you that, had not this understanding been reached, it was my purpose to relieve you from the further discharge of the duties of Secretary of War *ad interim*, and to appoint some other person in that capacity.

Other conversations upon this subject ensued, all of them having, on my part, the same object, and leading to the same conclusion as the first. It is not necessary, however, to refer to any of them, excepting that of Saturday, the 11th instant, mentioned in your communication. As it was then known that the Senate had proceeded to consider the case of Mr. Stanton, I was anxious to learn your determination. After a protracted interview, during which the provisions of the "Tenure-of-Office Bill" were freely discussed, you said that, as had been agreed upon in our first conference, you would either return the office to my possession, in time to enable me to appoint a successor before final action by the Senate upon Mr. Stanton's suspension, or would remain as its head, awaiting a decision of the question by judicial proceedings. It was then understood that there would be a further conference on Monday, by which time, I supposed, you would be prepared to inform me of your final decision. You failed, however, to fulfil the engagement, and on Tuesday notified me, in writing, of the receipt by you of official notification of the action of the Senate in the case of Mr. Stanton, and at the same time informed me that, "according to the act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices, your functions as Secretary of War *ad interim* ceased from the moment of the receipt of the notice." You thus, in disregard of the understanding between us, vacated the office without having given me notice of your intention to do so. It is but just, however, to say that, in your communication, you claim that you did inform me of your purpose, and thus "fulfilled the promise made in our last preceding conversation on this subject." The fact that such a promise existed is evidence of an arrangement of the kind I have mentioned. You had found in our first conference "that the President was desirous of keeping

Mr. Stanton out of office, whether sustained in the suspension or not." You knew what reasons had induced the President to ask from you a promise. You also knew that, in case your views of duty did not accord with his own convictions, it was his purpose to fill your place by another appointment. Even ignoring the existence of a positive understanding between us, these conclusions were plainly deducible from our various conversations. It is certain, however, that, even under these circumstances, you did not offer to return the place to my possession; but, according to your own statement, placed yourself in a position where, could I have anticipated your action, I would have been compelled to ask of you, as I was compelled to ask of you predecessor in the War Department, a letter of resignation, or else to resort to the more disagreeable expedient of suspending you by a successor.

As stated in your letter, the nomination of Governor Cox, of Ohio, for the office of Secretary of War was suggested to me. His appointment, as Mr. Stanton's successor, was urged in your name, and it was said that his selection would save further embarrassment. I did not think that in the selection of a Cabinet officer I should be trammelled by such considerations. I was prepared to take the responsibility of deciding the question in accordance with my ideas of constitutional duty, and, having determined upon a course which I deemed right and proper, was anxious to learn the steps you would take, should the possession of the War Department be demanded by Mr. Stanton. Had your action been in conformity to the understanding between us, I do not believe that the embarrassment would have attained its present proportions, or that the probability of its repetition would have been so great.

I know that, with a view to an early termination of a state of affairs so detrimental to the public interests, you voluntarily offered both on Wednesday, the 15th instant, and on the succeeding Sunday, to call upon Mr. Stanton, and urge upon him that the good of the service required his resignation. I confess that I considered your proposal as a sort of reparation for the failure on your part to act in accordance with an understanding more than once repeated, which I thought had received your full assent, and under which you could have returned to me the office which I had conferred upon you, thus saving yourself from embarrassment, and leaving the responsibility where it properly belonged, with the President, who is accountable for the faithful execution of the laws.

I have not yet been informed by you, whether, as twice proposed by yourself, you have called upon Mr. Stanton, and made an effort to induce him voluntarily to retire from the War Department.

You conclude your communication with a reference to our conversation at the meeting of the Cabinet, held on Tuesday, the 14th instant. In your account of what then occurred, you say that after the President had given his version of our previous conversations, you stated them substantially as given in your letter, that you in no wise admitted the correctness of his statement of them, "though, to soften the evident contradiction my statement gave, I said (alluding to our first conversation on the subject) the President might have understood in the way he said, namely, that I promised to resign if I did not resist the reinstatement. I made no such promise."

My recollection of what then transpired is diametrically the reverse of your narration. In the presence of the Cabinet, I asked you:

First. If, in a conversation which took place shortly after your appointment as Secretary of War *ad interim*, you did not agree either to remain at the head of the War Department, and abide any judicial proceedings that might follow non-concurrence by the Senate in Mr. Stanton's suspension, or, should you wish not to become involved in such a controversy, to put me in the same position with respect to the

office as I occupied previous to your appointment, by returning it to me in time to anticipate such action by the Senate.

This you admitted.

Second. I then asked you if, at our conference on the preceding Saturday, I had not, to avoid misunderstanding, requested you to state what you intended to do; and further, if, in reply to that inquiry, you had not referred to our former conversations, saying that from them I understood your position, and that your action would be consistent with the understanding which had been reached.

To these questions you also replied in the affirmative.

Third. I next asked if, at the conclusion of our interview on Saturday, it was not understood that we were to have another conference on Monday, before final action by the Senate in the case of Mr. Stanton.

You replied that such was the understanding, but that you did not suppose the Senate would act so soon; that on Monday you had been engaged in a conference with General Sherman, and were occupied with "many little matters," and asked if General Sherman had not called on that day. What relevancy General Sherman's visit to me on Monday had with the purpose for which you were then to have called, I am at a loss to perceive, as he certainly did not inform me whether you had determined to retain possession of the office, or to afford me an opportunity to appoint a successor, in advance of any attempted reinstatement of Mr. Stanton.

This account of what passed between us at the Cabinet meeting on the 14th instant widely differs from that contained in your communication, for it shows that, instead of having "stated our conversations as given in the letter" which has made this reply necessary, you admitted that my recital of them was entirely accurate. Sincerely anxious, however, to be correct in my statements, I have to-day made this narration of what occurred on the 14th instant to the members of the Cabinet who were then present. They, without exception, agree in its accuracy.

It is only necessary to add that on Wednesday morning, the 15th, you called on me, in company with Lieutenant-General Sherman. After some preliminary conversation, you remarked that an article in the *National Intelligencer*, of that date, did you much injustice. I replied that I had not read the *Intelligencer* of that morning. You then first told me that it was your intention to urge Mr. Stanton to resign his office.

After you had withdrawn, I carefully read the article of which you had spoken, and found that its statements of the understanding between us were substantially correct. On the 17th, I caused it to be read to four of the five members of the Cabinet who were present at our conference on the 14th, and they concurred in the general accuracy of its statements respecting our conversation upon that occasion.

In reply to your communication, I have deemed it proper, in order to prevent further misunderstanding, to make this simple recital of facts.

Very respectfully, yours,

ANDREW JOHNSON.

General U. S. GRANT, commanding U. S. Armies.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 3, 1868. }

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your communication of the 31st ultimo in answer to mine of the 28th ultimo. After a careful reading and comparison of it with the article in the *National Intelligencer* of the 15th ultimo, and the article over the initials "J. B. S." in the New York *World* of the 27th ultimo, purporting to be based upon your statement and that of the members of your Cabinet therein named, I find it to be but a reiteration—only somewhat more in detail—of the "many and gross mis-

representations" contained in these articles, and which my statement of the facts set forth in my letter of the 28th ultimo was intended to correct; and I here reassert the correctness of my statements in that letter, any thing in yours in reply to it to the contrary notwithstanding.

I confess my surprise that the Cabinet officers referred to should so greatly misapprehend the facts in the matter of admissions alleged to have been made by me at the Cabinet meeting of the 14th ultimo as to suffer their names to be made the basis of the charges in the newspaper article referred to, or agree in the accuracy, as you affirm they do, of your account of what occurred at that meeting.

You know that we parted on Saturday, the 11th ultimo, without any promise on my part, either express or implied, to the effect that I would hold on to the office of Secretary of War *ad interim* against the action of the Senate, or, declining to do so myself, would surrender it to you before such action was had, or that I would see you again at any fixed time on the subject.

The performance of the promises alleged by you to have been made by me would have involved a resistance to law and an inconsistency with the whole history of my connection with the suspension of Mr. Stanton.

From our conversations and my written protest of August 1, 1867, against the removal of Mr. Stanton, you must have known that my greatest objection to his removal or suspension was the fear that some one would be appointed in his stead who would, by opposition to the laws relating to the restoration of the Southern States to their proper relations to the Government, embarrass the Army in the performance of duties especially imposed upon it by these laws; and it was to prevent such an appointment that I accepted the office of Secretary of War *ad interim*, and not for the purpose of enabling you to get rid of Mr. Stanton by my withholding it from him in opposition to law, or, not doing so myself, surrendering it to one who would, as the statements and assumptions in your communication plainly indicate was sought.

And it was to avoid this same danger, as well as to relieve you from the personal embarrassment in which Mr. Stanton's reinstatement would place you, that I urged the appointment of Governor Cox, believing that it would be agreeable to you and also to Mr. Stanton, satisfied as I was that it was the good of the country, and not the office, the latter desired.

On the 15th ultimo, in presence of General Sherman, I stated to you that I thought Mr. Stanton would resign, but did not say that I would advise him to do so. On the 18th I did agree with General Sherman to go and advise him to that course, and on the 19th I had an interview alone with Mr. Stanton, which led me to the conclusion that any advice to him of the kind would be useless, and I so informed General Sherman.

Before I consented to advise Mr. Stanton to resign, I understood from him, in a conversation on the subject immediately after his reinstatement, that it was his opinion that the act of Congress entitled "An act temporarily to supply vacancies in the Executive Departments in certain cases," approved February 20, 1863, was repealed by subsequent legislation, which materially influenced my action. Previous to this time I had had no doubt that the law of 1863 was still in force, and, notwithstanding my action, a fuller examination of the law leaves a question in my mind whether it is or is not repealed; this being the case, I could not now advise his resignation, lest the same danger I apprehended on his first removal might follow.

The course you would have it understood I agreed to pursue was in violation of law and without orders from you, while the course I did pursue, and which I never doubted you fully understood, was in accordance with law, and not in disobedience of any orders of my superior.

And now, Mr. President, where my honor as a soldier and integrity as a man have been so violently assailed, pardon me for saying that I can but regard this whole matter, from the beginning to the end, as an attempt to involve me in the resistance of law for which you hesitated to assume the responsibility in orders, and thus to destroy my character before the country. I am, in a measure, confirmed in this conclusion by your recent orders directing me to disobey orders from the Secretary of War—my superior and your subordinate—without having countermanded his authority to issue the orders I am to disobey.

With assurance, Mr. President, that nothing less than a vindication of my personal honor and character could have induced this correspondence on my part, I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT, General.

His Excellency A. JOHNSON,

President of the United States.

To the House of Representatives :

In compliance with the resolution adopted yesterday by the House of Representatives, requesting any further correspondence the President "may have had with General U. S. Grant, in addition to that heretofore submitted, on the subject of the recent vacation by the latter of the War Office," I transmit herewith a copy of a communication addressed to General Grant on the 10th instant, together with a copy of the accompanying papers.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 11, 1868.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, February 10, 1868.

GENERAL: The extraordinary character of your letter of the 3d instant would seem to preclude any reply on my part, but the manner in which publicity has been given to the correspondence of which that letter forms a part, and the grave questions which are involved, induce me to take this mode of giving, as a proper sequel to the communications which have passed between us, the statements of the five members of the Cabinet who were present on the occasion of our conversation on the 14th ultimo. Copies of the letters which they have addressed to me upon the subject are accordingly herewith enclosed.

You speak of my letter of the 31st ultimo as a reiteration of the "many and gross misrepresentations" contained in certain newspaper articles, and reassert the correctness of the statements contained in your communication of the 28th ultimo, adding—and here I give your own words—"any thing in yours in reply to it to the contrary notwithstanding."

When a controversy upon matters of fact reaches the point to which this has been brought, further assertion or denial between the immediate parties should cease, especially where, upon either side, it loses the character of the respectful discussion which is required by the relations in which the parties stand to each other, and degenerates in tone and temper. In such a case, if there is nothing to rely upon but the opposing statements, conclusions must be drawn from those statements alone, and from whatever intrinsic probabilities they afford in favor of or against either of the parties. I should not shrink from this test in this controversy; but, fortunately, it is not left to this test alone. There were five Cabinet officers present at the conversation, the detail of which, in my letter of the 28th ultimo, you allow yourself to say, contains "many and gross misrepresentations." These gentlemen heard that conversation, and have read my statement. They speak for themselves, and I leave the proof without a word of comment.

I deem it proper, before concluding this communication, to notice some of the statements contained in your letter.

You say that a performance of the promises alleged to have been made by you to the President "would have involved a resistance to law and an inconsistency with the whole history of my connection with

the suspension of Mr. Stanton." You then state that you had fears the President would, on the removal of Mr. Stanton, appoint some one in his place who would embarrass the Army in carrying out the reconstruction acts, and add:

"It was to prevent such appointment that I accepted the office of Secretary of War *ad interim*, and not for the purpose of enabling you to get rid of Mr. Stanton by my withholding it from him in opposition to law, or, not doing so myself, surrendering it to one who would, as the statements and assumptions in your communication plainly indicate was sought."

First of all, you here admit that, from the very beginning of what you term "the whole history" of your connection with Mr. Stanton's suspension, you intended to circumvent the President. It was to carry out that intent that you accepted the appointment. This was in your mind at the time of your acceptance. It was not, then, in obedience to the order of your superior, as has heretofore been supposed, that you assumed the duties of the office. You knew it was the President's purpose to prevent Mr. Stanton from resuming the office of Secretary of War, and you intended to defeat that purpose. You accepted the office, not in the interest of the President, but of Mr. Stanton. If this purpose, so entertained by you, had been confined to yourself; if, when accepting the office, you had done so with a mental reservation to frustrate the President, it would have been a tacit deception. In the ethics of some persons such a course is allowable; but you cannot stand even upon that questionable ground. The "history" of your connection with this transaction, as written by yourself, places you in a different predicament, and shows that you not only concealed your design from the President, but induced him to suppose that you would carry out his purpose to keep Mr. Stanton out of office by retaining it yourself after an attempted restoration by the Senate, so as to require Mr. Stanton to establish his right by judicial decision.

I now give that part of this "history," as written by yourself in your letter of the 28th ultimo:

"Some time after I assumed the duties of Secretary of War *ad interim* the President asked me my views as to the course Mr. Stanton would have to pursue, in case the Senate should not concur in his suspension, to obtain possession of his office. My reply was, in substance, that Mr. Stanton would have to appeal to the courts to reinstate him, illustrating my position by citing the ground I had taken in the case of the Baltimore police commissioners."

Now, at that time, as you admit in your letter of the 3d instant, you held the office for the very object of defeating an appeal to the courts. In that letter you say that in accepting the office one motive was to prevent the President from appointing some other person who would retain possession, and thus make judicial proceedings necessary. You knew the President was unwilling to trust the office with any one who would not, by holding it, compel Mr. Stanton to resort to the courts. You perfectly understood that in this interview, "some time" after you accepted the office, the President, not content with your silence, desired an expression of your views, and you answered him that, Mr. Stanton "would have to appeal to the courts." If the President had reposed confidence before he knew your views, and that confidence had been violated, it might have been said he made a mistake; but a violation of confidence reposed after that conversation was no mistake of his nor of yours. It is the fact only that needs be stated, that at the date of this conversation you did not intend to hold the office with the purpose of forcing Mr. Stanton into court, but did hold it then, and had accepted it to prevent that course from being carried out. In other words, you said to the President, "that is the proper course," and you said to yourself, "I have accepted this office, and now hold it, to defeat that course." The excuse you make in a subsequent par-

agraph of that letter of the 23th ultimo, that afterward you changed your views as to what would be a proper course, has nothing to do with the point now under consideration. The point is, that, before you changed your views, you had secretly determined to do the very thing which at last you did—surrender the office to Mr. Stanton. You may have changed your views as to the law, but you certainly did not change your views as to the course you had marked out for yourself from the beginning.

I will only notice one more statement in your letter of the 3d instant—that the performance of the promises which it is alleged were made by you would have involved you in the resistance of law. I know of no statute that would have been violated had you, carrying out your promises in good faith, tendered your resignation when you concluded not to be made a party in any legal proceedings. You add:

"I am in a measure confirmed in this conclusion by your recent orders directing me to disobey orders from the Secretary of War, my superior and your subordinate, without having countermanded his authority to issue the orders I am to disobey."

On the 24th ultimo you addressed a note to the President, requesting in writing an order given to you verbally five days before, to disregard orders from Mr. Stanton as Secretary of War until you "knew from the President himself that they were his orders."

On the 29th, in compliance with your request, I did give you instructions in writing "not to obey any order from the War Department assumed to be issued by the direction of the President, unless such order is known by the General commanding the armies of the United States to have been authorized by the Executive."

There are some orders which a Secretary of War may issue without the authority of the President; there are others which he issues simply as the agent of the President, and which purport to be "by direction" of the President. For such orders the President is responsible, and he should therefore know and understand what they are before giving such "direction." Mr. Stanton states in his letter of the 4th instant, which accompanies the published correspondence, that he "has had no correspondence with the President since the 12th of August last;" and he further says that since he resumed the duties of the office he has continued to discharge them "without any personal or written communication with the President;" and he adds, "No orders have been issued from this Department in the name of the President with my knowledge, and I have received no orders from him."

It thus seems that Mr. Stanton now discharges the duties of the War Department without any reference to the President, and without using his name.

My order to you had only reference to orders "assumed to be issued by the direction of the President." It would appear from Mr. Stanton's letter that you have received no such orders from him. However, in your note to the President of the 30th ultimo, in which you acknowledge the receipt of the written order of the 29th, you say that you have been informed by Mr. Stanton that he has not received any order limiting his authority to issue orders to the Army, according to the practice of the Department, and state that "while this authority to the War Department is not countermanded it will be satisfactory evidence to me that any orders issued from the War Department by direction of the President are authorized by the Executive."

The President issues an order to you to obey no order from the War Department, purporting to be made "by the direction of the President," until you have referred it to him for his approval. You reply that you have received the President's order, and will not obey it, but will obey an order purporting to be given by his direction, if it comes from the War Department. You will not obey the direct order of

the President, but will obey his indirect order. If, as you say, there has been a practice in the War Department to issue orders in the name of the President without his direction, does not the precise order you have requested and have received change the practice as to the General of the Army? Could not the President countermand any such order issued to you from the War Department? If you should receive an order from that Department, issued in the name of the President, to do a special act, and an order directly from the President himself not to do the act, is there a doubt which you are to obey? You answer the question when you say to the President, in your letter of the 3d instant, the Secretary of War is "my superior and your subordinate," and yet you refuse obedience to the superior out of deference to the subordinate.

Without further comment upon the insubordinate attitude which you have assumed, I am at a loss to know how you can relieve yourself from obedience to the orders of the President, who is made by the Constitution the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy, and is therefore the official superior as well of the General of the Army as of the Secretary of War.

Respectfully yours,

ANDREW JOHNSON.

General U. S. GRANT, commanding Armies of the United States, Washington, D. C.

Copy of letter addressed to each of the members of the Cabinet present at the conversation between the President and General Grant on the 14th of January, 1868.

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 5, 1868. }

SIR: The *Chronicle* of this morning contains a correspondence between the President and General Grant, reported from the War Department, in answer to a resolution of the House of Representatives. I beg to call your attention to that correspondence, and especially to that part of it which refers to the conversation between the President and General Grant, at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the 14th of January, and to request you to state what was said in that conversation.

Very respectfully, yours,

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 5, 1868.

SIR: Your note of this date was handed to me this evening. My recollection of the conversation at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the 14th of January, corresponds with your statement of it in the letter of the 31st ultimo, in the published correspondence. The three points specified in that letter, giving your recollection of the conversation, are correctly stated.

Very respectfully,

GIDEON WELLES.

To the PRESIDENT.

—
TREASURY DEPARTMENT, February 6, 1868.

SIR: I have received your note of the 5th instant, calling my attention to the correspondence between yourself and General Grant, as published in the *Chronicle* of yesterday, especially to that part of it which relates to what occurred at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the 14th ultimo, and requesting me to state what was said in the conversation referred to.

I cannot undertake to state the precise language used, but I have no hesitation in saying that your account of that conversation, as given in your letter to General Grant under date of the 31st ultimo, substantially and in all important particulars accords with my recollection of it.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

HUGH McCULLOCH.

The PRESIDENT.

—
POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, }

WASHINGTON, February 6, 1868. }

SIR: I am in receipt of your letter of the 5th February, calling my attention to the correspondence,

published in the *Chronicle*, between the President and General Grant, and especially to that part of it which refers to the conversation between the President and General Grant at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the 14th of January, with a request that I state what was said in that conversation.

In reply, I have the honor to state that I have read carefully the correspondence in question, and particularly the letter of the President to General Grant, dated January 31, 1868. The following extract from your letter of the 31st January to General Grant is, according to my recollection, a correct statement of the conversation that took place between the President and General Grant at the Cabinet meeting on the 14th of January last. In the presence of the Cabinet the President asked General Grant whether, "in conversation which took place after his appointment as Secretary of War *ad interim*, he did not agree either to remain at the head of the War Department and abide any judicial proceedings that might follow the non-concurrence by the Senate in Mr. Stanton's suspension, or, should he wish not to become involved in such a controversy, to put the President in the same position with respect to the office as he occupied previous to General Grant's appointment, by returning it to the President in time to anticipate such action by the Senate." This General Grant admitted.

The President then asked General Grant if, at the conference on the preceding Saturday, he had not, to avoid misunderstanding, requested General Grant to state what he intended to do; and further, if in reply to that inquiry he (General Grant) had not referred to their former conversations, saying that from them the President understood his position, and that his (General Grant's) action would be consistent with the understanding which had been reached. To these questions General Grant replied in the affirmative.

The President asked General Grant if, at the conclusion of their interview on Saturday, it was not understood that they were to have another conference on Monday, before final action by the Senate in the case of Mr. Stanton.

General Grant replied that such was the understanding, but that he did not suppose the Senate would act so soon; that on Monday he had been engaged in a conference with General Sherman, and was occupied with "many little matters," and asked if General Sherman had not called on that day.

I take this mode of complying with the request contained in the President's letter to me, because my attention had been called to the subject before, when the conversation between the President and General Grant was under consideration.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

ALEXANDER W. RANDALL,
Postmaster-General.

To the PRESIDENT.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 6, 1868. }

SIR: I am in receipt of yours of yesterday, calling my attention to a correspondence between yourself and General Grant, published in the *Chronicle* newspaper, and especially to that part of said correspondence "which refers to the conversation between the President and General Grant at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the 14th of January," and requesting me "to state what was said in that conversation."

In reply, I submit the following statement: at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the 14th of January, 1868, General Grant appeared and took his accustomed seat at the board. When he had been reached in the order of business, the President asked him, as usual, if he had any thing to present.

In reply, the General, after referring to a note which he had that morning addressed to the President, inclosing a copy of the resolution of the Senate refusing to concur in the reasons for the suspension of Mr. Stanton, proceeded to say that he regarded his duties

as Secretary of War *ad interim* terminated by that resolution, and that he could not lawfully exercise such duties for a moment after the adoption of the resolution by the Senate. That the resolution reached him last night, and that this morning he had gone to the War Department, entered the Secretary's room, bolted one door on the inside, locked the other on the outside, delivered the key to the Adjutant-General, and proceeded to the headquarters of the Army, and addressed the note above mentioned to the President, informing him that he (General Grant) was no longer Secretary of War *ad interim*.

The President expressed great surprise at the course which General Grant had thought proper to pursue, and, addressing himself to the General, proceeded to say, in substance, that he had anticipated such action on the part of the Senate, and being very desirous to have the constitutionality of the Tenure-of-Office Bill tested, and his right to suspend or remove a member of the Cabinet decided by the judicial tribunals of the country, he had some time ago, and shortly after General Grant's appointment as Secretary of War *ad interim*, asked the General what his action would be in the event that the Senate should refuse to concur in the suspension of Mr. Stanton, and that the General had then agreed either to remain at the head of the War Department till a decision could be obtained from the court or resign the office into the hands of the President before the case was acted upon by the Senate, so as to place the President in the same situation he occupied at the time of his (Grant's) appointment.

The President further said that the conversation was renewed on the preceding Saturday, at which time he asked the General what he intended to do if the Senate should undertake to reinstate Mr. Stanton, in reply to which the General referred to their former conversation upon the same subject, and said, "You understand my position, and my conduct will be conformable to that understanding;" that he (the General) then expressed a repugnance to being made a party to a judicial proceeding, saying that he would expose himself to fine and imprisonment by doing so, as his continuing to discharge the duties of Secretary of War *ad interim* after the Senate should have refused to concur in the suspension of Mr. Stanton would be a violation of the Tenure-of-Office Bill. That in reply to this he (the President) informed General Grant he had not suspended Mr. Stanton under the Tenure-of-Office Bill, but by virtue of the powers conferred on him by the Constitution; and that, as to the fine and imprisonment, he (the President) would pay whatever fine was imposed and submit to whatever imprisonment might be adjudged against him (the General). That they continued the conversation for some time, discussing the law at length, and that they finally separated without having reached a definite conclusion, and with the understanding that the General would see the President again on Monday.

In reply, General Grant admitted that the conversations had occurred, and said that at the first conversation he had given it as his opinion to the President that, in the event of non-concurrence by the Senate in the action of the President in respect to the Secretary of War, the question would have to be decided by the court; that Mr. Stanton would have to appeal to the court to reinstate him in office; that the Ins would remain in till they could be displaced, and the outs put in by legal proceeding; and that he then thought so, and had agreed that if he should change his mind he would notify the President in time to enable him to make another appointment, but that at the time of the first conversation he had not looked very closely into the law; that it had recently been discussed by the newspapers, and that this had induced him to examine it more carefully, and that he had come to the conclusion that, if the Senate should refuse to concur in the suspension, Mr. Stanton would thereby be reinstated, and that he (Grant) could not continue thereafter to act as Secretary of

War *ad interim* without subjecting himself to fine and imprisonment; and that he came over on Saturday to inform the President of this change in his views, and did so inform him; that the President replied that he had not suspended Mr. Stanton under the Tenure-of-Office Bill, but under the Constitution, and had appointed him (Grant) by virtue of the authority derived from the Constitution, etc.; that they continued to discuss the matter some time, and finally he left without any conclusion having been reached, expecting to see the President again on Monday. He then proceeded to explain why he had not called on the President on Monday, saying that he had had a long interview with General Sherman; that various little matters had occupied his time till it was late, and that he did not think the Senate would act so soon, and asked, "Did not General Sherman call on you on Monday?"

I do not know what passed between the President and General Grant on Saturday, except as I learned it from the conversation between them at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, and the foregoing is substantially what then occurred. The precise words used on the occasion are not, of course, given exactly in the order in which they were spoken, but the ideas expressed and the facts stated are faithfully preserved and presented.

I have the honor to be, sir, with great respect,
your obedient servant,

O. H. BROWNING.

The President.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
WASHINGTON, February 6, 1868. }

SIR: The meeting to which you refer in your letter was a regular Cabinet meeting. While the members were assembling, and before the President had entered the Council Chamber, General Grant, on coming in, said to me that he was in attendance there, not as a member of the Cabinet, but upon invitation, and I replied by the inquiry whether there was a change in the War Department. After the President had taken his seat, business went on in the usual way of hearing matters submitted by the several Secretaries. When the time came for the Secretary of War, General Grant said that he was now there, not as Secretary of War, but upon the President's invitation; that he had retired from the War Department. A slight difference then appeared about the supposed invitation, General Grant saying, that the officer who had borne his letter to the President that morning, announcing his retirement from the War Department, had told him that the President desired to see him at the Cabinet, to which the President answered, that when General Grant's communication was delivered to him the President simply replied that he supposed General Grant would be very soon at the Cabinet meeting. I regarded the conversation thus begun as an incidental one. It went on quite informally, and consisted of a statement, on your part, of your views in regard to the understanding of the tenure upon which General Grant had assented to hold the War Department *ad interim*, and of his replies by way of answer and explanation. It was respectful and courteous on both sides. Being in this conversational form, its details could only have been preserved by *verbatim* report. So far as I know, no such report was made at the time. I can give only the general effect of the conversation.

Certainly you stated that, although you had reported the reasons for Mr. Stanton's suspension to the Senate, you nevertheless held that he would not be entitled to resume the office of Secretary of War, even if the Senate should disapprove of his suspension, and that you had proposed to have the question tested by judicial process, to be applied to the person who should be the incumbent of the Department, under your designation of Secretary of War *ad interim*, in the place of Mr. Stanton. You contended

that this was well understood between yourself and General Grant; that when he entered the War Department as Secretary *ad interim* he expressed his concurrence in a belief that the question of Mr. Stanton's restoration would be a question for the courts; that in a subsequent conversation with General Grant you had adverted to the understanding thus had, and that General Grant expressed his concurrence in it; that at some conversation which had been previously held General Grant said he still adhered to the same construction of the law, but said if he should change his opinion he would give you seasonable notice of it, so that you should, in any case, be placed in the same position in regard to the War Department that you were while General Grant held it *ad interim*. I did not understand General Grant as denying, nor as explicitly admitting, these statements in the form and full extent to which you made them. His admission of them was rather indirect and circumstantial, though I did not understand it to be an evasive one. He said that, reasoning from what occurred in the case of the police in Maryland, which he regarded as a parallel one, he was of opinion, and so assured you, that it would be his right and duty, under your instructions, to hold the War Office after the Senate should disapprove of Mr. Stanton's suspension until the question should be decided upon by the courts; that he remained until very recently of that opinion, and that on the Saturday before the Cabinet meeting a conversation was held between yourself and him in which the subject was generally discussed.

General Grant's statement was, that in that conversation he had stated to you the legal difficulties which might arise, involving fine and imprisonment under the Civil Tenure Bill, and that he did not care to subject himself to those penalties; that you replied to this remark, that you regarded the Civil Tenure Bill as unconstitutional, and did not think its penalties were to be feared, or that you would voluntarily assume them; and you insisted that General Grant should either retain the office until relieved by yourself according to what you claimed was the original understanding between yourself and him, or, by seasonable notice of change of purpose on his part, put you in the same situation which you would be if he adhered. You claimed that General Grant finally said in that Saturday's conversation that you understood his views, and his proceedings thereafter would be consistent with what had been so understood. General Grant did not controvert nor can I say that he admitted this last statement. Certainly General Grant did not at any time in the Cabinet meeting insist that he had in the Saturday's conversation either distinctly or finally advised you of his determination to retire from the charge of the War Department otherwise than under your own subsequent direction. He acquiesced in your statement that the Saturday's conversation ended with an expectation that there would be a subsequent conference on the subject, which he, as well as yourself, supposed could seasonably take place on Monday.

You then alluded to the fact that General Grant did not call upon you on Monday, as you had expected from that conversation. General Grant admitted that it was his expectation or purpose to call upon you on Monday. General Grant assigned reasons for the omission. He said he was in conference with General Sherman; that there were many little matters to be attended to. He had conversed upon the matter of the incumbency of the War Department with General Sherman, and he expected that General Sherman would call upon you on Monday. My own mind suggested a further explanation, but I do not remember whether it was mentioned or not—namely, that it was not supposed by General Grant on Monday that the Senate would decide the question so promptly as to anticipate further explanation between yourself and him if delayed beyond that day. General Grant made another explanation—that he

was engaged on Sunday with General Sherman, and, I think, also on Monday, in regard to the War Department matter, with a hope, though he did not say in an effort, to procure an amicable settlement of the affair of Mr. Stanton, and he still hoped that it would be brought about.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, your obedient servant,
WILLIAM H. SEWARD.
To the President.

To the House of Representatives:

The accompanying letter from General Grant, received since the transmission to the House of Representatives of my communication of this date, is submitted to the House as a part of the correspondence referred to in the resolution of the 10th instant.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 11, 1868.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 11, 1868. }

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your communication of the 10th instant, accompanied by statements of five Cabinet ministers of their recollection of what occurred in Cabinet meeting on the 14th of January. Without admitting any thing in these statements where they differ from any thing heretofore stated by me, I propose to notice only that portion of your communication wherein I am charged with insubordination. I think it will be plain to the reader of my letter of the 30th of January that I did not propose to disobey any legal order of the President, distinctly given, but only gave an interpretation of what would be regarded as satisfactory evidence of the President's sanction to orders communicated by the Secretary of War. I will say here that your letter of the 10th instant contains the first intimation I have had that you did not accept that interpretation.

Now for reasons for giving that interpretation: it was clear to me before my letter of January 30th was written, that I, the person having more public business to transact with the Secretary of War than any other of the President's subordinates, was the only one who had been instructed to disregard the authority of Mr. Stanton where his authority was denied as agent of the President.

On the 27th of January I received a letter from the Secretary of War (copy herewith) directing me to furnish escort to public treasure from the Rio Grande to New Orleans, etc., at the request of the Secretary of the Treasury to him. I also send two other enclosures, showing recognition of Mr. Stanton as Secretary of War by both the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General, in all of which cases the Secretary of War had to call upon me to make the orders requested or give the information desired, and where his authority to do so is derived, in my view, as agent of the President.

With an order so clearly ambiguous as that of the President here referred to, it was my duty to inform the President of my interpretation of it, and to abide by that interpretation until I received other orders.

Disclaiming any intention now or heretofore of disobeying any legal order of the President distinctly communicated, I remain, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
U. S. GRANT, General.

His Excellency A. JOHNSON,
President of the United States.

WAR DEPARTMENT, }
WASHINGTON CITY, January 27, 1868. }

GENERAL: The Secretary of the Treasury has requested this Department to afford A. F. Randall, special agent of the Treasury Department, such military aid as may be necessary to secure and forward, for deposits, from Brownsville, Texas, to New Orleans, public moneys in possession of custom-house officers at Brownsville, and which are deemed insecure at that place.

You will please give such directions as you may deem proper to the officer commanding at Brownsville to carry into effect the request of the Treasury Department, the instructions to be sent by telegraph to Galveston, to the care of A. F. Randall, special agent, who is at Galveston waiting telegraphic orders, there being no telegraphic communication with Brownsville and the necessity for military protection to the public moneys represented as urgent.

Please favor me with a copy of such instructions as you may give, in order that they may be communicated to the Secretary of the Treasury.

Yours truly,

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.
To General U. S. GRANT, commanding U. S. A.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF THE UNITED STATES, }
February 11, 1868. }

Official copy:
GEORGE K. LEET, Assistant Adjutant-General.

POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, CONTRACT OFFICE, }
WASHINGTON, February 3, 1868. }

SIR: It has been represented to this Department that in October last a military commission was appointed to settle upon some general plan of defence for the Texas frontiers, and that the said commission has made a report recommending a line of posts from the Rio Grande to the Red River.

An application is now pending in this Department for a change in the course of the San Antonio and El Paso mail, so as to send it by way of Forts Mason, Griffin, and Stockton, instead of by Camps Hudson and Lancaster. This application requires immediate decision, but before final action can be had thereon it is desired to have some official information as to the report of the commission above referred to.

Accordingly I have the honor to request that you will cause this Department to be furnished, as early as possible, with the information desired in the premises, and also with a copy of the report, if any has been made by the commission.

Very respectfully, etc.,

GEORGE W. McLELLAN,
Second Assistant Postmaster-General.
February 3, 1868.

The Honorable Secretary of War.

Referred to the General of the Army for report.
EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF UNITED STATES, }
February 11, 1868. }

Official copy:
GEORGE K. LEET, Assistant Adjutant-General.

—
TREASURY DEPARTMENT, January 29, 1868.

SIR: It is represented to this Department that a band of robbers has obtained such a foothold in the section of country between Humboldt and Lawrence, Kansas, committing depredations upon travellers, both by public and private conveyance, that the safety of the public money collected by the receiver of the land-office at Humboldt requires that it should be guarded during its transit from Humboldt to Lawrence. I have, therefore, the honor to request that the proper commanding officer of the district may be instructed by the War Department, if in the opinion of the Honorable Secretary of War it can be done without prejudice to the public interests, to furnish a sufficient military guard to protect such moneys as may be *in transitu* from the above office for the purpose of being deposited to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States. As far as we are now advised such service will not be necessary oftener than once a month. Will you please advise me of the action taken, that I may instruct the receiver and the Commissioner of the General Land-Office in this matter? Very respectfully, yours, etc.,

H. McCULLOCH, Secretary of the Treasury.
To the Honorable Secretary of War.

Respectfully referred to the General of the Army to give the necessary orders in this case and to furnish this Department a copy for the information of the Secretary of the Treasury.

By order of the Secretary of War:

ED. SCHRIVER, Inspector-General.

HEADQUARTERS ARMY OF UNITED STATES, }
February 11, 1868. }

Official copy:

GEORGE K. LEET, Assistant Adjutant-General.

Message of President JOHNSON on the removal of Secretary Stanton.

To the Senate of the United States:

I have received a copy of the resolution adopted by the Senate on the 21st instant, as follows:

Whereas, the Senate have received and considered the communication of the President, stating that he had removed Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, and had designated the Adjutant-General of the Army to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*: Therefore,

Resolved by the Senate of the United States, That under the Constitution and laws of the United States the President has no power to remove the Secretary of War, and designate any other officer to perform the duties of that office *ad interim*.

This resolution is confined to the power of the President to remove the Secretary of War and to designate another officer to perform the duties of the office *ad interim*, and by its preamble is made expressly applicable to the removal of Mr. Stanton, and the designation to act *ad interim* of the Adjutant-General of the Army. Without, therefore, attempting to discuss the general power of removal as to all officers, upon which subject no expression of opinion is contained in the resolution, I shall confine myself to the question as thus limited—the power to remove the Secretary of War.

It is declared in the resolution, "that under the Constitution and laws of the United States the President has no power to remove the Secretary of War and designate any other officer to perform the duties of that office *ad interim*."

As to the question of power under the Constitution, I do not propose at present to enter upon its discussion. The uniform practice from the beginning of the Government, as established by every President who has exercised the office, and the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, have settled the question in favor of the power of the President to remove all officers, excepting a class holding appointments of a judicial character. No practice, nor any decision, has ever excepted a Secretary of War from this general power of the President to make removals from office.

It is only necessary, then, that I should refer to the power of the Executive, under the laws of the United States, to remove from office a Secretary of War. The resolution denies that under these laws this power has any existence. In other words, it affirms that no such authority is recognized or given by the statutes of the country.

What, then, are the laws of the United States which deny the President the power to remove that officer? I know but two laws which bear upon this question. The first in order of time is the act of August 7, 1789, creating the Department of War, which, after providing for a Secretary as its principal officer, proceeds as follows:

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be in the said Department an inferior officer, to be appointed by the said principal officer, to be employed therein as he shall deem proper, and to be called the chief clerk in the Department of War, and who, whenever the said principal officer shall be removed from office by the President of the United States, or in any other case of vacancy, shall during such vacancy have the charge and custody of all records, books, and papers appertaining to the said department.

It is clear that this act, passed by Congress, many of whose members participated in the formation of the Constitution, so far from denying the power of the President to remove the Secretary of War, recognizes it as existing in the Executive alone, without the concurrence of the Senate or of any other department of the Government. Furthermore, this act does not purport to confer the power by legislative authority, nor in fact was there any other existing legislation through which it was bestowed upon the Executive. The recognition of the power by this act is therefore complete as a recognition under the Constitution itself, for there was no other source or authority from which it could be derived.

The other act which refers to this question is that regulating the tenure of certain civil offices, passed by Congress on the second day of March, 1867. The first section of that act is in the following words:

That every person holding any civil office to which he has been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and every person who shall hereafter be appointed to any such office, and shall become duly qualified to act therein, is, and shall be, entitled to hold such office until a successor shall have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified, except as herein otherwise provided: *Provided*, That the Secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General shall hold their offices respectively for and during the term of the President by whom they may have been appointed, and for one month thereafter, subject to removal by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

The fourth section of the same act restricts the term of offices to the limit prescribed by the law creating them.

That part of the first section which precedes the proviso declares that every person holding a civil office to which he has been or may be appointed, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall hold such office until a successor shall have been in like manner appointed. It purports to take from the Executive, during the fixed time established for the tenure of the office, the independent power of removal and to require for such removal the concurrent action of the President and the Senate.

The proviso that follows proceeds to fix the term of office of the seven heads of departments, whose tenure never had been defined before, by prescribing that they "shall hold their offices respectively for and during the term of the President by whom they may have been appointed, and for one month thereafter, subject to removal by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." Thus, as to these enumerated officers, the *proviso* takes from the President the power of removal, except with the advice and consent of the Senate. By its terms, however, before he can be deprived of the power to displace them, it must appear that he himself has appointed them. It is only in that case that they have any tenure of office, or any independent right to hold during the term of the President, and for one month after the cessation of his official functions. The proviso, therefore, gives no tenure of office to any one of these officers who has been appointed by a former President, beyond one month after the accession of his successor.

In the case of Mr. Stanton, the only appointment under which he held the office of Secretary of War was that conferred upon him by my immediate predecessor, with the advice and consent of the Senate. He has never held from me any appointment as the head of the War Department. Whatever right he had to hold the office was derived from that original appointment, and my own sufferance. The law was not intended to protect such an incumbent of the War Department, by taking from the President the power to remove him. This, in my judgment, is perfectly clear, and the law itself admits of no other just construction. We find, in all that portion of the first section which precedes the proviso, that as to civil officers generally the President is deprived of

the power of removal; and it is plain that, if there had been no proviso, that power would just as clearly have been taken from him, so far as it applies to the seven heads of departments. But, for reasons which were no doubt satisfactory to Congress, these principal officers were specially provided for, and as to them the express and only requirement is, that the President who has appointed them shall not, without the advice and consent of the Senate, remove them from office. The consequence is, that as to my Cabinet, embracing the seven officers designated in the first section, the act takes from me the power, without the concurrence of the Senate, to remove any one of them that I have appointed; but it does not protect such of them as I did not appoint, nor give to them any tenure of office beyond my pleasure.

An examination of this act, then, shows that while in one part of the section provision is made for officers generally, in another clause there is a class of officers, designated by their official titles, who are excepted from the general terms of the law, and in reference to whom a clear distinction is made as to the general power of removal limited in the first clause of the section. This distinction is, that, as to such of these enumerated officers as hold under the appointment of the President, the power of removal can only be exercised by him with the consent of the Senate; while, as to those who have not been appointed by him, there is no like denial of his power to displace them. It would be a violation of the plain meaning of this enactment to place Mr. Stanton upon the same footing as those heads of departments who have been appointed by myself. As to him this law gives him no tenure of office. The members of my Cabinet who have been appointed by me are, by this act, entitled to hold for one month after the term of my office shall cease; but Mr. Stanton could not, against the wishes of my successor, hold a moment thereafter. If he were permitted by that successor to hold for the first two weeks, would that successor have no power to remove him? But the power of my successor over him could be no greater than my own. If my successor would have the power to remove Mr. Stanton, after permitting him to remain a period of two weeks, because he was not appointed by him, but by his predecessor, I, who have tolerated Mr. Stanton for more than two years, certainly have the same right to remove him, and upon the same ground—namely, that he was not appointed by me, but by my predecessor.

Under this construction of the Tenure-of-Office Act, I have never doubted my power to remove Mr. Stanton. Whether the act were constitutional or not, it was always my opinion that it did not secure him from removal. I was, however, aware that there were great doubts as to the construction of the law; and from the first I deemed it desirable that at the earliest possible moment those doubts should be settled, and the true construction of the act fixed by decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. My order of suspension, in August last, was intended to place the case in such a position as would make a resort to a judicial decision both necessary and proper. My understanding and wishes, however, under that order of suspension, were frustrated, and the late order for Mr. Stanton's removal was a further step toward the accomplishment of that purpose.

I repeat, that my own convictions as to the true construction of the law, and as to its constitutionality, were well settled, and were sustained by every member of my Cabinet, including Mr. Stanton himself. Upon the question of constitutionality, every one in turn deliberately advised me that the Tenure-of-Office Act was unconstitutional. Upon the question whether, as to those members who were appointed by my predecessor, that act took from me the power to remove them, one of those members emphatically stated, in the presence of the others, sitting in Cabinet, that they did not come within the provisions of the act, and it was no protection to

them. No one dissented from this construction, and I understood them all to acquiesce in its correctness.

In a matter of such grave consequence I was not disposed to rest upon my own opinions, though fortified by my constitutional advisers. I have therefore sought to bring this question, at as early a day as possible, before the Supreme Court of the United States for final and authoritative decision.

In respect to so much of the resolution as relates to the designation of an officer to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, I have only to say that I have exercised this power under the provisions of the first section of the act of February 13, 1795, which, so far as they are applicable to vacancies caused by removals, I understand to be still in force.

The legislation upon the subject of *ad interim* appointments in the executive departments stands, as to the War-Office, as follows:

The second section of the act of the 7th of August, 1789, makes provision for a vacancy in the very case of a removal of the head of the War Department, and upon such a vacancy gives the charge and custody of the records, books, and papers to the chief clerk.

Next, by the act of the 8th of May, 1792, section eight, it is provided that in case of vacancy occasioned by death, absence from the seat of government, or sickness of the head of the War Department, the President may authorize a person to perform the duties of the office until a successor is appointed, or the disability removed. The act, it will be observed, does not provide for the case of a vacancy caused by removal.

Then by the first section of the act of February 13, 1795, it is provided that in case of *any* vacancy the President may appoint a person to perform the duties while the vacancy exists.

These acts are followed by that of the 20th of February, 1863, by the first section of which provision is again made for a vacancy caused by death, resignation, absence from the seat of Government, or sickness of the head of any executive department of the Government; and, upon the occurrence of such a vacancy, power is given to the President "to authorize the head of any other executive department, or other officer in either of said departments whose appointment is vested in the President, at his discretion, to perform the duties of the said respective offices until a successor is appointed, or until such absence or inability by sickness shall cease: *Provided*, That no one vacancy shall be supplied in manner aforesaid for a longer time than six months."

This law, with some modifications, reenacts the act of 1792, and provides, as did that act, for the sort of vacancies so to be filled; but, like the act of 1792, it makes no provision for a vacancy occasioned by removal. It has reference altogether to vacancies arising from other causes. According to my construction of the act of 1863, while it impliedly repeals the act of 1792, regulating the vacancies therein described, it has no bearing whatever upon so much of the act of 1795 as applies to a vacancy caused by removal. The act of 1795, therefore, furnishes the rule for a vacancy occasioned by removal—one of the vacancies expressly referred to in the act of the 7th of August, 1789, creating the Department of War.

Certainly there is no express repeal, by the act of 1863, of the act of 1795. The repeal, if there is any, is by implication, and can only be admitted so far as there is a clear inconsistency between the two acts. The act of 1795 is inconsistent with that of 1863 as to a vacancy occasioned by death, resignation, absence, or sickness, but not at all inconsistent as to a vacancy caused by removal. It is assuredly proper that the President should have the same power to fill temporarily a vacancy occasioned by removal as he has to supply a place made vacant by death or the expiration of a term. If, for instance, the incumbent of an office should be found to be wholly unfit to exercise its functions, and the public service should require his immediate expulsion, a remedy should

exist, and be at once applied, and time be allowed the President to select and appoint a successor—as is permitted him in case of a vacancy caused by death or the termination of an official term. The necessity, therefore, for an *ad interim* appointment is just as great, and, indeed, may be greater, in cases of removal than in any others. Before it be held, therefore, that the power given by the act of 1795, in cases of removal, is abrogated by succeeding legislation, an express repeal ought to appear. So wholesome a power should certainly not be taken away by loose implication.

It may be, however, that in this, as in other cases of implied repeal, doubts may arise. It is confessedly one of the most subtle and debatable questions which arise in the construction of statutes. If, upon such a question, I have fallen into an erroneous construction, I submit whether it should be characterized as a violation of official duty and of law.

I have deemed it proper, in vindication of the course which I have considered it my duty to take, to place before the Senate the reasons upon which I have based my action. Although I have been advised by every member of my Cabinet that the entire Tenure-of-Office Act is unconstitutional, and therefore void, and although I have expressly concurred in that opinion in the veto message which I had the honor to submit to Congress when I returned the bill for reconsideration, I have refrained from making a removal of any officer contrary to the provisions of the law, and have only exercised that power in the case of Mr. Stanton, which, in my judgment, did not come within its provisions. I have endeavored to proceed with the greatest circumspection, and have acted only in an extreme and exceptional case, carefully following the course which I have marked out for myself, as a general rule, faithfully to execute all laws, though passed over my objections on the score of constitutionality. In the present instance I have appealed, or sought to appeal, to that final arbiter fixed by the Constitution for the determination of all such questions. To this course I have been impelled by the solemn obligations which rest upon me to sustain inviolate the powers of the high office committed to my hands. Whatever may be the consequences merely personal to myself, I could not allow them to prevail against a public duty so clear to my own mind, and so imperative. If what was possible had been certain; if I had been fully advised, when I removed Mr. Stanton, that in thus defending the trust committed to my hands my own removal was sure to follow, I could not have hesitated, actuated by public considerations of the highest character. I earnestly protest against the resolution of the Senate which charges me, in what I have done, with a violation of the Constitution and laws of the United States.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 22, 1868.

Message of President JOHNSON to the Senate, suggesting changes in the Constitution.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

Experience has fully demonstrated the wisdom of the framers of the Federal Constitution. Under all circumstances the result of their labors was as near an approximation to perfection as was compatible with the fallibility of man. Such being the estimation in which the Constitution is and has ever been held by our countrymen, it is not surprising that any proposition for its alteration or amendment should be received with reluctance and distrust. While this sentiment deserves commendation and encouragement as a useful preventive of unnecessary attempt to change its provisions, it must be conceded that time has developed imperfections and omissions in the Constitution, the reformation of which has been demanded by the best interests of the country. Some of these have been remedied in the manner provided in the Constitution itself. There are others which,

although heretofore brought to the attention of the people, have never been so presented as to enable the popular judgment to determine whether they should be corrected by means of additional amendments. My object in this communication is to suggest certain defects in the Constitution which seem to me to require correction, and to recommend that the judgment of the people be taken on the amendments proposed.

The first of the defects to which I desire to direct attention is in that clause of the Constitution which provides for the election of President and Vice-President through the intervention of electors, and not by an immediate vote of the people.

The importance of so amending this clause as to secure to the people the election of President and Vice-President, by their direct votes, was urged with great earnestness and ability by President Jackson in his first annual message, and the recommendation was repeated in five of his subsequent communications to Congress, extending through the eight years of his administration. In his message of 1829, he said:

To the people belongs the right of electing their Chief Magistrate; it was never designed that their choice should in any case be defeated, either by the intervention of electoral colleges, or by the agency confided, under certain contingencies, to the House of Representatives.

He then proceeded to state the objections to an election of President by the House of Representatives, the most important of which was, that the choice of a clear majority of the people might be easily defeated. He then closed the argument with the following recommendation:

I would therefore recommend such an amendment of the Constitution as may remove all intermediate agency in the election of President and Vice-President. The mode may be so regulated as to preserve to each State its present relative weight in the election; and a failure in the first attempt may be provided for by confining the second to a choice between the two highest candidates. In connection with such an amendment it would seem advisable to limit the service of the Chief Magistrate to a single term of four or six years. If, however, it should not be adopted, it is worthy of consideration whether a provision, disqualifying for office the Representatives in Congress on whom such an election may have devolved, would not be proper.

Although this recommendation was repeated with undiminished earnestness in several of his succeeding messages, yet the proposed amendment was never adopted and submitted to the people by Congress. The danger of a defeat of the people's choice in an election by the House of Representatives remains unprovided for in the Constitution, and would be greatly increased if the House of Representatives should assume the power arbitrarily to reject the votes of a State which might not be cast in conformity with the wishes of the majority in that body.

But if President Jackson failed to secure the amendment to the Constitution which he urged so persistently, his arguments contributed largely to the formation of party organizations, which have effectually avoided the contingency of an election by the House of Representatives. These organizations, first by a resort to the caucus system of nominating candidates, and afterward to State and national conventions, have been successful in so limiting the number of candidates as to escape the danger of an election by the House of Representatives.

It is clear, however, that, in thus limiting the number of candidates, the true object and spirit of the Constitution have been evaded and defeated. It is an essential feature in our republican system of government that every citizen, possessing the constitutional qualifications, has a right to become a candidate for the office of President or Vice-President, and that every qualified elector has a right to cast his vote for any citizen whom he may regard as worthy of these offices. But, under the party organizations which have prevailed for years, these asserted rights of the people have been as effectually cut off and de-

stroyed as if the Constitution itself had inhibited their exercise. The danger of a defeat of the popular choice in an election by the House of Representatives is no greater than in an election made nominally by the people themselves, when, by the laws of party organizations and by the constitutional provisions requiring the people to vote for electors instead of for the President or Vice-President, it is made impracticable for any citizen to be a candidate except through the process of a party nomination, and for any voter to cast his suffrage for any other person than one thus brought forward through the manipulations of a nominating convention. It is thus apparent that, by means of party organizations, that provision of the Constitution which requires the election of President and Vice-President to be made through the electoral colleges has been made instrumental and potential in defeating the great object of conferring the choice of these officers upon the people. It may be conceded that party organizations are inseparable from republican government, and that, when formed and managed in subordination to the Constitution, they may be valuable safeguards of popular liberty; but when they are perverted to purposes of bad ambition they are liable to become the dangerous instruments of overthrowing the Constitution itself. Strongly impressed with the truth of these views, I feel called upon by an imperative sense of duty to revive substantially the recommendation so often and so earnestly made by President Jackson, and to urge that the amendment to the Constitution herewith presented, or some similar proposition, may be submitted to the people for their ratification or rejection.

Recent events have shown the necessity of an amendment to the Constitution distinctly defining the persons who shall discharge the duties of President of the United States in the event of a vacancy in that office by the death, resignation, or removal of both the President and Vice-President. It is clear that this should be fixed by the Constitution, and not be left to repealable enactments of doubtful constitutionality. It occurs to me that in the event of a vacancy in the office of President, by the death, resignation, disability, or removal of both the President and Vice-President, the duties of the office should devolve upon an officer of the executive department of the Government, rather than one connected with the legislative or judicial departments. The objections to designating either the President *pro tempore* of the Senate, or the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, especially in the event of a vacancy produced by removal, are so obvious and so unanswerable that they need not be stated in detail. It is enough to state that they are both interested in producing a vacancy, and, according to the provisions of the Constitution, are members of the tribunal by whose decree a vacancy may be produced.

Under such circumstances the impropriety of designating either of these officers to succeed the President so removed, is palpable. The framers of the Constitution, when they referred to Congress the settlement of the succession to the office of President, in the event of a vacancy in the offices of both President and Vice-President, did not, in my opinion, contemplate the designation of any other than an officer of the executive department, on whom, in such a contingency, the powers and duties of the President should devolve. Until recently the contingency has been remote, and serious attention has not been called to the manifest incongruity between the provision of the Constitution on this subject and the act of Congress of 1792. Having, however, been brought almost face to face with this important question, it seems an eminently proper time for us to make the legislation conform to the language, intent, and theory of the Constitution, and thus place the executive department beyond the reach of usurpation, and remove from the legislative and judicial departments every temptation to combine for the absorption of all the powers of Government.

It has occurred to me that, in the event of such a vacancy, the duties of President would devolve most appropriately upon some one of the heads of the several Executive Departments; and, under this conviction, I present for your consideration an amendment to the Constitution on this subject, with the recommendation that it be submitted to the people for their action.

Experience seems to have established the necessity of an amendment of that clause of the Constitution which provides for the election of Senators to Congress by the Legislatures of the several States. It would be more consistent with the genius of our form of government if the Senators were chosen directly by the people of the several States. The objections to the election of Senators by the Legislatures are so palpable that I deem it unnecessary to do more than submit the proposition for such an amendment, with a recommendation that it be offered to the people for their judgment.

It is strongly impressed upon my mind that the tenure of office by the judiciary of the United States, during good behavior, for life, is incompatible with the spirit of republican government, and in this opinion I am fully sustained by the evidence of popular judgment upon this subject in the different States of the Union. I therefore deem it my duty to recommend an amendment to the Constitution, by which the terms of the judicial officers would be limited to a period of years, and I herewith present it in the hope that Congress will submit it to the people for their decision.

The foregoing views have long been entertained by me. In 1845, in the House of Representatives, and afterward, in 1860, in the Senate of the United States, I submitted substantially the same propositions as those to which the attention of Congress is herein invited.

Time, observation, and experience have confirmed these convictions; and, as a matter of public duty, and with a deep sense of my constitutional obligation, "to recommend to the consideration of Congress such measures as I deem necessary and expedient," I submit the accompanying propositions, and urge their adoption and submission to the judgment of the people.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 18, 1868.

Joint Resolution proposing Amendments to the Constitution of the United States.

Whereas the fifth article of the Constitution of the United States provides for amendments thereto, in the manner following, namely:

1. Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to the Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by convention in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by Congress: *Provided*, That no amendment which may be made prior to the year 1808 shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate: Therefore,

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring). That the following amendments to the Constitution of the United States be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States, which, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the States, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of the Constitution.

That hereafter the President and Vice-President of the United States shall be chosen for the term of six years, by the people of the respective States, in the

manner following: each State shall be divided, by the Legislatures thereof, in districts equal in number to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which such State may be entitled in the Congress of the United States; the said districts to be composed of contiguous territory, and to contain, as nearly as may be, an equal number of persons, entitled to be represented under the Constitution, and to be laid off, for the first time, immediately after the ratification of this amendment; that, on the first Thursday in August, in the year 18—, and on the same day every sixth year thereafter, the citizens of each State, who possess the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures, shall meet within their respective districts and vote for a President and Vice-President of the United States; and the person receiving the greatest number of votes for President, and the one receiving the greatest number of votes for Vice-President in each district, shall be holden to have received one vote; which fact shall be immediately certified by the Governor of the State to each of the Senators in Congress from such State, and to the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives. The Congress of the United States shall be in session on the second Monday in October in the year 18—, and on the same day on every sixth year thereafter; and the President of the Senate, in the presence of Senate and House of Representatives, shall open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be President, if such number be equal to a majority of the whole number of votes given; but if no person have such a majority, then a second election shall be held on the first Thursday in the month of December then next ensuing, between the persons having the two highest numbers for the office of President, which second election shall be conducted, the result certified, and the votes counted, in the same manner as in the first, and the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be President. But if two or more persons shall have received the greatest, and an equal number of votes, at the second election, then the person who shall have received the greatest number of votes in the greatest number of States shall be President. The person having the greatest number of votes for Vice-President, at the first election, shall be Vice-President, if such number be equal to a majority of the whole number of votes given; and if no person have such majority, then a second election shall take place between the persons having the two highest numbers, on the same day that the second election is held for President; and the person having the highest number of votes for Vice-President shall be Vice-President. But if there should happen to be an equality of votes between the persons so voted for at the second election, then the person having the greatest number of States shall be Vice-President. But when a second election shall be necessary in the case of Vice-President, and not necessary in the case of President, then the Senate shall choose a Vice-

President from the persons having the two highest numbers in the first election, as is now prescribed in the Constitution: *Provided*, That, after the ratification of this amendment to the Constitution, the President and Vice-President shall hold their offices, respectively, for the term of six years, and that no President or Vice-President shall be eligible for reelection to a second term.

And be it further resolved, That article two, section one, paragraph six, of the Constitution of the United States shall be amended so as to read as follows: "In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death or resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and in case of the removal, death, resignation, or inability both of the President and Vice-President, the powers and duties of said office shall devolve upon the Secretary of State for the time being, and after this officer, in case of vacancy in that or in other Departments, and in the order in which they are named, on the Secretary of the Treasury, on the Secretary of War, on the Secretary of the Navy, on the Secretary of the Interior, on the Postmaster-General, and on the Attorney-General; and such officer on whom the powers and duties of President shall devolve, in accordance with the foregoing provisions, shall then act as President, until the disability shall be removed or a President shall be elected, as is or may be provided for by law."

Sec. 3. *And be it further resolved*, That article one, section three, be amended to read as follows: "The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the persons qualified to vote for the members of the most numerous branch of the Legislature thereof, for six years, and each Senator shall have one vote."

Sec. 4. *And be it further resolved*, That article three, section one, be amended to read as follows:

ARTICLE III.

SECTION 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as Congress from time to time may ordain and establish. The judges of the Supreme and inferior courts shall hold their offices during the term of twelve years, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office. And it shall be the duty of the President of the United States, within twelve months after the ratification of this amendment by three-fourths of all the States, as provided by the Constitution of the United States, to divide the whole number of judges, as near as may be practicable, into three classes. The seats of the judges of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the fourth year from such classification, of the second class at the expiration of the sixth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the twelfth year, so that one-third may be chosen every fourth year thereafter.

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RAILROADS. The construction of railroads in the United States has received quite an impulse since the close of the war. Their importance to the development and to the economy of domestic commerce is so fully demonstrated that every State in the Union is now urging the opening of new routes. There are 36,992 miles of railroad in operation. The cost of their construction is stated at \$1,517,500,000. The population of the country through

which these roads pass is estimated at 31,775,990. The extent of railroads in other countries of North America is 4,170 miles. The cost of these roads has been \$312,876,000. In Europe the number of miles of railroads in operation is 53,381, and the cost of their construction \$6,660,470,000. The population along these lines is 506,256,947. The following is a statement of the present railroad enterprise of the country, in a brief and summary form:

A TABULAR STATEMENT OF THE MILEAGE IN EACH STATE AND CLUSTER OF STATES AT THE END OF EACH YEAR, FROM 1835 TO 1861, BOTH INCLUSIVE.

STATES.	1855	1856	1857	1858	1859	1860	1861	1862	1863	1864
Maine.....
New Hampshire.....
Vermont.....
Massachusetts.....	113	139	169	219	301	373	435	485	567	636
Rhode Island.....
Connecticut.....
N. E. States.....	113	139	199	254	327	589	811	865	973	1,093
New York.....	104	191	269	314	374	538	636	715	731	727
New Jersey.....	90	133	133	133	174	189	186	186	186	186
Pennsylvania.....	318	339	466	608	631	754	789	739	798	840
Delaware.....	16	16	24	39	39	39	39	39	39	39
Maryland & D. C.....	117	117	138	138	185	213	259	259	259	259
Mid. A. States.....	654	796	930	1,232	1,463	1,566	1,776	1,900	1,921	1,997
West Virginia.....
Kentucky.....	15	22	22	22	25	38	28	28	28	28
Ohio.....
Michigan.....
Indiana.....
Illinois.....
Wisconsin.....
Minnesota.....
Iowa.....
Kansas.....
Missouri.....
Arkansas.....
Tennessee.....
Interior States.....	15	22	22	22	69	117	285	389	405	437
Virginia.....	93	125	125	125	147	222	223	223	223	223
North Carolina.....
South Carolina.....	137	137	137	137	204	204	204	204	204	204
Georgia.....
Florida.....
Alabama.....
Mississippi.....
Louisiana.....
Texas.....
Southern States.....	316	355	405	448	608	885	997	994	1,078	1,158
California.....
Oregon.....
Pacific States.....
RECAPITULATION.....	113	139	190	254	322	527	589	811	865	973
N. E. States.....
Mid. A. States.....	654	796	930	1,232	1,463	1,566	1,776	1,900	1,921	1,997
Interior States.....	15	22	22	22	69	117	285	389	405	437
Southern States.....	316	316	355	405	448	608	885	937	994	1,078
Pacific States.....
Grand total.....	1,098	1,273	1,497	1,913	2,302	2,818	3,535	4,096	4,185	4,377

RAILROADS.

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RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES, EUROPE, ASIA, &c., 1868-'69.

STATES.	Miles.	Cost.	Cost per mile.	Area of country.	Population, 1860.	Sq. miles to mile of rail'd.	Popula'n per mile of rail'd.
Pennsylvania.....	4,037	\$210,081,000	\$52,087	46,000	2,906,115	11	730
Ohio.....	3,402	135,332,000	39,739	39,964	2,339,511	11	687
Illinois.....	3,250	139,185,000	42,791	55,405	1,711,951	17	537
New York.....	3,025	152,671,000	50,451	47,000	3,880,735	15	1,283
Indiana.....	2,211	79,387,000	35,802	33,509	1,350,428	15	610
Georgia.....	1,437	29,178,000	20,301	52,009	1,067,329	36	737
Virginia.....	1,416	49,975,000	35,275	61,352	1,246,381	43	879
Massachusetts.....	1,330	79,467,000	59,704	7,800	1,231,066	6	925
Tennessee.....	1,317	34,186,000	25,937	45,000	1,109,801	34	841
Iowa.....	1,154	45,480,000	39,407	55,045	674,913	47	498
Wisconsin.....	1,045	40,182,000	38,343	53,924	775,881	51	742
South Carolina.....	988	25,208,000	25,491	29,385	703,812	28	711
North Carolina.....	977	20,121,000	20,485	50,704	992,667	52	1,016
Michigan.....	966	41,676,000	43,133	56,243	749,113	58	775
Missouri.....	937	51,352,000	54,995	67,380	1,182,012	72	1,260
New Jersey.....	904	55,995,000	61,913	8,320	672,035	9	743
Alabama.....	891	21,011,000	25,154	50,722	964,296	57	182
Mississippi.....	867	25,417,000	29,315	47,156	791,396	54	913
New Hampshire.....	659	22,053,000	33,446	9,280	326,073	14	495
Connecticut.....	637	24,370,000	38,225	4,674	460,147	7	721
Kentucky.....	625	22,393,000	35,776	37,680	1,155,684	60	1,846
Vermont.....	594	24,893,000	41,864	10,212	315,098	17	529
Maryl'd & Dist. of Col.	522	30,574,000	58,501	11,184	762,129	21	1,457
Maine.....	502	18,243,000	36,315	31,766	628,279	62	1,234
Texas.....	479	17,280,000	36,044	237,504	602,432	495	1,257
Florida.....	407	8,888,000	21,762	59,269	140,439	145	345
Minnesota.....	392	12,450,000	31,760	83,531	172,123	213	439
West Virginia.....	364	25,000,000	68,498	20,541	249,698	50	958
Louisiana.....	335	13,628,000	40,577	46,431	709,290	133	2,119
California.....	321	24,200,000	75,272	188,982	379,994	588	1,180
Nebraska.....	275	12,500,000	45,454	76,928	28,841	279	105
Kansas.....	240	9,750,000	40,540	78,418	107,206	327	445
Arkansas.....	191	4,400,000	43,562	52,198	435,272	273	2,272
Delaware.....	157	5,608,000	37,279	2,120	112,216	13	714
Rhode Island.....	119	4,860,000	40,737	1,306	174,620	11	1,467
Oregon.....	19	500,000	25,641	95,274	52,465	5,014	2,690
Territories.....	1,243,416	524,387
Total, 1868-'69....	36,992	\$1,517,500,000	3,098,532	31,775,990
COUNTRIES.							
Canada.....	2,148	\$121,544,000	\$56,573	357,822	2,507,657	166	1,167
New Brunswick.....	198	7,498,000	37,362	27,704	252,047	139	1,373
Nova Scotia.....	92	4,319,000	46,446	18,746	330,699	202	3,556
Mexico.....	78	4,000,000	51,282	772,672	8,259,080	9,906	105,480
Cuba.....	396	19,825,000	50,000	47,278	1,449,264	119	3,051
Jamaica.....	13	327,000	23,357	6,250	441,264	446	31,518
Venezuela.....	32	2,723,000	85,113	426,700	1,565,000	13,334	48,906
New Granada.....	47	7,653,000	161,116	521,900	2,797,473	10,831	58,380
British Guiana.....	59	5,090,000	100,000	96,300	155,026	1,605	2,584
Brazil.....	433	101,258,000	233,689	2,973,400	10,045,000	6,867	23,198
Paraguay.....	46	4,602,000	100,000	86,200	1,337,451	1,874	29,074
Peru.....	55	2,925,000	52,888	498,700	2,500,000	9,067	45,455
Chili.....	336	19,563,000	58,102	249,900	1,714,319	742	5,087
Argentine Republic.....	221	11,550,000	50,000	1,126,300	1,259,355	4,876	5,452
Total.....	4,170	\$312,876,000	\$78,280	7,209,872	34,613,615	4,655	26,078
British Isles.....	13,286	\$2,072,988,000	\$156,028	122,550	29,070,936	94	2,188
France.....	8,982	1,354,113,000	150,749	213,200	37,472,732	23	4,172
Spain.....	3,116	301,858,000	96,861	189,550	16,031,267	60	5,150
Portugal.....	433	42,166,000	97,314	35,250	3,987,861	81	9,207
Switzerland.....	824	68,691,000	83,333	15,270	2,510,494	18	3,046
Italy.....	3,213	297,510,000	92,500	109,780	24,269,628	34	7,553
Austria.....	3,830	273,798,000	71,471	140,250	32,573,002	63	8,500
Prussia.....	5,794	741,560,000	129,784	235,240	23,577,939	23	4,067
North-German States.....	1,092	89,734,000	88,737	24,677	5,600,394	22	5,127
South-German States.....	2,540	225,376,000	88,737	44,520	8,523,400	17	3,355
Belgium.....	1,595	172,410,000	108,025	11,400	4,940,570	7	3,329
Holland.....	700	67,171,000	95,863	13,600	3,735,682	19	5,197
Denmark.....	295	16,886,000	57,255	14,720	1,608,895	49	5,451
Sweden.....	1,023	96,530,000	94,314	170,099	4,114,141	166	4,041
Norway.....	43	2,416,000	55,555	123,228	1,701,473	2,834	3,956
Russia.....	2,775	453,526,000	163,422	1,565,200	65,863,181	564	23,731
Turkey in Europe.....	170	5,741,000	33,667	203,380	15,700,000	1,189	92,807
Turkey in Asia.....	142	4,811,000	33,667	638,990	16,000,000	4,469	11,189
British India.....	3,379	208,838,000	61,803	1,465,300	180,500,000	433	5,327
Java.....	101	10,140,000	100,000	51,300	13,917,000	507	1,377
Ceylon.....	36	2,280,000	61,803	24,660	2,342,098	666	63,299
Egypt.....	281	28,120,000	100,000	659,000	7,465,000	234	26,565
Algeria.....	27	1,846,000	66,667	85,500	3,000,000	3,053	107,142
Cape Colony.....	84	7,544,000	89,286	104,930	267,100	1,236	3,166
Victoria.....	331	84,366,000	254,500	86,940	574,331	262	1,731
New South Wales.....	145	10,455,000	71,860	332,437	378,935	2,216	2,604
South Australia.....	73	3,630,000	49,340	383,328	140,416	5,208	1,916
New Zealand.....	16	1,650,000	100,000	106,259	175,357	6,440	10,328
Natal.....	2	200,000	100,000	14,400	156,200	730	78,000
Queensland.....	41	4,120,000	100,000	678,000	59,712	2,439	1,456
Total, 1868.....	53,381	\$6,660,470,000	\$94,447	7,853,058	506,256,947	1,472	9,482

RECAPITULATION.

COUNTRIES.	Miles.	Cost.	Area.	Population.
United States.....	36,992	\$1,517,500,000	3,001,002	31,775,990
America.....	4,170	312,876,000	7,209,872	34,613,615
Europe, etc.....	53,381	6,660,470,000	7,853,058	506,256,947
Grand total.....	94,543	\$8,490,846,000	18,063,932	572,646,552

RAPHALL, Rev. MORRIS JACOB, Ph. D., a Jewish rabbi (or preacher) and author, born in Stockholm, Sweden, in September, 1798; died in New York City, June 23, 1868. His father, a wealthy merchant, destined him for the Jewish ministry, and gave him every advantage of intellectual training. He was sent when a mere child to the Jewish College in Copenhagen, and there, at the age of thirteen, received the Hebrew degree of *Chabir* or *Socius*, analogous to the "Fellowship" of the English universities. The next year he went to England, where he spent some years, perfecting himself in the English language and literature. In his twentieth year he visited the Continent, and, after spending two years in travelling in France, Switzerland, Italy, and Germany, took up his residence early in 1821 at Giessen, and spent four years at the university there, but took no degree. In 1825 he returned to England, married, and made himself a home. He did not commence his public life, however, till his thirty-fourth year, when he delivered a course of lectures on the biblical poetry of the Hebrews. In 1834 he commenced the publication of the *Hebrew Review*, the first Jewish periodical published in England, but was compelled by impaired health to relinquish it after seventy-eight weekly numbers had appeared. Between 1834 and 1839 he translated into English several of the works of Maimonides, the *Sephir Ikkarim*, or "Book of Principles" of Rabbi Joseph Albo, and *Yain Lebanon*, a work on Ethics, by Rabbi Naphtali H. Wesseley, and published a series of essays on the Jewish festivals, entitled "Festivals of the Lord." In 1840 he was secretary to Dr. Solomon Hirschel, Chief Rabbi of England, during the persecution of the Jews at Damascus, and during that year again visited Germany. On his return, he published jointly with Rev. D. A. de Sola, of London, a translation of eighteen treatises of the "Mishna," and commenced a translation of the Hebrew Scriptures with copious notes, which, however, proceeded no farther than the end of Genesis. In 1841 he was appointed Rabbi preacher at the synagogue, Birmingham, England, and by his zealous efforts in behalf of the education of Hebrew children, his earnest advocacy of measures for relieving the civil disabilities of his people, his eloquent defence of Judaism in several controversies, and his vigorous efforts in promoting education and benevolence in the city, he won for himself high honors. In 1849 he left England for the United States, and at his departure from Birmingham a purse of 100 sovereigns was presented to him by the mayor

and principal inhabitants of the city, in acknowledgment of his eminent services in the cause of education and philanthropy. The University of Giessen had conferred on him the degrees of A. M. and Ph. D. after his publication of the "Mishna." On his arrival in New York he accepted the call of the First Anglo-German Hebrew Congregation in the city, then known as the Great Synagogue, but since as the Congregation Bnai Jeshurun, to serve them as Rabbi preacher, and, though of late years in infirm health, retained that position till his death. During his residence in New York he published, "Devotional Exercises for the Daughters of Israel" (1852); "Post-Biblical History of the Jews" 2 vols. (1856); "The Path to Immortality" (1859); "The Bible View of Slavery" (1861). He had also made considerable progress in his translation of the Hebrew Scriptures, with notes. His profound scholarship, and wide and generous culture, as well as his great ability as a writer, have made his loss a serious one, not only to his countrymen, but to the cause of learning generally.

REED ORGANS. The manufacture and sale of reed instruments rapidly grows in importance, in the amount of capital invested, the number of men employed, and in its influence upon the community, furnishing, as it does, thousands of good musical instruments at moderate prices.

The little tongue of metal, known as the *reed*, gives employment to thousands of workmen, and millions of capital, making a branch of industry second only, among musical instruments, to the manufacture of the piano-forte.

Placed over a slot, slightly smaller than itself, cut in the side of a tube or pipe, and striking against the tube as it vibrates, it is the *beating* reed. Fastened to a thicker and larger piece of metal, through which a slot, slightly larger than the tongue, has been cut, and vibrating over and into the slot, it is the *free* reed.

Reeds and pipes, unequally affected in pitch by changes of temperature, do not stay well in tune together. The beating reed, more easily tuned than its relative, is commonly used in the pipe organ. The trumpet stop is a well-known example. The free reed, though occasionally found in pipe organs as a solo stop, is almost entirely confined to instruments of the reed-organ family. The small size of the free reed, a tongue of metal an inch wide and a few inches long, giving a 16-foot or even a 32-foot tone, renders it admirably adapted for use where economy of cost or space is

desired. A European reed instrument differs much from an American, each having been made quite independently of the other. In the European, the reed-block is nearly a quarter of an inch thick, with the sides of the slot straight. This block, pierced at each end, is firmly screwed down upon hard wood. The reed is tuned by scraping the tongue, and the quality of tone modified principally by the position of the reed, and by differences of scale or size of the reeds in the different registers. The bellows is a pressure one, invariably, while the effects produced, especially in French and German instruments, are, and are intended to be, orchestral. On the contrary, in the American reed organ, the reed-block is about one sixteenth of an inch thick, and has a wide groove *burred* out on the under side, leaving thin edges to the slot. The reed is held in its place by sliding the block into grooves, cut in the sides of a cell made by boring into the edge of a *reed-board* made of soft wood. The reeds, easily drawn out by a small hook, are *voiced* by bending or twisting them more or less, and tuned by filing. The American reed organ invariably has an exhaustion bellows, drawing the air through the reeds, and gives a softer, more pipe-like quality of tone than its European relative. Indeed, the differences between the two are so great, that there are few points of resemblance, an American instrument being thought defective when viewed from a European stand-point, and *vice versa*. No European instruments are now sold in the American market.

The origin of the free reed is unknown. The Chinese have certainly long used it. They have an instrument with thirteen reeds. Each reed is formed of a thin metal plate by cutting around the tongue, excepting at the heel. This plate is then fastened to the side of a small tube of hard wood, which is inserted in the end of a larger, longer tube of bamboo, having a circular transverse hole near the lower and a longitudinal slot near the upper end. These tubes are arranged in a circular group, with the reeds inserted through holes into a wind-chest, that is supplied with wind by a mouth-piece attached to its side. A flat ring of horn holds the tubes firmly in place, and the whole makes an instrument about three and a half inches in diameter, and fifteen inches in length.

Although a few reed instruments may have been made at an earlier date in this country, it is believed that the first person engaged in their manufacture, as a business, was Mr. James A. Bazin, of Canton, Mass. As stated by himself, he made a revolving instrument, shaped like a pocket-inkstand, with nine reeds, in 1822.

Soon after, he made another, with a sliding mouth-piece, called the harmonica. And, in 1824, a revolving reed trumpet, that could be played in any key. It was as loud as a bugle, and he played it in the village choir for years. Between this time and 1832 he made several

reed organs, with double alternating bellows, and foot-treadles like those in present use. The accordion seems to have been introduced about 1830. Soon after, in 1832, Mr. Bazin invented the instrument with a tilting bellows, first called *melodium*, afterward *melodeon*, or elbow melodeon. Mr. Bazin made larger instruments, some with sliding key-boards for the easy transposition of music.

This appearance of the accordion and the elbow melodeon marks an epoch in reed instruments and largely stimulated invention and production. Abraham Prescott, of Concord, N. H., who had been engaged for some years in the manufacture of stringed instruments, violoncellos, and double-basses, purchased one of Bazin's elbow melodeons, and began the manufacture of them, and of larger instruments, about 1832 or 1833. This house, under the title of Prescott Brothers, is now the oldest in the country engaged in the business. Charles Austin, working for Mr. Prescott in 1833, made the first "seraphine" he ever saw, and also made the first melodeon in its present portable form with folding legs. He has from that time been constantly engaged in making reed instruments, or in making reeds for the trade.

M. O. Nicholls, formerly of Boston, Mass., was early in the business. Having seen an accordion, he made the first reed organs he ever saw, and applied that name to them. He also called them the "Emmoen Organs" from the initials, M. O. N., of his own name. He invented the box swell over the reeds in 1839, used tubes over them in 1840; curved his reeds in 1842; made the first sub-bass reeds he ever saw, and applied foot-pedals in 1844. In 1850 he made and advertised the *bellows swell*, since called the "automatic swell." He sold his business in Boston, and removed to Syracuse, N. Y., where he again used his bellows swell, finally abandoning it for the "knee-swell." He made instruments containing from one to nine or ten sets of reeds. He no longer manufactures organs.

Peter J. Jewett, a native of Granby, Conn., in 1831 or 1832, saw at Professor Silliman's, in New Haven, a small reed instrument that he had brought from Europe. Not allowed to examine its interior, he was told that the tones were produced by free reeds. Returning to Granby, he experimented upon the free reed, and made a five-octave instrument in 1832 or 1833, that he called an "Eolophone." This, he believed, was the first five-octave reed instrument made in the United States. It was in the form of the present reed or cabinet organ. Instruments made by Jewett and Hillyer in 1833 are still in use. The firm was dissolved in 1837, but the business was continued by Mr. Jewett until his death in 1847, and afterward by his son, S. A. Jewett, who has been in the business ever since 1845, having worked for M. O. Nicholls, and for Prince & Co., and now being one of the firm

of Jewett & Goodman, of Cleveland, Ohio. S. A. Jewett, in 1857, patented the "automatic swell," and now uses it as well as Mason & Hamlin, to whom he sold the right in 1862. Mr. N. B. Jewett, another early maker, at Worcester, Mass., in 1847, used four sets of reeds with the upright exhaustion bellows, and the organ form of case, and claims to have made two of the most important improvements now in general use, for which he received no compensation, although, as he left the business in 1861, he declines to name them.

A. L. Swan, now of Cherry Valley, N. Y., began the reed business by repairing accordions, in Boston, Mass., in 1834. In 1839 he made a reed organ with tin tubes over the reeds, and soon after, one with wooden tubes. He seems to have been the first to groove out the under side of the reed-block, thus giving thin edges to the slot, and improving the tone. He is still in the business.

Mr. C. H. Packard, of Campello, Mass., in 1839, was the first to apply regular keys to the elbow melodeon. In 1840 he made instruments in the organ form, and in 1841 made one with the bellows upright as now used, with the reeds upright inside of tubes, and the pallets over the ends of the tubes, getting a strong tone with prompt response to the touch. In 1846 he made the first four-reed organ he had seen. Mr. Packard also made and used the *divided swell*, since patented by Prince & Co.

Mr. Nathan Farley, of Farley & Pearson, was from the factory of Abraham Prescott, Concord, N. H. He began business at Worcester, in 1846. Tubes over the reeds were then in common use, usually made of thin metal. The first exhaustion bellows he had seen was made in Millbury, Mass. The business is now successfully prosecuted by Messrs. Taylor & Farley, the latter a brother of Mr. Nathan Farley. Mr. Taylor tuned reeds for seven-octave æolian pianos in 1850. They used the *manual sub-bass* in 1856, probably the first in use; carried up an octave and a half, and so arranged that but one note of any given letter should speak at once.

About this time, 1846 or 1847, the whole trade was revolutionized by the appearance and introduction of Carhart's exhaustion bellows. Previous to this the pressure bellows had been in general use. Without stopping to inquire who first invented the exhaustion bellows, for it has been invented four or five times—twice at least in Massachusetts, once as far back as 1818, as appears from the testimony given in the celebrated trial, Carhart, Needham & Co., *vs.* Charles Austin, and once in England, by Isaac England, of Wiltshire—it may be safely asserted that it was Carhart's bellows in connection with his reed-board, that came into general use and holds undisputed sway to the present time. This idea, reaching back to 1839, was perfected and patented in 1846, by Jeremiah Carhart, of Buffalo, N.

Y. In 1846 he, with Mr. E. P. Needham, began the manufacture of melodeons at Buffalo, and sold the right to others to use their patents. The melodeon, from its superiority of tone, becoming popular, soon took the lead, and the two forms of case, the portable and the piano style, rendered the organ form of case almost obsolete. Carhart & Needham afterward sold out to George A. Prince & Co., and removed to New York for the purpose of making reeds and reed-boards for the trade, by the very ingenious machinery invented by Mr. Carhart. The two establishments, George A. Prince & Co., Buffalo, N. Y., and Carhart & Needham, of New York City, are well known. The latter house have been indefatigable in their experiments for the improvement of the larger class of instruments, many of which they have built. They were the first to carry the bass down to the 32 feet C.

Mr. N. H. Goodman, formerly of Goodman & Baldwin, New Haven, Conn., now of Phelps & Goodman, Syracuse, N. Y., began the manufacture of reed instruments in 1849 or 1850. He had been an organ-builder. One of his first instruments was a seraphine with two blow pedals, and a super-octave coupler. It is still in use. This was probably the first octave coupler in a reed instrument. June 28, 1853, he patented a double-bank melodeon with one set of reeds in each bank, and a manual coupler. These "organ melodeons," as they were called, became at once so popular, that all prominent manufacturers made them, either buying the right to use his patent, or making them regardless of the patent.

With improved tone, came the desire for greater resources. Larger instruments with more sets of reeds were made by several manufacturers, requiring more room, and, consequently, a return to the square or organ form of case. A few European instruments had been imported. The earliest of much size, that we have any record of, was a French four-reed organ, brought over to Boston, in 1844, by Mr. Eliphalet Baker.

Mr. Emmons Hamlin, instructed by Mr. Carhart in voicing and tuning, stayed with Prince & Co. in Buffalo, when Carhart & Needham came to New York City. He afterward went to Boston, Mass., and entered the firm of Mason & Hamlin. Beginning with melodeons, they, in 1855, adapted the French style of case, action, and manner of blowing as far as possible, to the exhaustion bellows, and made their *harmoniums* and *organ harmoniums*, with from three sets of reeds in a single manual, up to four sets in two manuals, with two additional sets in an independent pedal; in all six sets of reeds. Resolutely maintaining that six sets were as many as could be of use in a reed instrument, they have, so far as known, made but a single large organ. In 1862 they adopted the organ form of case for all of their instruments, making single and double reed harmoniums under the trade-mark "Cabinet

Organ." Their extensive advertising, combined with various improvements made by the trade generally, have greatly increased the popularity and sale of reed instruments. Other makers changed to the organ form of case about the same time, and now it seems likely to entirely supersede the melodeon.

C. Peloubet (afterward C. Peloubet & Son, now Peloubet, Pelton & Co.), once well known as a maker of fine flutes and other wind instruments, began the manufacture of reed instruments in 1852. While making melodeons he gave much time and attention to larger instruments of the organ class. This house, as far as known, has made the only three-banked reed organs. Mr. Peloubet was the first to tune reeds in equal temperament, first introduced the twelfth and fifteenth in reed instruments, and made various improvements in voicing and in variety of tone, especially in getting a more pipe-like quality in the pedal. They make many organs with two and three banks of keys and pedals.

S. D. & H. W. Smith, of Boston, Mass., are well known as one of the oldest, largest, and most successful houses in the trade.

Estey & Co., of Brattleboro, Vermont, have been long established and have made many instruments. Two other manufacturing firms have grown out of this; one the "Burdett," located in Chicago, Ill. Many other smaller firms are scattered over the Northern States.

By this sketch it will be seen that, although a few instruments were made between 1818 and 1846, yet the manufacture of reed instruments has grown up almost entirely since the latter date, and also that it is essentially of native growth. An examination of the Patent-Office reports will show with what activity the subject has been pursued. Similar wants have suggested similar remedies to various parties, till almost every important part of the instrument has been invented several times. A curious illustration of this, and of the little value of a patent not indorsed by a judicial decision, is afforded by the so-called "automatic swell." Invented by Mr. M. O. Nicholls, in 1850, used by him for some time and then abandoned for the "knee swell," it was patented in 1857 by Mr. Stanley A. Jewett, and again in 1862 by Mr. George Woods, then with Mason & Hamlin. The business is now so well established, it is the ability to sell a good organ, quite as much as the ability to make it, that makes the successful firm. The number of reed instruments per week, now made, may be set down at from 500 to 600, with an annual value of \$3,000,000 to \$3,500,000, while six or eight houses are kept busy in making reeds and reed-boards for the trade.

REFORMED CHURCHES. I. THE "REFORMED CHURCH IN AMERICA."—This is the present title of the denomination formerly known as the Dutch Reformed Church. The statistics of this Church, in 1868, were as follows:

CLASSES.	Ministers.	Communi- cants.	Sunday-school scholars.
Albany.....	20	1,974	2,044
Arcot.....	10	433
Bergen.....	15	1,308	1,936
South Bergen.....	16	2,686	2,642
Cayuga.....	13	846	698
Geneva.....	14	1,806	1,099
Greene.....	11	1,367	888
Holland.....	15	2,108	660
Hudson.....	13	1,568	1,273
Illinois.....	17	1,154	1,312
Kingston.....	10	1,773	1,637
North Long Island.....	19	2,427	2,439
South Long Island.....	17	3,556	2,950
Michigan.....	7	474	590
Monmouth.....	7	694	385
Montgomery.....	13	1,086	772
New Brunswick.....	16	1,882	1,449
New York.....	32	5,072	5,543
South New York.....	10	1,655	1,216
Orange.....	25	3,004	1,772
Parmus.....	15	2,381	1,917
Passaic.....	14	1,445	1,086
Philadelphia.....	17	2,527	2,592
Poughkeepsie.....	19	2,023	1,281
Raritan.....	19	2,440	2,081
Rensselaer.....	13	1,692	1,220
Saratoga.....	14	1,485	1,015
Schenectady.....	11	2,012	1,095
Schoharie.....	9	1,012	839
Ulster.....	15	1,822	1,289
Westchester.....	16	1,543	1,158
Wisconsin.....	12	1,363	507
Total.....	469	59,508	47,981

The total number of churches was 440. The total amount raised for congregational purposes was \$764,447. The Board of Publication reported the number of copies issued of new books and tracts, 6,600; reprints, 44,100; amount of sales, \$16,085.43. The receipts of the Board of Education, from collections and donations, were, \$10,608.40. The receipts of the Board of Domestic Missions, \$28,476.18. The receipts of the Foreign Mission Board amounted to \$53,472. The debt at the close of the year was \$16,000. The Board sustains missions at Amoy (China); Arcot (India); and in Japan. The *Amoy Mission*, China (organized in 1844), occupies the cities of Amoy, population, 200,000; Chiuh-be, population, 60,000; Chiang-chiu, population, 200,000; Tungwan, population, 60,000. The field traversed, that is, the territory surrounding these cities, has a population of about 3,000,000 souls. Connected with this mission are four missionaries and two American assistant missionaries. Churches and stations, 6; members, 701, an increase of 75; benevolent contributions, \$654.82. There are 3 schools, with 57 scholars. This mission employs 12 native helpers, and has 7 theological students. The *Arcot Mission*, India (organized in 1854), occupies—North Arcot District: area, 5,017 square miles; population, 1,000,716. South Arcot District: area, 4,916 square miles; population, 1,102,184. Churches, 13; out-stations, 34; number in congregations, 1,712; communicants, 439; scholars in vernacular school, 416; contributions, over 936 rupees, or \$468. The three schools (boys', girls', and preparandi) have 105 pupils. The *Japan Mission* (organized in 1859) has stations at Yokohama and Nagasaki, and three missionaries with

their wives. The report states that the missionary has a class of 25 to 30 pupils. One of his pupils held meetings at Jeddo on Sundays and alternate week-days till disturbed by the civil commotions. The missionary at Nagasaki was engaged in teaching in the Government schools, using such opportunities as have been afforded to make known the truths of revelation, within the regulations of the institution. He gave regular instruction for many months of the year to two priests. Four of the foremost princes of Japan requested him to take charge of a school at their capitals, carrying their courtesy to the length of placing a steamer at his disposal to enable him to visit their provinces. Two imperial governors called upon him to consult him in regard to educational and religious matters. A large number of Christian books and tracts in Chinese, and publications of the mission presses, were distributed, and many works purchased by the Japanese.

The General Synod of the Church met at Hudson, N. Y., on the 20th of June. Resolutions were adopted, recommending a national convention of Evangelical denominations of the United States, for the purpose of promoting concert and union in general measures, to meet in October, 1869. A committee, consisting of the President, Assessor, Stated Clerk, and two Elders, was appointed to issue a circular letter from the American Reformed Church to the Synods, Assemblies, or Conferences of other bodies, at their next regular meetings, inviting them to unite in such a National Congress, not for any obligatory legislation, but for general consultation upon the unity of the Church and the demands of the times.

II. THE GERMAN REFORMED CHURCH.—This Church has three synods: the Eastern Synod; the Synod of Ohio and the adjacent States; and the Northwestern Synod. The Eastern Synod reports, for 1868, 286 ministers, 706 congregations, 86,057 members, 50,391 unconfirmed members, 691 Sunday-schools, with 31,239 Sunday scholars, and benevolent contributions amounting to \$63,744.38. This shows an increase over the preceding year of 8 ministers, 26 congregations, 2,927 members, 34 Sunday-schools, 3,212 Sunday-school scholars, and \$12,212 benevolent contributions. The Synod of Ohio and the adjacent States reported in 1868 the following statistics: number of ministers, 180; number of congregations, 316; whole number of members in the bounds of the eight Classes, 31,670; baptisms, 2,000; confirmations, 1,261; received by certificate, 595; making whole number of admissions, 3,856; dismissions by letter, 331; ex-communications and erasures, 102; deaths, 535; Sunday-schools, 217; Sunday-school scholars, 10,470; benevolent contributions, \$18,349.44.

Adding the statistics reported by the Northwestern Synod, the total statistics at the beginning of the year 1869 were as follows:

ministers, 505; congregations, 1,181; members, 115,483; unconfirmed members, 68,186; Sunday-schools, 991, with 44,495 Sunday-school scholars, and benevolent contributions amounting to \$87,284.09. The figures show a general increase from the previous year.

III. REFORMED CHURCHES IN EUROPE AND AFRICA.—(For statistical information on these churches, see the ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.)

REUSS, the name of two German principalities. 1. REUSS-GREITZ. Prince, Henry XXII., born March 28, 1854; succeeded his father November 8, 1859. Area, 148 square miles; population in 1867, 43,889. 2. REUSS-SCHLEITZ. Prince, Henry XIV., born May 28, 1832; succeeded his father July 11, 1867. Area, 297 square miles; population, in 1867, 88,097. Annual revenue of Reuss-Greizt, 200,000 thalers; of Reuss-Schleitz (budget of 1868) 229,893 thalers. Public debt (exclusive of paper money) of Reuss-Greizt, 75,000 thalers; of Reuss-Schleitz, 372,050 thalers. The troops of both principalities (their former Federal contingent was 1,117 men) form, in consequence of a military convention concluded with Prussia, together with the troops of Saxe-Altenburg and Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, one of the three regiments of the Thuringian States.

RHODE ISLAND. The annual election for State officers of Rhode Island is held on the first Wednesday in April. The Democratic convention assembled at Providence and nominated for Governor Lyman Pierce, and for Lieutenant-Governor Gideon H. Durfee. Delegates were also appointed to the National Democratic Convention, and resolutions adopted of a similar tenor with those in other States.

The Republican State Convention assembled at Providence about the same time, and re-nominated General A. E. Burnside for reelection as Governor, and Pardon W. Stevens for Lieutenant-Governor. The election was held on April 1st. The whole vote cast was 15,225, and General Burnside's majority was 4,309. The vote was much larger than at the election of the previous year, and the Republican majority was increased a few hundreds. This vote, in connection with the result of the election in New Hampshire, was regarded as emphatically sustaining the congressional policy of reconstruction, and "the wisdom and justice of the impeachment of President Johnson."

The Legislature chosen at this election was composed of 27 Republicans and 5 Democrats in the Senate; and 62 Republicans and 28 Democrats in the House.

At the Presidential election in November, the whole vote cast was 19,541; and the majority of General Grant was 6,443. For Congress, in the eastern district, Thomas A. Jenckes, Republican, received 7,995 votes, and Olney Arnold, Democrat, 4,080. Jenckes's majority, 3,915. In the western district, Nathaniel F. Dixon, Republican, received 4,135 votes,

and James Waterhouse, Democrat, 2,640. Dixon's majority, 1,492.

On May 26th, Governor Burnside was inaugurated for the third time. The Legislature was convened at the same time. The most important business of this brief session was the election of a United States Senator. This took place on June 9th, when William Sprague received the unanimous vote of both Houses. This body soon after adjourned to the date of its session in the winter.

In the State of Rhode Island a property qualification in real estate of \$134 is required of every voter. The effect of this is to cut off a large portion of foreign-born citizens from the liberty of voting. Several attempts have been made to remove this clause from the State constitution, and hitherto without success. It has been modified to allow those holding a renting of \$7 per annum to vote. Every native male citizen who has paid a tax of \$1, performed militia service, and is registered, if twenty-one years of age, is allowed to vote.

Imprisonment for debt is authorized by law in the State. The policy of the law has been such as to deal with the person of the debtor, and to leave the property unharmed. So long as the debtor is within the State, his property is, in the first instance, exempt, and the writ proceeds against the person. If the debtor departs from the State, then the sacredness of his property disappears, and the creditor can seize it. A modification of the law has been proposed.

The establishment of a State asylum for the pauper insane was discussed and approved in the Legislature at its session in May, and a committee appointed to examine and recommend a site for its location. A large number of this class of persons has been maintained at the Butler Asylum in Providence, which is now becoming crowded. The indigent blind and deaf and dumb have been maintained at institutions in other States.

The State prison contains 59 prisoners. A reformatory school in Providence receives the juvenile delinquents of the State of both sexes, and provides for their education and employment.

The number of children in the public schools averages in winter 23,720. The permanent school fund amounts to \$412,685.

The unsettled claims of the State against the Federal Government have been adjusted and allowed, except the sum of \$110. The receipts into the State Treasury during the year were \$397,736, and the expenditures \$257,817, leaving a balance of \$139,919. The State debt is \$3,141,500.

At the session of the Legislature in May, a commission was appointed to investigate the practicability of restocking the waters of the State with salmon and other migrating fish. The commissioners made a personal examination of all the rivers and main streams of the State. The following is an extract from their report:

Forming, as this river (Pawtucket) does for a portion of its course, the boundary between Rhode Island and Massachusetts, some joint legislation in regard to it must be had, and we have no doubt that the inhabitants of our sister State will join heartily with us in the good cause.

Our course must be, in the event of attempting anything of the kind, to build fishways over the dams, to stock the head waters of the stream with young salmon and shad, and to pass stringent laws forbidding netting in any part of the stream for two or three years; at the end of which time, with proper management, the river, which is now totally barren, will swarm with fish. We think a properly conducted experiment in restocking this river with shad and herring might be made at a cost not exceeding one thousand dollars, perhaps for less; and, in case of success, your commissioners hope that the manufacturers on other rivers will find it for their interests to open fishways, protect the water from impurity, and join with the State government in the propagation and growth of fishes in their waters.

We also visited the Wauchog pond in Charlestown, with the view of ascertaining the probability of stocking its waters with black bass, a very gamey, excellent, and prolific fish, whose natural habitat is the more northern and western streams of Canada and New York, but which have been introduced with good success into various waters of the Eastern States.

We find said pond admirably adapted for the purpose by nature, as it has an outlet into Pawtucket River, which would give the fish a circulation through the entire waters of the southern part of the State. We found the people on the borders of the pond reluctant to promise us assistance until our repeated assurances convinced them we were laboring for the public good.

For the purpose of stocking this and other ponds with black bass, we are confident no appropriation need be made, but that, aided and protected by proper legislation, private enterprise will, within a short time, stock all our inland waters, fit for the purpose, with this splendid fish.

The commissioners close with the following remarks, relative to the sea-coast fisheries:

While it is right and proper that the river fisheries should be protected, and measures taken to increase the supply, it is easy to show that, in real importance and commercial value, the products of our shores and bays greatly exceed them. Our markets, and through them the people, depend chiefly upon salt water for their supply of fish. That this supply is variable and by no means what it should be, either in quantity or price, is indisputable.

That the demand for fish, clams, and oysters, has increased within the past few years, is no doubt true, and this fact has doubtless had an effect upon the market prices; but the chief cause will be found to be the steadily decreasing supply of the more common kinds of shell-fish and sea fishes.

Take, for example, the clam, one of Rhode Island's most boasted institutions. Within a few years the price has increased threefold, while the quantity and quality have deteriorated in the same proportion.

This seems to us a subject for grave consideration, and we take this occasion to recommend to your honorable body the advisability of appointing a committee of disinterested men, who shall examine into the whole matter thoroughly, and report at the earliest possible moment, as it is a subject which has been procrastinated much too long for the public good.

RIVES, WILLIAM C., an American statesman and diplomatist, born in Nelson County, Va., May 14, 1793; died near Charlottesville, Albemarle County, Va., April 26, 1868. He was educated at Hampden Sidney and William and Mary Colleges; studied law and politics under

the direction of Thomas Jefferson; was aide-de-camp in 1814-'15 with a body of militia and volunteers, called out for the defence of Virginia; was elected to the Legislature of Virginia in 1817, '18, and '19, from Nelson County; and in 1822 to the same position, from Albemarle County. In 1823 he was elected a Representative in Congress, and served for three successive terms; in 1829 he was appointed by President Jackson minister to France; on his return, in 1832, he was elected a Senator in Congress, and resigned in 1834, in consequence of his unwillingness to participate in the Senate's vote of censure of President Jackson's conduct in removing the deposits—an act which he approved, but the Virginia Legislature reprobated; was reelected in 1835, the political character of the Virginia Legislature being changed; and served to the end of the term in 1839; voting in March, 1837, for Thomas H. Benton's famous expunging resolution; in 1840 was reelected to the Senate, where he remained until 1845. In 1849 he was a second time appointed minister to France, by President Taylor, and returned in 1853, when he retired from political life. In 1861 Mr. Rives was one of the five commissioners sent from Virginia to the "Peace Congress" at Washington. He was a member of the Confederate Provisional Congress and House of Representatives during the war. One of his most valuable contributions to historical literature was his "Life and Times of Madison," in two volumes, the first of which was published in 1859, the second in 1866. In the preparation of this work he had the advantage of a long and intimate acquaintance with its subject, and the use of all his manuscripts and papers. From several passages in the second volume of this work, it seems evident that Mr. Rives's sympathy with the secession movement was not earnest or profound, but that, like many other Southern men, he deemed it necessary to "go with his State." In private life Mr. Rives was amiable, intelligent, and courteous; a man of extensive culture, and generally correct though not always profound ideas.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH. The Pope, Pius IX., formerly Giovanni Maria di Mastai Ferretti, was born at Sinigaglia on the 13th of May, 1792; elected Pope on the death of Gregory XVI., in 1846, and crowned on the 21st of June of that year.

There were, in November, 1868, 57 cardinals, of whom 6 were cardinal bishops, 43 cardinal priests, and 8 cardinal deacons; 39 were Italian by birth, and only 18 non-Italians—7 French, 4 Spanish, 4 Germans, 1 Croatian, 1 Portuguese, and 1 Irish. Among the new cardinals created in 1868, was Prince Lucien Bonaparte, a cousin of the Emperor of France.

The *Annuario Pontificio* for 1868 gives the following summary of the Patriarchal, Archiepiscopal and Episcopal Sees of the Roman Catholic Church:

PATRIARCHATES.	
Of the Latin Rite and Oriental Rite.....	12
ARCHBISHOPRICS.	
<i>Latin Rite.</i>	
Immediately subordinate to the Holy See.....	12
With Ecclesiastical Provinces.....	130
<i>Oriental Rite.</i>	
With Ecclesiastical Provinces.	
Armenian Rite.....	1
Greco-Rumanian Rite.....	1
Greco-Ruthenian Rite.....	1
Dependent on Oriental Patriarchs.	
Greco-Melchite Rite.....	3
Syro-Maronite Rite.....	1
	— 139
BISHOPRICS.	
<i>Latin Rite.</i>	
Suburban (the Sees of the Cardinal Bishops).....	6
Immediately subject to the Holy See.....	84
Suffragans in Ecclesiastical Provinces.....	561
<i>Oriental Rite.</i>	
Armenian.....	16
Greco-Melchite.....	8
Greco-Rumanian.....	3
Greco-Ruthenian.....	5
Greco-Bulgarian.....	1
Syriac.....	11
Syro-Chaldaic.....	12
Syro-Maronite.....	7
	— 714

Total Patriarchates, Archbishoprics, and Bishoprics. 865

Of these dioceses, 107, namely, 5 archbishoprics and 102 bishoprics, have been established by Pope Pius IX., who has also raised 13 bishoprics to the rank of archbishoprics.

In addition to the actual diocesan bishops, there are a number of titular bishops (bishops *in partibus infidelium*), who are either coadjutors of diocesan bishops or vicars apostolic, delegates apostolic, and prefects apostolic. There are 103 vicariates apostolic, 5 delegations apostolic, and 22 prefectures apostolic; total, 130. All these three names designate a special territory, like dioceses, but the incumbents have not the full rights of diocesan bishops. Twenty-five of these 130 ecclesiastical districts have been organized by Pope Pius IX. The total number of titular bishops, in January, 1869, was 229.

Of the dioceses at the beginning of the year, 112 were vacant, leaving 753 which were occupied. Adding to this number the 229 bishops *in partibus*, we have a total number of 982 bishops constituting the Catholic hierarchy at the beginning of the year 1868.*

The following list gives the classification and names of the religious orders (according to the *Annuario Pontificio* for 1868), with the titles of the superiors:

* The *Annuario Pontificio* for 1869 did not reach us in time for this article. The following summary we take from a newspaper report:

The *Annuario* gives 12 patriarchs of Latin and Oriental rite, 12 Latin archbishops immediately dependent on the Holy See, 120 with ecclesiastical provinces, 7 Oriental archbishops. Total, 139. Of Latin bishops there are 6 called suburbicarian, always cardinals, with sees near Rome; 84 immediately subject to the Holy See, and 570 with dioceses; 66 bishops of the Oriental rite. Total, 723. His Holiness has elevated to the metropolitan dignity 20 sees and erected 6 archbishoprics and 112 bishoprics. Archbishoprics' sees *in partibus*, 36; bishops' sees *in partibus*, 198. The vacant sees are, 1 patriarchal, 9 archiepiscopal, 100 episcopal. Those occupied amount to 747 patriarchal and residential, and 234 *in partibus*. There are 125 apostolic delegations, vicariates and prefectures, besides which the present Pope has created thirty-two similar offices. Of these, eighteen are vacant.

Name of Order.	Title of Superior.
<i>Regular Canons.</i>	
Most Holy Saviour of Lateran.	Vicar-General.
<i>Regular Clerks.</i>	
Theatines.....	General (Preposito-Gen- erale).
Barnabites.....	"
Somaschians.....	"
Jesuits.....	"
Minor Clerks.....	Vicar-General.
Ministers of the Sick.....	Prefect-General.
Ministers of the Mother of God.....	Rector-General.
Ministers of the Pious Schools.	General.
<i>Religious Congregations.</i>	
Passionists.....	General.
Most Holy Redeemer.....	Superior-General.
<i>Ecclesiastical Congregations.</i>	
Doctrinarians.....	Vicar-General.
Priests of the Mission.....	Superior-General.
Pious Works.....	General (Preposito-Gen- erale).
Missionaries of the Most Pre- cious Blood.....	Director-General.
Institute of Charity.....	General (Preposito-Gen- erale).
Marists.....	Superior-General.
Priests of the Society of Mis- sions.....	"
Priests of the Resurrection.....	"
Priests of the Sacred Hearts.....	"
Priests of the Holy Cross.....	"
Brothers of the Christian Schools.....	"
Brothers of Mercy.....	"
<i>Monks.</i>	
Basilians.....	Visitor-General.
Monte Casino.....	President.
Camaldulensians.....	Vicar-General.
Vallombrosians.....	General.
Cistercians.....	President-General.
Trappists.....	Vicar-General.
Benedictine Congregation of Monte Virgine.....	Abbot-General.
Olivetans.....	Vicar-General.
Silvestrians.....	General.
Order of St. Jerome.....	Abbot and Superior- General.
Carthusians.....	Prior of the Grand Char- treux and General.
Chaldee Antonians of Con- gregation of S. Hormisdas.	Abbot-General.
Maronite Antonians of the Congregation Baladita.....	"
Maronite Antonians of the Congregation of Aleppo.....	"
Maronite Antonians of the Congregation of S. Isala	"
Armenian Antonians of Mount Lebanon.....	"
Mechitarists Antonians of Venice.....	"
Mechitarists Antonians of Vienna.....	"
Melchite (Greek) Basilians of the Congregation of the Most Holy Saviour.....	"
Melchite (Greek) Basilians of the Congregation of Aleppo.....	"
Melchite (Greek) Basilians of the Congregation Baladita.	"
<i>Mendicant Orders.</i>	
Dominicans.....	Master-General.
Franciscans (Observantines). (Conventuales).....	Minister-General.
Capuchins.....	"
Third Order of Franciscans.....	Vicar-General.
Augustinians.....	Prior-General.
Discalcate Augustinians.....	Vicar-General.
Carmelites.....	"
Discalcate Carmelites.....	General (Preposito- Generale).
Servants of Mary.....	Prior-General.
Minims.....	Vicar-General.
Order for the Redemption of Slaves.....	"
Trinitarians.....	"
Reformed Trinitarians.....	Minister-General.
Order of St. Jerome (Congre- gation of St. Peter of Pisa)	General.
Hospitallers of St. John.....	"
Fathers of Penance.....	"

The following table gives the statistics of churches, chapels and stations, priests, religious orders, and Catholic population, according to the *Catholic Almanac* for 1869:

	Churches, in- clud- ing build- ing.	Chapels and stations.	Priests.	Religious communities.	Catholic population.
ARCHBISHOPRICS.					
Baltimore.....	122	35	193	30
Cincinnati.....	122	55	135	11	139,000
New Orleans.....	89	..	133
New York.....	110	31	203	18
Oregon City.....	14	included in no. of churches	13
San Francisco.....	62	24	78
St. Louis.....	106	20	165	17
BISHOPRICS.					
Albany.....	260	included in no. of churches	140	13	230,000
Alton.....	123	..	100	..	85,000
Boston.....	136	36	155	18	350,000
Brooklyn.....
Buffalo.....	165	30	116	27	120,000
Burlington.....	48	..	21	..	32,000
Charleston.....	16	23	18	2	12,000
Chicago.....	125	..	125	28	250,000
Cleveland.....	150	..	90	26	100,000
Columbus.....	41	23	43	5	40,000
Covington.....	44	45	33	14
Detroit.....	75	..	82	..	150,000
Dubuque.....	98	40	76	7
Erie.....	55	..	35	4	30,000
Fort Wayne.....	77	10	63	6	45,000
Galveston.....	55	..	75	..	15,000
Grass Valley.....	35	70	17	3
Green Bay.....	26	..	40,000
Hartford.....	94	64	90	5	30,000
Harrisburg.....	40	21	22	3	25,000
La Crosse.....	47	52	15
Little Rock.....	10	25	7	2	1,500
Louisville.....	75	..	84	11	80,000
Marquette and Saut St. Marie.....	21	16	15	4	22,000
Milwaukee.....	221	49	144	8	150,000
Mobile.....	22	..	33	..	10,000
Monterey and Los An- geles.....	26	23	32	3	30,000
Nashville.....	17	..	17
Natchez.....	18	..	17	2
Natchitoches.....
Nesqually.....	12	10,000
Newark.....
Philadelphia.....	93	35	157	12	200,000
Pittsburg.....	110	..	110	7	118,000
Portland.....	51	32	34	4	50,000
Richmond.....	15	13	13	2	15,000
Rochester.....
Santa Fé.....	25	160	52	5	111,000
Savannah.....	15	30	9	5	20,000
Scranton.....	50	40	23	2	60,000
St. Joseph.....	11	..	9	2	14,000
St. Paul.....	105	89	58	7	80,000
Vincennes.....	116	86	86	4	75,000
Wheeling.....	35	9	24	4	15,000
Wilmington.....	13
VICARIATES APOSTOLIC.					
Colorado and Utah.....	28	..	17,000
East of Rocky Mount's Florida.....	32	39	..	10
Idaho.....
Montana.....
Nebraska.....	17	22	10	2
North Carolina.....	8	11	3	..	700

The increase of bishoprics has been more rapid in America than in any other part of the world, and bids fair to remain so for many years to come, in consequence of the rapid increase of population. The following list contains a complete list of the American Ecclesiastical Provinces, with the names of all archbishoprics and suffragan bishoprics which constitute them:

ARCHBISHOPRICS.	Suffragan Bishoprics.	Countries over which Eccles. Prov. extends.
New York.....	Albany, Boston, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Burlington, Hartford, Newark, Portland, Rochester.	United States.
Baltimore.....	Charleston, Erie, Harrisburg, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Richmond, Savannah, Scranton, Wheeling, Wilmington.	
Cincinnati.....	Cleveland, Columbus, Covington, Detroit, Fort Wayne, Louisville, Marquette, Vincennes.	
St. Louis.....	Alton, Chicago, Dubuque, Green Bay, La Crosse, Milwaukee, Nashville, Galveston, Mobile, Little Rock, Natchez, Natchitoches.	" "
New Orleans.....	Monterey, Grass Valley.	" "
San Francisco.....	Nesqually, Vancouver's Island.	" "
Oregon City.....	Rimouski, Hamilton, Kingston, Sandwich, Montreal, St. Boniface, St. Hyacinth, Toronto, Three Rivers, Ottawa (Bytown).	United States and British America.
Quebec.....	Arichat, Charlottetown, Chatham, St. John's (New Brunswick).	British America.
Halifax.....	Roseau (and the Vicariate Apostolic of Demerara and Jamaica).	" "
Port of Spain.....	Antequera (or Oaxaca), Chispa, Chilapa, Yucatan (or Merida), Tlascala (or Puebla), Tulancingo, Vera Cruz (or Jalapa).	" "
Mexico.....	Leon, San Luis Potosi, Queretaro, Zamora.	Mexico.
Michoacan.....	Durango, Linares, Sonora, Zacatecas.	" "
Guadalajara.....	Comayagua, Nicaragua, San José (Costa Rica), San Salvador.	Central America.
Guatemala.....	Havana.	West Indies.
Santiago de Cuba.....	Porto Rico.	" "
San Domingo.....	Aux Cayes, Cape Haytien, Gonaives, Port-à-la-Paix.	" "
Port-au-Prince.....	Barguissimeto, Calabozo, Guayana, Merida.	Venezuela.
Caracas.....	Antioquia, Cartagena, Pamplona Nueva, Panama, Pasto, Popayan, S. Marta.	U. S. of Colombia.
Bogota.....	Cuenca, Guayaquil, Ibarra, Loja, Riobamba.	Ecuador.
Quito.....	Concepcion, Aneud, Coquimbo.	Chile.
Santiago.....	Arequipa, Chachapoyas, Cuzco, Guamanga y Ayacucho, Huancu, Puno, [Trujillo].	Argentine Republic and Paraguay.
Lima.....	Cordova, Cuyo, Parana, Salta, Asuncion.	Bolivia.
Buenos Ayres.....	Cochabamba, La Paz, S. Cruz de la Sierra.	Brazil.
Charcas.....	Cuyaba, Diamantina, Fortaleza, Goyazes, Marianne, Para, Pernambuco, Rio Janeiro, Maragnano, S. Paolo, San Pedro nel Rio Grande.	
Bahia.....		

In addition to the sees above enumerated, there are two immediately subject to the Holy See—St. John's and Harbor Grace, in Nova Scotia; and two belonging to the French Ecclesiastical Province of Bordeaux. Total number of American archbishoprics, 25; of bishoprics, 127; of American dioceses, 152.

Besides these bishops, there were, in America, in 1868, 13 vicars apostolic (Nebraska, North Carolina, Florida, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, East of Rocky Mountains, British Columbia, Curaçoa, Jamaica, Mackenzie, Demerara, Surinam), and 2 prefects apostolic (Islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, Cayenne).

The following are the statistics of some of the monastic orders (according to P. Karl von heil. Aloys, *Statist. Jahrbuch der Kirche*, Ratisbon, 1862): Male—Franciscans, 50,000; School Brethren, 16,000; Congregations for nursing the sick, 6,000; Benedictines, 5,000; Dominicans, 4,000; Carmelites, 4,000; Trappists, 4,000; Lazarists, 2,000; Piarists, 2,000; Redemptorists, 2,000. There are about 190,000 members in female orders, of whom 162,000 are in Europe, 20,000 in America, and the rest in other parts of the world. The order of Jesuits, according to the latest published statistics (1868), comprises 8,168 members, of whom 1,589 speak the Italian language, 2,422 French, 2,111 the various tongues of Northern Europe, 1,148 Spanish, and 698 English. The entire Order is distributed into twenty-one provinces. From authentic records it appears that there is an increase of nearly 100 members yearly. Those on mission all over the world are 1,358.

The number of archbishoprics, bishoprics, and vicariates in the British dominions is (according to the London *Catholic Directory* for 1869) as follows:

	Archbishoprics.	Bishoprics.	Vicariates.
England.....	1	12	..
Ireland.....	4	24	..
Scotland.....	3
COLONIES.			
Europe.....	..	2	1
North America.....	2	17	2
West Indies.....	1	1	2
Africa.....	..	1	4
India, Burmah, etc.....	20
Australia.....	1	10	..
New Zealand.....	..	2	..
Total.....	9	69	32

England proper had, in 1868, 1,489 priests, 1,122 churches, chapels, and stations, 67 communities of men, 214 female convents, and 18 colleges; Scotland, 201 priests, 207 churches, chapels, and stations, 18 convents and 2 colleges. The *Directory* gives the number of Roman Catholic peers of Great Britain as 30, and the number of Roman Catholic baronets as 50. It also names 38 Roman Catholic members of the House of Commons, most of whom are from Ireland.

In accordance with the design expressed in his allocation to the assembly of the Roman Catholic bishops, held in Rome, in June, 1867 (*see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867), the Pope on the 29th of June, 1868, issued a Bull convoking an Ecumenical Council of the Roman Catholic Church, to begin in Rome, on the 8th of December, 1869. The Bull is as follows:

The only-begotten Son of the Eternal Father, out of the great love which He bore unto us, descended from His celestial throne, in order to redeem, in the fulness of time, the whole human race from the yoke of sin and from bondage to Satan and the darkness of terror in which, by the fault of their first parent, they had long since miserably fallen; and He, not declining from the paternal glory, was born of the

Immaculate and Most Holy Virgin Mary, and manifested His doctrine and the rule of life brought from heaven, attesting it with so many excellent works, and giving Himself up as an offering for us and as a victim to God in the odor of sanctity; and, having vanquished death, He, before ascending into heaven to sit upon the right hand of the Father, sent His apostles into the world to preach the Gospel to every creature, and gave to them the power of ruling the Church purchased by His own blood, and thus constituted what is the column and firmament of truth; and, enriched by celestial treasures, shows the certain path of salvation and the light of true doctrine to all people. In order, then, that the government of the Church should be ever maintained in a right and well-ordered course, and that the whole Christian world should uphold one sole faith, doctrine, charity, and communion, He promised His aid unto the end of time, and chose Peter, whom He had declared to be Prince of the Apostles, His Vicar on earth, and head, foundation, and centre of the Church, so that, invested with this rank and honor, and with amplitude of chief and full authority, power, and jurisdiction, he should feed the sheep and the lambs, confirm the brethren, rule the universal Church, and be the gate-keeper of heaven, and arbiter to bind and to loose; the effect of his judgment remaining unaltered in heaven (St. Leo, sermon 11).

And that the unity and integrity of the Church and her government might remain perpetually immutable, therefore the Roman pontiffs, successors of St. Peter, sitting in this same Roman chair of Peter, inherit and possess in full vigor the very same supreme authority, jurisdiction, and primacy of Peter over the whole Church.

Hence the Roman pontiffs, using their pastoral care and authority over the whole flock of the Lord divinely intrusted to them by Christ Himself in the person of the blessed Peter, have spared no fatigue in making every possible provision, in order that, from the rising to the setting sun, all people and all nations should have knowledge of the evangelical doctrine, and, by walking in the way of truth and justice, attain eternal life.

It is known to all with what unwearying care the Roman Pontiffs have sought to preserve the deposit of the faith, the discipline of the clergy, and the holy and learned teachings, and the sanctity and dignity of matrimony, and to promote and extend the education of the youth of both sexes, to foster the religion and piety of the people, and virtuous manners, to defend justice, and to assure the tranquillity, order, prosperity, and rights of civil society. Nor have the Pontiffs omitted, when they have deemed it useful, especially in times of great perturbation and calamity for our most holy religion and civil society, to convoke general councils, to the end that, by consulting with all the bishops of the Catholic world, whom the Holy Ghost has appointed to rule the Lord's Church, they might, by their united strength, providentially and wisely ordain all those things that would chiefly serve to define the dogmas of the faith, dispel errors already propagated, or that might thenceforward be propagated, illustrate and elucidate doctrine, uphold and reform ecclesiastical discipline, and correct the corrupt manners of peoples.

It is already known and manifest to all how horrible a tempest now agitates the Church, and what grievous ills afflict civil society. The Catholic Church, her salutary doctrine, her venerated power, and the supreme authority of this Apostolic See, are opposed and set at naught by the bitter enemies of God and man. All sacred things are contemned, ecclesiastical property is plundered, bishops and honored men attached to the divine ministry, and men distinguished for their Catholic sentiments, are troubled in every way, and religious families suppressed. Impious books of every kind, pestilent journals, and multitudinous and most pernicious

sects are spread abroad on all sides. The education of the unhappy young is nearly everywhere withdrawn from the clergy, and, what is worse, is in many places confided to masters of impiety and error.

Thus, to our poignant grief, and that of all good men, and with mischief to souls that can never be sufficiently deplored, impiety and corruption of manners have everywhere propagated themselves; and there prevail an unbridled license, and a contagion of depraved opinions of all kinds, and of all vices and immoralities, and so great a violation of divine and human laws, that not only our most holy religion, but human society also, is thereby miserably disturbed and afflicted. In the heavy accumulation of calamities whereby our heart is thus oppressed, the supreme pastoral charge confided to us requires that we should ever increasingly exert our strength to repair the ruin of the Church, to heal the souls of the Lord's flock, and to repel the assaults and fatal attempts of those who try to uproot from their foundation, if that were possible, both the Church and civil society. And truly, by the help of God, from the commencement of our Pontificate, we, conscious of our solemn obligation, have never ceased to raise our voice in our consistorial allocutions and apostolic letters, and to defend constantly by every effort the cause of God and His holy Church, confided unto us by the Lord Christ, to uphold the rights of this Apostolic See, and of justice and truth, and to unmask the insidious devices of its enemies, to condemn errors and false doctrines, to proscribe impious sects, and to watch over and provide for the salvation of all the Lord's flock. And following the practice of our illustrious predecessors, we have deemed it opportune to assemble a General Council, which we have already long desired, of all our venerable brethren, the bishops of the whole Catholic world, who are now called to take part in our sollicitude. These our venerable brethren, prompted by the warmest love for our Catholic Church, and remarkable for eminent piety, and for reverence toward us and this Apostolic See, anxious also for the salvation of souls and excellent in wisdom, in doctrine, and erudition, and greatly lamenting with us the grievous condition of sacred and profane things, they will hold nothing more precious than to communicate to us their judgment, and confer with us in order to provide salutary remedies for so many calamities.

All these things have to be most carefully examined and regulated in this Œcumenical Council, more particularly with regard to all that in these evil times concerns the greatest glory of God, the integrity of the faith, the respect for divine worship, and the eternal salvation of men, the discipline of the orders of the clergy, and their solid and salutary training, the observance of ecclesiastical laws, the amelioration of manners, the education of Christian youth, and the peace and concord of all. And further, the Council must seek by anxious study that, by the help of God, all ills may be removed from civil society, that erring wanderers may be led back into the right way of truth, and that vice and error may be eliminated, our august religion and her salutary doctrine may everywhere be quickened by fresh life, and may still further extend their influence, and thus piety, honesty, probity, justice, charity, and all the Christian virtues may gather strength and flourish, to the great benefit of human society. None can ever deny that the strength of the Catholic Church and her doctrine does not alone regard the eternal salvation of men, but is essential also to the temporal welfare of peoples, and to their real prosperity, order, and tranquillity, and even to the progress and solidity of human science, as the annals of sacred and profane history clearly prove, by a series of splendid facts, and still constantly demonstrate.

And since Christ the Lord so greatly consoles and comforts us with those words, "For when two or three are gathered together in My name, there I am in the midst of them," we cannot doubt that, in the

abundance of His divine mercy, He would vouchsafe to be present at this Council, in which we shall be able to establish those things that in any way regard the welfare of His holy Church.

Therefore, after most fervent prayer offered up day and night in the humility of our heart to God the Father of light, we have judged it to be expedient that this Council should be assembled. For this cause, strong in the authority of God the Father Almighty, the Son, and the Holy Ghost, and of the holy apostles, Peter and Paul, which authority we represent on earth, we, with the counsel and consent of our venerable brethren the Cardinals of the holy Roman Church, by these present letters, announce, convoke, and ordain, the sacred Œcumenical and General Council to be holden in that our city of Rome in the coming year, 1869, in the Vatican Basilica, commencing upon the 8th day of December, sacred to the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary, and to be prosecuted and conducted to its termination by the help of God, to His glory and to the salvation of all Christian peoples.

We therefore desire and command that our venerable brethren, the patriarchs, archbishops, bishops, as also our beloved sons, the abbots, and all others who, by right or privilege, are entitled to sit in general councils, and to manifest their opinions to the same, should, from all parts, repair to this Œcumenical Council, convoked by us, and to this effect we invite, exhort, and admonish them, both in virtue of the oath they have taken to us and this holy See, and of holy obedience, and under the penalties by law or custom, decreed against those who fail to appear at the councils. We rigorously ordain and prescribe that they shall be bound to attend this sacred Council, unless withheld by some just impediment, which, however, must in all cases be proved to the Synod by the intermediary of legitimate proxies.

We cherish the hope that God, in whose hands are the hearts of men, showing himself favorable to our desire, may grant that, by His ineffable mercy and grace, all the supreme princes and governors, more especially Catholic, of all nations, growing daily more conscious of the immense benefits which human society derives from the Catholic Church, and knowing that the Church is the most stable foundation of empires and kingdoms, not only will not impede our venerable brethren, the bishops, and others from attending this Council, but will rather aid and favor this object, and cooperate zealously, as becomes Catholic princes, in all that may result to the greater glory of God, and the benefit of this Council.

To the end that these, our letters and the things therein contained, may come to the knowledge of all whom it may concern, and that no person may be able to plead ignorance of the same; and as, possibly, they might not securely reach all those to whom they may be personally addressed, we desire and command that the present letters be read publicly and audibly by the messengers of our Curia, or some public notary, in the Lateran, Vatican, and Liberian Basilicas. After having been read, they shall be affixed to the doors of the said Churches, the gates of the Apostolic Chancery, in the usual place in the Campo di Fiori, and in other public places, where they will remain for some time, for the information of all. When the originals shall be removed, they will be replaced by copies in the same places. In view of such lectures, publication, and exhibition, we ordain that, two months from the date of publication and posting of our letters, all and each of those whom they may concern will be bound thereby, equally as if they had been read and communicated to them personally. We further order and decree that copies of these letters, written or signed by a public notary, and bearing the seal of some ecclesiastical dignitary, may be accepted as perfectly authentic.

No man will be at liberty to oppose or rashly contravene this our indiction, announcement, convocation, statute, decree, command, precept, and invita-

tion. And if any shall presume to attempt this, let him know that he will incur the wrath of Almighty God, and of His blessed apostles, Peter and Paul.

Given at Rome, at St. Peter, in the year of the Incarnation of our Lord, 1868, on the 29th June, in the 23d year of our Pontificate.

L. † s.

† PIUS.

Bishop of the Catholic Church.

(Here follow the signatures of the cardinals.)

On the 8th of September, an invitation was issued to the bishops of the Eastern Churches, to attend the Council (*see* the text of the Papal letter, and the replies of the Eastern bishops, in the article EASTERN CHURCHES).

On the 14th of September, the following Papal letter was addressed to Protestant and non-Catholic bodies:

Pius, Sovereign Pontiff, Ninth of the Name, to all Protestants and other Non-Catholics:

You must already all know that we, who, despite our unworthiness, have been raised to the throne of Peter, and, therefore, have been advanced to the supreme government of the whole Catholic Church, and to its administration, which has been intrusted to us in Divine fashion by Christ Himself, our Lord—we have judged it fitting to summon before us all our venerable brethren, the bishops of all the world, and to convene them in Œcumenical Council, which is to be celebrated next year in such a manner that, with those same venerable brethren who have been summoned to take part in this subject of our solicitude, we may be able to adopt all the most opportune and necessary resolutions to dissipate the shadows of so large a number of pestilential errors which daily are extending their power and license, to the great prejudice of souls, and daily more and more to establish and strengthen, among the Christian people committed to our watchful care, the reign of the true faith, of justice, and of the true peace of God. Relying, then, with firm confidence upon the close and affectionate bond of union which unites those our same venerable brothers to our person, and to the Apostolic See, and who have never ceased, at any period of our Pontificate, to give to us, and to the Apostolic See, the most striking evidence of faith, of love, and of respect, we truly hope that, as it has been in times past with other General Councils, so it may be in the present, and that this Œcumenical Council, convoked by us, may bring forth, with the help of Divine grace, the most rich and the most fertile fruits, to the great glory of God, and the eternal welfare of man.

Therefore, in that hope, and instigated and encouraged by the charity of our Lord Jesus Christ, who laid down His life for the salvation of the world, we cannot forbear, on the occasion of the meeting of the next council, addressing our apostolic and paternal word to all those who, while recognizing that same Jesus Christ as our Saviour, and rejoicing in the name of Christians, yet do not profess the veritable faith of Christ or follow the communion of the Catholic Church. And if we do so, it is, before all, to warn, exhort, and supplicate with all our zeal and all our charity, to consider and seriously examine if they in truth follow the path prescribed by our Lord Jesus Christ, and which leads to eternal happiness. In fact, no one can deny or doubt that Jesus Christ Himself, in order that all future human generations should enjoy the fruit of His redemption, built up here below His Church in the person of Peter—that is to say, the Church, one, holy, Catholic, and Apostolic—and that He granted to him all the necessary power, in order that the faith should be preserved intact and entire, and that the same faith should be transmitted to all peoples, to all races, and to all nations, in such a manner that all men should be able to be united in His mystical body in baptism, and always to preserve in them-

selves, until the entire development, that new life of grace without which no one can ever merit or obtain life eternal, so that the same Church which constitutes the mystical body shall remain until the end of time, firm, and indestructible in its own constitution, developed in vigor and furnishing to its children all that is necessary to life eternal.

Now, whoever wishes well to consider and examine with attention the different religious societies divided among themselves, and separated from the Catholic Church, which, since the time of the Lord Jesus Christ and His Apostles, has always uninterruptedly exercised, and still exercises by means of its legitimate pastors, the power intrusted to her by our Lord Himself—whoever, we say, shall thus examine, will easily convince himself that not one of those religious societies, nor all the religious societies together, constitutes, or in any way can be considered as the one and only Catholic Church which our Lord Jesus Christ founded, constituted, and desired—should see that they cannot in any way be regarded as a member or as a part of that same Church, because they are visibly separated from all Catholic unity. As, in fact, those societies are deprived of that living authority established by God, who pointed out to mankind, before all things, the matter of faith and the rule of morality, who directed and presided over them in all things affecting their eternal welfare, therefore those societies themselves constantly varied in their doctrine, and thus this instability is unceasing.

Every one can easily comprehend that this state of things is altogether opposed to the Church established by Christ our Lord—a Church in which the truth must always rest unaltered, without being the subject of any change, as a charge intrusted to that same Church, in order that she may preserve it in all its integrity, a charge for the care of which the presence of the Holy Ghost and its aid has been granted forever to this Church.

No one can ignore the fact that these differences of doctrine and opinion give rise to the social schisms, and that therefrom spring those innumerable sects and communions which are daily increasing to the detriment of Christian and civil society.

Whoever, in fact, recognizes religion as the foundation of human society, cannot refuse to admit and avow the influence exercised over civilized society by those divisions and disagreements of principles of that nature, and of religious societies struggling one with the other; and also with what power the denial of authority established by God to regulate the convictions of the human intelligence, and to direct the actions of men, both in their social and private life, has excited, has developed, and has fomented those most unfortunate troubles, those events, and those disturbances which agitate and affect almost all nations in a most deplorable manner.

Therefore, in order that all those who are not instructed by the principles of the unity and truth of the Catholic Church should seize the occasion offered to them by this Council, in which the Catholic Church, to which their ancestors belonged, shows a proof of its complete unity, of its vigor, and of its inextinguishable vitality; that they should obey the necessities of their hearts; that they should strive to bear themselves away from that state in which they cannot be assured of their salvation; that they should address without ceasing the most fervent prayers to God that He should dissipate the cloud of error, and that He should bring them back into the bosom of the Church, our holy mother, where their ancestors received the salutary nourishment of life, and alone preserves in its integrity the doctrine of Jesus Christ, handing it down, and dispensing the mysteries of celestial grace.

We, therefore, who ought most zealously to fulfil all the duties of a good pastor, in accordance with the charge of our apostolic ministry, intrusted to us by Christ our Lord Himself, and who ought to embrace

all men in the world in our paternal charity, address this letter to all Christians separated from us—a letter in which we exhort and supplicate them to hasten to return to the fold of Christ.

It is because we heartily desire their salvation in Jesus Christ, and fear one day to have to render an account of their souls to that same Jesus Christ, our Judge, if we do not point out to them, and open to them as in us the way which they must follow if they would gain their salvation.

Also, in all our prayers and supplications, and while performing acts of grace, we never cease humbly to ask for them, both by night and day, the celestial light and the abundance of grace from the Eternal Pastor of souls. And, whereas, despite our unworthiness, we fulfil upon earth the functions of the vicar of Christ, we await with open arms the return of those wandering sons to the Catholic Church, in order that we may be able to receive them with all affection into the dwelling of the celestial Father, and make them participators in His everlasting treasures.

It is that much-wished-for return to the truth and communion of the Catholic Church upon which depends not only the salvation of each one in particular, but of the whole Christian Society; and the world will never enjoy true peace until it forms one flock under one pastor.

Given at Rome, at St. Peter's, September 14, 1868, in the 23d year of our Pontificate.

One of the most important events in the history of the relations between the Pope and the Catholic states, during the year, is the abolition of the Austrian Concordat of 1855. In reference to this subject, the Pope, at the secret consistory of the 2d of June, delivered the following allocution:

VENERABLE BRETHREN: We should never have imagined that, after the convention agreed to nearly thirteen years ago between us and the Emperor and Apostolic King of Austria, to the great joy of all well-minded men, we should be obliged to lament the miseries and serious misfortunes which, by the machinations of evil-disposed men, now afflict and annoy in a deplorable manner the Catholic Church in the empire of Austria. In fact, the enemies of our divine religion have been unceasing in their efforts to destroy the said convention, and to do the greatest harm to the Church, to us, and to this Apostolic See. On the 21st of December last, the Austrian Government passed an odious law to be carried out and strictly observed in every district of the empire, even in those districts where the Catholic religion exclusively prevails. That law establishes liberty for all opinions—liberty of the press, of all faith, and no matter of what confession or doctrine; it grants to the members of every confession the right of establishing public schools and colleges, and members of every confession are allowed to be admitted on the same footing with the sanction of the state. Although we felt great grief on being informed of the fact, and wished to raise our voice against it, we nevertheless gave proof of forbearance, and we deemed it advisable then to keep silent, chiefly supported by the hope that the Austrian Government, lending a docile ear to the just complaints of our venerable brethren (the holy prelates of Austria), would return to more wholesome ideas and adopt a sounder determination. But our hopes have been frustrated. In fact, the same Government, on the 25th of May of this present year, issued another law which compels all the subjects, even the Catholic ones of the empire, deciding that sons born of a mixed marriage must follow the religion of the father, and the daughters that of the mother; and that under seven years of age they must follow in the stray path of their parents from the true faith. Moreover, the same law suppresses entirely the validity of the promises which the Catholic

Church, with reason and with the greatest justice, exacts and prescribes absolutely before the celebration of mixed marriages. It makes apostasy itself a civil law both as regards the Catholic religion and the Christian religion generally; it suppresses all authority of the Church over cemeteries, and Catholics are bound to allow the bodies of heretics to be buried in their churchyard if they have not any of their own. Moreover, the same Government, on the said 25th day of May of this present year, did not hesitate to promulgate a law on marriage which entirely cancels all the enactments agreed to in the convention already alluded to. This law restores the former Austrian laws, which are contrary to the laws of the Church; it admits, and even confirms, that form of marriage absolutely condemnable, called civil marriage, when the authority of any confession whatever refuses the celebration of the marriage on grounds which are not admitted as valid, as legal by the civil authorities. By this law, this same Government has suppressed all the authority and jurisdiction of the Church on matters relative to marriage, as also all competent ecclesiastical tribunals on the subject. It has also promulgated a law on education which suppresses all the influence of the Church over education, decreeing that the whole superior supervision of education, literature, and science, as also the inspection of schools, appertains to the State, which finally decrees that religious teaching in the public schools must be placed in the hands of members of each separate confession; that any religious society may open private or special schools for the use of its faith; that those schools shall also be subject to the supreme inspection of the State, and that the school-books shall be submitted to the approval of the civil authorities; with the exception, however, of such books as are meant for religious instruction, books which must be submitted to the approval of the competent authorities of each confession. You see, consequently, venerable brethren, how necessary it is strongly to reprove and condemn those abominable laws sanctioned by the Austrian Government—laws which are in flagrant contradiction with the doctrines of the Catholic religion; with its venerable rights, its authority, and its divine institution; with our power and that of the Apostolic See, as also with our concordat already quoted, and with natural right itself. In virtue, then, of the care of all churches intrusted to us by the Lord Jesus Christ, we raise our voice in your most illustrious assembly; we reprove and we condemn by our Apostolic authority the laws which we have enumerated, and every thing, general or special, in those same laws, or in matters which refer to ecclesiastical right which has been decreed or attempted unjustly, in any manner whatsoever, by the Austrian Government, or its subordinates, whomsoever they may be. In virtue of this same authority which appertains to us, we declare those decrees null and powerless in themselves and in their effect, both as regards the present and the future. As regards the authors of those laws, especially those who congratulate themselves on being Catholics, and have not feared to propose, establish, approve, and carry out the above laws and acts, we conjure and entreat them not forget the censures and spiritual punishments which the ecclesiastical institutions and the decrees of the œcumenical councils inflict, as having been deserved *ipso facto* by the violators of the rights of the Church. Meantime, we rejoice greatly in the Lord, and we give our well-deserved praise to our venerable brothers, the archbishops and bishops of the Austrian empire, who, with truly episcopal energy, have not ceased to warn their flocks of their duties boldly to defend and protect, by speech as well as writing, the cause of the Church and the said concordat concluded with us. We also desire from our hearts that our venerable brothers, the archbishops and bishops of Hungary, following the examples of their colleagues, will show themselves disposed to display the same

zeal and the same ardor to protect the rights of the Church and defend the said concordat against the attacks which are directed against it. Nevertheless, under these calamities which in these sad times afflict the Church everywhere, we do not cease, venerable brothers, with the deepest fervor and humility of heart, to pray to God that He may upset all the criminal designs of His enemies and those of His Holy Church, suppress their impious efforts, and, in His mercy, lead them back into the paths of justice and salvation.

(For the reply of the Austrian Government, see AUSTRIA.)

ROSSINI, GIOACCHINO ANTONIO, a celebrated and brilliant musical composer, born in Pesaro, near Bologna, or, as some say, at Lugo in Ravenna, February 29, 1792; died in Paris, November 13, 1868. His parents were both poor, and connected with a company of strolling players, his mother as a singer, his father as an indifferent performer upon the French horn. At the age of ten or twelve he was able to accompany his father on the horn, in the performances of the company, and developed so much talent that, at the age of fifteen, the Countess Perticari, discovering his abilities, sent him to the Lyceum of Bologna, where he studied counterpoint and composition under the celebrated Stanislao Mattei. The stern rules and hard details of Mattei's system did not satisfy the young composer, who gave his days and nights to the study of the best composers, and especially of Mozart. He speedily attempted the composition of lyric music, but his first opera, *La Cambiale de Matrimonio*, published in 1810, is entirely forgotten, and of his second, *Demetrio e Polibio*, published in 1811, only a quartette and the overture are now known. Of the next seven, published in 1812-'13, but little more than the titles are now preserved, though one of them, *L'Inganno Felice*, possesses considerable merit. Far different was the fate of the next, *Tancredi*, published at Venice in 1813. This at once made its author famous, and placed him in the front rank of his profession. *Tancredi* was the first opera which contained the distinguishing marks of his originality and peculiarities as a composer. It was the foundation of what has been since known as "the school of Rossini," a school which has had more disciples and exerted greater influence on lyric music than perhaps any other in any art. A few months later, he published *L'Italiano in Algeri*, which was equally successful, and thus established his reputation equally in *opera seria* and *opera buffa*. These were followed by *Aureliano in Palmira*, a work of less merit, and *Il Turco in Italia*, an opera buffa which was very popular. In 1815 Rossini was appointed musical director of the Theatre of San Carlo in Naples, and produced with marvellous rapidity opera after opera, both for his own theatre and those of other cities. Some of these proved failures, but *Elisabetta*, *Regina d'Inghilterra*, which had a great success, and *Il Barbier de Sevilgia*, the best of all his humorous operas,

and one which has given him permanent fame, *Otello*, *Cenerentola* (Cinderella), *La Gazza Ladra*, *Armida*, *Mosé in Egitto*, *Maometto Secondo*, and *Semiramide*, still retain much of their popularity. Thirteen other operas of this period, 1815-'23, have gone into oblivion. In February, 1823, Rossini left Italy, and spent the next year and a half in Germany and England. In the latter country he was warmly received, and realized, it was said, \$50,000 in a few months for his vocal performances and tuition. In October, 1824, he made Paris his home, and there produced *Le Comte Ory*, and altered and rewrote his *Maometto*, which now took the name of *Le Siege de Corinth*, and his *Mosé in Egitto*, which was christened anew *Moïse en Egypte*. He was naturally indolent and epicurean in his taste, and having been appointed director of the Italian Opera in Paris, he was inclined to do as little as possible, and, for three or four years, merely retouched and renamed his old operas. Stung by the reproaches of the musical world, he at last produced, in 1829, his *Guillaume Tell*, his greatest masterpiece, a work of far higher elevation of sentiment and heroic dignity than even his admirers had given him the credit of being able to produce. From that time till his death, a period of almost forty years, he produced no other opera, unless a mere collection of fragments, under the title of *Robert Bruce*, may be dignified with that name. He himself believed that he could not equal his *Guillaume Tell*, and he was unwilling to try. He did, however, produce an exquisite oratorio, the *Stabat Mater*, and several *Soirées Musicales* (chamber pieces for one or two voices), and some symphonies. But his later years were given to society, to gastronomy, and to the reception of homage. From 1836 to 1855 he resided in Italy, first at Bologna and afterward at Florence; but in the latter year he returned to Paris, where he spent the remainder of his life. He was amiable and kindly in his nature, especially to young and struggling musicians. Several of the most eminent opera-singers of the day had been his pupils. His property, which was quite large, was left (subject to a life-interest to his widow) to found and endow a conservatory of music at Pesaro, his reputed birthplace.

ROST, PIERRE A., an eminent Louisiana jurist, born in France, about 1797; died in New Orleans, La., September 6, 1868. He received his academic and scientific education in Paris, where he was, in the time of Napoleon I., a pupil of the Polytechnic School. He emigrated to the United States in 1824 or 1825, and at first settled in the Red River district, where he entered upon the practice of the law. Being of a high order of intellect, of studious habits, and superior education, he soon rose to a conspicuous position at the bar. Afterward marrying a lady of one of the leading Creole families on the coast, he removed to St. Charles Parish, and entered largely into planting, in which pursuit

his ingenious and scientific mind rapidly made him conspicuous and prosperous. Upon the reorganization of the Supreme Court under the constitution of 1845, he was tendered by Governor Isaac Johnson a seat upon that bench, his associates being George Eustis, Thomas Slidell, and George R. King. As a judge, he ranked among the foremost Louisiana has ever had, for he was not only versed in the learning of the civil, but also in that of commercial law. For clearness of diction and logical perspicacity in the application of legal principles to the facts of the case in hand, his decisions will stand comparison with those rendered by the foremost jurists of the land. On the formation of the Provisional Confederate Government he was named as its commissioner to Spain, and remained abroad until the war had terminated. On his return he found his beautiful plantation a scene of almost utter desolation; but, disheartening as the prospect before him seemed to be, he set to work with all the native energy of his nature to retrieve his shattered fortunes. In person, Judge Rost was a remarkably fine-looking man, tall, erect in his carriage, and with a most striking head and face. In manner he was habitually rather reserved, and at times somewhat cynical; but in society he could and frequently did unbend from this reserve, and show a genial humor which added greatly to the enjoyment of the company in which he mingled.

ROTHSCHILD, Baron JAMES, the youngest and last surviving child of Meyer Anselm Rothschild, the founder of the great banking-house of the Rothschilds, and himself for fifty-six years past the head of the Paris house, born at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, May 15, 1792; died in Paris, November 15, 1868. His early training in finance was under his brother Solomon at Vienna, but in 1812, when but little past twenty years of age, he was sent to Paris to establish the French house. His management here in concert with his brothers was admirable, and the \$200,000, which was his capital at starting, grew in the lapse of a little more than fifty years to more than three hundred millions of dollars. He had the confidence of the Bourbons and their adherents after the restoration, and was for many years the banker of those of the *ancien noblesse* who had regained their estates. At the Revolution of 1830, his liberal contributions for the wounded, and the interest he manifested in the government of Louis Philippe, gave him the confidence of that monarch, and he was largely engaged in public financial operations. He was also interested in the construction of the principal railways of France. In the Revolution of 1848, in common with his brothers, he lost heavily. His country-seat at Saresnes was sacked, and he was for a time very unpopular; but his liberality to the wounded eventually produced a revulsion of feeling in his favor. Still, he had not during Napoleon III.'s administration taken as active a part in public affairs as for-

merly, the Pereires being the favorite bankers of the Emperor. Baron Rothschild was very liberal even for his immense wealth, not to the Jews only, but to all deserving objects. He had built synagogues, orphan asylums, *hospices* for the relief of widows, schools, etc., and established foundations for the reward of merit in scholarship, good conduct, etc.; and, aside from his very large daily charities, he gave every year a large sum for the relief of the poor of Paris. It is said, by those who knew his affairs most intimately, that more than one per cent. of his immense revenues, or nearly four hundred thousand dollars, was annually bestowed in charity. The baron was Consul-General of Austria, and had received the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor, and most of the other decorations of the Orders of Merit in Europe.

RUSSIA, an empire in Europe and Asia. Emperor, Alexander II., born April 17 (new style, April 29), 1818; succeeded his father February 18 (March 2), 1855. Heir-apparent, Grand-duke Alexander, born February 26 (March 10), 1845; married November 9, 1866, to Maria Dagmar, born November 26, 1847, daughter of king Christian IX. of Denmark; offspring of this union, a son, Nicholas, born May 18, 1868.

The total area of Russia is about 7,860,000 square miles, of which 2,050,313 belong to Europe. The population of the great divisions of the empire is as follows:

RELIGIONS.	Russia proper.	Poland.	Finland.	Caucasus.	Siberia.	Total.	Per cent.
Armenians	35,000	500,000	535,000	0.7
Catholics.....	2,840,000	3,915,000	14,000	11,000	6,780,000	8.8
Protestants.....	2,080,000	285,000	1,757,000	6,000	4,000	4,132,000	5.3
Israelites.....	1,631,000	645,000	1,000	13,000	8,000	2,298,000	3.0
Mohammedans.....	2,000,000	2,000	1,970,000	1,600,000	5,662,000	7.3
Pagans	200,000	1,000	280,000	481,000	0.6
	8,876,000	4,847,000	1,758,000	2,504,000	1,903,000	19,888,000	25.7
Orthodox Greek Ch'h	52,485,000	250,000	41,000	1,653,000	2,732,000	57,161,000	74.2

The public revenue and expenditure, for the year 1866, were as follows (expressed in rubles):

	Estimate.	Real amount.	Relation of real am't to estimate.
Revenue.....	362,553,127	352,695,836	- 9,857,292
Expenditure.	364,137,059	413,298,012	+ 29,160,953
Deficit	21,583,932	60,602,176	+ 39,018,245

In the estimated budget for 1868 (inclusive of Poland), revenue and expenditures are set down as follows: Revenue, 468,131,382 rubles; expenditures, 480,593,518 rubles. Deficit, 12,462,136 rubles. The public debt, on January 1, 1867, amounted to 1,809,942,693 rubles.

The budget for 1869 amounts to 482,000,000 rubles. In the revenue account appears a surplus of 4,000,000 from the budget of 1867 and a surplus of 10,000,000 from the budget of 1868, these amounts serving to cover the increase of 13,000,000 in the expenditure. Thirty-one million rubles are appropriated from special sources for the construction of railway lines and for harbor works at Riga and Odessa. The Minister of Finance ascribes

In Europe.—Russia proper.....	61,325,923	
Poland.....	5,100,000	
Finland.....	1,798,909	
In Asia.—Caucasus.....	4,157,917	68,324,532
Siberia.....	4,625,699	
		8,783,616

Total population of the Russian empire, 77,008,448
Not included in the statement of the area and population are the acquisitions which Russia has of late made in Central Asia, and which have been organized into the province of Turkestan.

The statistics of the several nationalities of Russia, according to Von Buschen ("Aperçu Statistique des Forces Productives de la Russie," Paris, 1867), are as follows:

NATIONALITIES.	Population.	Per cent.
Russians.....	53,470,000	6.1%
Poles.....	4,860,000	6.3
Tartars.....	4,780,000	6.2
Fins.....	4,630,000	6.0
Lithuanians.....	2,420,000	3.1
Jews.....	2,290,000	3.0
Germans.....	830,000	1.1
Georgians.....	800,000	1.0
Circassians.....	800,000	1.0
Rumanians.....	780,000	1.0
Armenians.....	540,000	0.7
Mongols.....	500,000	0.6
Swedes.....	150,000	0.2
Greeks.....	50,000	
Bulgarians.....	41,000	0.2
Servians.....	30,000	
	77,000,000	

The same writer gives the religious statistics of the empire as follows:

the increase in the revenue to a satisfactory harvest, and to the stimulus given to commerce by the extension of the railway system.

At the beginning of the year 1866, the number of generals, officers of the staff, and officers, was 30,507; that of under-officers and soldiers, 697,137. The latter were divided as follows: Infantry, 538,887; cavalry, 63,440; artillery, 80,172; engineers, 14,683—total, 697,137.

Of irregular troops there are 132 regiments and 24 battalions, with 200 guns.

The fleet, in 1866, was composed as follows:

	Vessels.	Horse power.	Tons.	Guns.
<i>Iron-clads.</i>				
Frigates.....	11	5,510	43,287	124
Monitors.....	14	2,320	21,029	61
	25	7,830	64,316	185
<i>Other vessels.</i>				
Steamers.....	260	29,750		
Sailing-vessels....	59	145,619	1,993
Total.....	344	37,580	209,935	2,173

The movement of shipping, in 1866, was as follows:

PORTS.	Arrivals.	Clearances.
The Baltic Sea.....	5,338	5,820
The White Sea.....	868	942
The Black Sea & Sea of Azof,	4,052	3,946
Total.....	10,758	10,708

The merchant navy, in 1865, consisted of 2,132 vessels. Of these, 607 were vessels for ocean service, and 1,525 coasting vessels. The number of steamers was 84.

The following table gives a survey of Russian commerce from 1856 to 1866 (in rubles):

COMMERCE.	EXPORTS.			IMPORTS.		
	1866.	1861-'65.	1856-'60.	1866.	1861-'65.	1856-'60.
<i>With Europe.</i>						
Exclusive of precious metals	180,570,000	138,470,000	127,400,000	201,050,000	166,820,000	150,250,000
Precious metals.....	2,370,000	4,970,000	8,500,000	25,830,000	28,950,000	15,040,000
<i>With Asia.</i>						
Exclusive of precious metals	24,700,000	20,400,000	20,100,000	21,900,000	14,800,000	12,200,000
Precious metals.....	600,000	200,000	100,000	2,900,000	7,200,000	4,700,000

The official returns of the trade of Russia with European countries in 1867 show that the entire value of the exports and imports of the empire to and from those countries, including Finland, amounted to 457,000,385 rubles (3s. 2d.), an increase of 75,377,706 rubles over 1866. The exports, 220,154,666 rubles, present an increase of 19,105,195 rubles; and the imports, 236,845,719 rubles, an increase of 56,272,511 rubles. Ten years before, in 1857, the exports were only 157,700,000 rubles, and the imports, 132,300,000 rubles. The precious metals are subject to great fluctuations; the exports of these amounted to 12,130,714 rubles in 1867—a decrease of 13,696,039 rubles as compared with 1866, and the imports reached no less than 33,228,647 rubles—an increase of 30,856,055 rubles. The chief articles of export to European countries were—cereals, 93,978,052 rubles—an increase of 20,000,000 rubles; flax, 19,827,052 rubles; flax-seed (linseed), 18,360,342 rubles; tallow, 11,826,288 rubles; wood, various kinds, 10,650,753 rubles; raw wool, 9,613,615 rubles—a decrease of 6,000,000 rubles; hemp, 8,674,182 rubles. The principal imports from Europe were raw cotton, 38,039,858 rubles; unwrought metals, 21,520,081 rubles—an increase of nearly 13,000,000 rubles; machinery, 15,022,671 rubles—an increase of nearly 5,000,000 rubles; metal wares, 14,709,268 rubles—an increase of 4,000,000 rubles; tea, 14,345,575 rubles, an increase of 5,000,000 rubles; colors, 11,030,861 rubles. Among the other imports are wool above 8,000,000 rubles, and woollen goods, 6,000,000, an increase of 3,000,000 and 2,000,000; cotton goods, nearly 4,000,000 rubles, an increase of 1,000,000; spun cotton, nearly 5,000,000; silk, 5,000,000, and silk goods, 5,000,000, an increase of more than 2,000,000 in the former article, and nearly 2,000,000 in the latter; linen tissues, 3,500,000, an increase of 1,000,000; agricultural implements, nearly 1,500,000, an increase of 800,000 rubles; drinks, 8,000,000, an increase of 1,000,000; fruit, 5,000,000; ladies' dresses, 500,000; tulle and lace, 500,000 rubles. Among the exports may be observed cattle, 4,000,000, an increase of 1,000,000; horses, 354,000; furs, 732,000; cloth, 363,000; rags, 353,000 rubles. Mr. Rumbold, secretary of the British embassy, from

whose report to the British Government these facts are taken, remarks that the Russian transit trade, though showing a tendency to increase, is insignificant; but the development of the foreign trade has been immense in the last ten years. The value of the exports by the Baltic, in that period, has increased 10,000,000, and reaches 85,000,000; the value of the exports by the southern ports and the western land frontier has nearly doubled, and become 81,000,000 and 34,500,000; and the imports have increased nearly threefold by the land frontier, and now reach 71,000,000, while they have nearly doubled in the Baltic ports and ports of the White Sea, and become nearly 135,000,000 and 789,000 rubles respectively. Great Britain, by a long way, heads the list of states importing Russian goods, taking 107,000,000 rubles' worth in 1867, or nearly four times as much as Prussia, the next largest customer of the empire. France and Turkey follow, but at a long distance. The imports from foreign states show the largest share falling to Prussia and Great Britain, 92,000,000 and 75,000,000 rubles respectively, these two holding by far the highest rank in the list of countries exporting goods to Russia. In 1867, 11,047 vessels, measuring 1,385,738 tons, entered Russian ports, 5,667 of the vessels in ballast; 2,381 sailed under the British flag, 1,241 under the Russian, 1,052 under the Italian, 1,134 Swedish and Norwegian—11,090 vessels, of 1,400,552 tons, cleared out. The customs receipts in 1867 reached 37,000,000 rubles.

On the 29th of February, an imperial decree was published by which the Government Commission for Internal Affairs in the kingdom of Poland was abolished, and its administrative jurisdiction handed over to the respective authorities of the empire. The complete union of the former kingdom of Poland with the other portions of the empire is hereby effected. The place of what was formerly the semi-independent kingdom of Poland has now been taken by ten "governments" (provinces), which are in every respect to be put on an equal footing with the governments of Russia Proper. The rigorous measures of the Government for suppressing the Polish language, and substituting in its place the Russian, continued throughout the year.

In June the Russian Government addressed a communication to several foreign Governments, proposing the prohibition by treaty of the use of explosive projectiles in war, or the limitation of such projectiles to submarine torpedoes. On the 17th of July Prince Gortschakoff notified the Russian representatives abroad, by a circular, that, Russia having assented to the proposal of the Berlin Cabinet, that commissioners and experts from the different Governments should meet at St. Petersburg to draw up a protocol excluding the use of explosive missiles in future warfare, these commissioners would be able to assemble on the 13th of October. The meeting took place at the appointed time, and agreed upon the following treaty, which was signed by the representatives of Bavaria, Belgium, Denmark, England, France, Greece, Holland, Italy, Persia, Portugal, Austria, Prussia, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and Wurtemberg:

Considering that the progress of civilization ought to result in diminishing as much as possible the sufferings inseparable from war; that the only legitimate object pursued in war is to weaken the force of the enemy; that to attain this it suffices to place as many men as possible *hors de combat*; that to make use of expedients which shall unnecessarily enlarge the wounds of the men placed *hors de combat*, or entail inevitable death, is incompatible with the before-mentioned object; that to make use of such expedients would, moreover, be contrary to the teachings of humanity:

The undersigned, in virtue of the instructions given them by their Governments, are authorized to declare as follows:

1. The contracting parties engage, in the event of war between any of them, to abstain from the use of missiles of any description possessing explosive power, or filled with explosive or inflammable material, weighing less than 400 grammes. This restriction to apply to the army and navy alike.

2. They likewise invite all those states not represented at the deliberations of the military commission assembled at St. Petersburg, to subscribe to this mutual engagement.

3. In the event of war this engagement is to be observed only toward the contracting parties, and those that may subsequently subscribe to it. It need not be observed toward any who have not signified their assent to the above stipulations.

4. The above engagement likewise ceases to be valid, if a state that has not signed it takes part in a war between parties that have signed it.

5. Whenever the progress of science results in any new definite proposals being made for improving the equipment of the troops, the contracting parties, as well as those who have subsequently joined this engagement, will assemble to maintain the principles laid down to reconcile the requirements of war with the demands of humanity.

It has already been stated in the *ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA*, for 1867, that the Russian Government, to consolidate its new possession in Central Asia, reorganized, in 1867, the new province of Turkestan. The following is the text of the imperial ukase (dated July 23, 1867), concerning this subject:

Deeming it expedient to modify the civil and military organization of the territories bordering on China and the Khanates of Central Asia which form part of the Governments General of Orenburg and Western Siberia, we hereby ordain as follows:

1. There shall immediately be organized a Government General of Turkestan, to be composed of the province of Turkestan, of the District of Tashkend of the territories beyond the Syr-Daria occupied in 1866, and of that portion of the province of Semipalatinsk which is situated to the south of the Tarbagatai chain of mountains.

2. The Government General of Turkestan shall be bounded: (A.) On the side of the Government General of Western Siberia by the Tarbagatai chain and its branches as far as the actual frontier which separates the province of Semipalatinsk from that of the Khirghizes of Siberia; by that frontier as far as the Balkasch Lake, farther on by a bend at the centre of this lake; and from its shores by a straight line as far as the Tchou River, and finally by the course of that river as far as its confluence with the Syr-Daria. (B.) On the side of the Government General of Orenburg, by a line going from the centre of the Perovsky Gulf on the Aral Sea to the Termembes Mountain, thence to the place called Terekli, thence to the Kalmas Mountain, to the place called Mozchille, to the Akhoun and Tchoubar Tubia Mountains to the southern point of the Myine-koum sands, and to the place called Syine Boulak as far as the confluence of the Sary-Sou and Tchou Rivers.

3. The new Government General shall be divided into two provinces, those of Syr-Daria and Shmiretchensk, whose line of separation will be formed approximately by the Kourugoty River.

4. The superior administration of the country thus formed will be committed to a Governor-General, and that of the provinces of Syr-Daria and Semiretchensk to Military Governors; as regards the administration of the troops and military establishments, these two provinces will form the Military Circumscription of Turkestan, and the command of the troops cantoned there will devolve on the Governor-General with the title of Commandant of the troops of the Circumscription, and on the Military Governors with the title of Commandant of the troops in those provinces.

5. On the opening of the provinces of Syr-Daria and Semiretchensk, the civil administrations which are now there will continue as before, subject to the respective Military Governors, pending the sanction of a general scheme for the government of the whole country. The Senate will make the necessary arrangements for giving effect to this order.

(Signed)

ALEXANDER.

General Kaufmann, who, on July 26, 1867, was appointed Governor-General of Turkestan, arrived in his province in November. At Tashkend he was received in triumph by the Russian settlers, and he was said to have made a great impression upon the Asiatics. According to English reports, the general feeling in all the Khanates of Independent Tartary remained very hostile to Russia. The *Friend of India* gave the following description of the situation at the beginning of the year 1868:

The trade is reviving but slowly under the pressure of the Russian officials. Many of the Kokandians are taking refuge with Yakooob Kush Begi, and the Khan of Kashgar. Those who have remained have given such demonstrations of hostility to the Russians, that General Kaufmann has been obliged to call in the mediation of Khludoff, who has been instructed to assure the Khan of Kokand that no fortification will protect him from the Russian troops in the event of any hostile disturbance. The Ameer of Bokhara would seem to be playing a double game, the object of which is apparently to gain time. His envoy has been evidently shuffling with the Russians, and it will be his last resource to enter into any alliance with the invaders. The Ameer is too bigoted a Mussulman, however, to observe any

treaty that he may be compelled to make with infidels, and is known to entertain exaggerated views regarding the strength of the Porte and extravagant hopes of assistance from that quarter. In Khiva the hatred against the Russians was still more intense, and the Khan was organizing alliances with the Turcoman chiefs, and constructing forts. The Khwans had also succeeded in levying tribute from the Russian Kirghizes. Sadyk, the Kirghiz chief, had been harassing the Russian outposts at the front, and committing serious depredations.

A new war with the Ameer of Bokhara began in May, 1868. It appears that in the early days of May the Russian troops commenced a march from their frontier near Bokhara in the direction of Western China, weakening their garrisons considerably, but still leaving a sufficient number of men stationed along the great river route of their first advance to enable their commanders to keep well informed as to any movements undertaken by the natives in their absence. On the 20th of May, the Ameer, apparently deceived into an impression of the weakness of the Russians by these military movements, proclaimed a *jehad*, or holy war. Assuming for himself the position of principal ruler of Turkestan, he formed an alliance with the Khan of Khokand, and with the Ameer of Oorgunge. The united forces of these chiefs gathered on the banks of the Zerafshan and menaced the Russians at Djizak from the neighborhood of Samarcand. This formidable coalition was at once met by the Russians, by the march of enormous forces on Tashkend, while the garrison of that place was pushed forward to the seat of war. The army of the Khan was in comparison a mere rabble, since every male in the Khanate, above the age of twelve, was called upon to serve in its ranks. While the force was gathering, the Ameer of Oorgunge, or Khiva, remembered that Sirdar Yakoob Ali Khan, Governor of Herat, and son of Ameer Shere Ali, was under an obligation to him, and dispatched an emissary to the Sirdar with a view of adding the forces of Afghanistan to the crowds which were being massed against the Russians. The mission failed in consequence of the envoy falling into the hands of Shere Ali during the absence of his son on the Candahar expedition. Ameer Shere Ali detained the Khivan, and declared his intention of sending him on to the Russian camp. The Ameer encamped at a place called Kermineh, between Samarcand and Bokhara. Here he was visited by a deputation of Moollahs, all desirous of preaching up the crescentade, or religious war, against the Russians. The Ameer's nephew next set out for Samarcand with a body of Moollahs and Jehadis, and encamped at the shrine of Ahmed Jan, a distance of five hundred paces from the walls. Here they were attacked by the Russians, and, many of their men being killed, the remainder fled. The eldest son of the Ameer commanded at Samarcand. The Russian general-in-chief, immediately on hearing of the Ameer's proceedings, marched on

Samarcand, which he annexed to the dominions of the Czar, and Bokhara fell subsequently. Marching on Bokhara, the Russians left no detachments south of Samarcand, and withdrew their troops from Charjoe. After the capture of Samarcand, the Russians sustained several attacks from numerous bodies of enemies, especially at Zelah Bulah, twelve versts from Katy Kur-gane, where they were finally beaten and routed. The Ameer's troops were commanded by Hadja (a Turk), and Osman (a renegade and formerly a Siberian Cossack). Meantime the troops of Schlahr-Sialz, of Djura-By, advanced to Samarcand to the number of several thousands. The inhabitants opened the gates and joined those troops to besiege the citadel. General Kaufmann, of the Russian army, went to the assistance of the besieged by forced marches, and on the 20th of June, after a siege of eight days, the citadel was liberated, and the enemy driven from the town. Samarcand was then declared fully and completely annexed to Russia.

In July, the Ameer of Bokhara accepted the terms of peace offered to him by General Kaufmann. They provided for the cession of Samarcand, and authorized the Russians to build cantonments at Karshi, Chasjui, and Kermineh. The first lies on the chief route from Samarcand to Afghanistan; the second is a long-coveted site a little to the south of the Oxus; and the third a place of considerable consequence on the direct road between Samarcand and Bokhara. Cantonments and fortifications in those three places form a triangle within which the Khanate of Bokhara will be firmly locked. Among the other clauses of the treaty were the following: 1. All Russian subjects, whatever their religion, are entitled to carry on trade in all parts of Bokhara, the Ameer being obliged to protect their persons, goods, and caravans within the frontiers of his dominions. 2. Russian merchants will be entitled to station mercantile agents in all towns of Bokhara. 3. The duty on Russian goods imported is not to exceed $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of their value. 4. Russian merchants will be free to cross Bokhara on their way to the neighboring principalities. Similar terms had been agreed upon with Khokand a short time ago. In the last months of the year, the Russian General Abramof, who commanded at Samarcand, aided the Ameer of Bokhara to put down the rebellion of his son and other chiefs who wished to overthrow the Ameer for having concluded a treaty with the Russians.

RUSSIA, THE CRIMINAL CODE OF. As the Emperor Alexander II., of Russia, by his ukase of November 20, 1864, introduced a number of important reforms in the administration of civil justice, so he decreed by his ukase of March 19, 1867, that a commission of jurists, to be appointed by the Minister of Justice, should prepare a report in regard to the modifications that should be adopted in the criminal code in order to remedy its defects and

harmonize it with the spirit of the age. This report, which was presented to the Minister of Justice in February, 1868, and approved by the Emperor and the Senate in May, was a great disappointment to the more enlightened portion of the people of Russia, who had confidently expected that the laws of their country would in this respect, too, be rendered more like those of Western Europe. For, although the report, as submitted to the minister and approved by the Government, recommended the repeal of quite a number of sections of the criminal code, promulgated by the Emperor Nicholas on the 1st of May, 1846, the changes which it proposed related principally to the mode of criminal procedure, and modified but very slightly the list of crimes, their definitions, and the penalties imposed upon them. Considerations, partly of a political and partly of a religious character (a majority of the so-called Old Russian party, whose influence, for the time being, has become paramount in Russia, being opposed to radical reforms in the domestic laws of the country till the Russification of the border provinces has been fully carried into effect), caused the Government of the Ozar to content itself for the present with this half measure; and, unless revolutionary convulsions should supervene, a considerable time will elapse, in all probability, before the criminal laws of Russia will be changed so as to be more in keeping with the spirit of the age and the codes now in force in other civilized countries.

The criminal code of Russia, as revised in 1863, contains upward of twenty-two hundred paragraphs, or nearly five times as many as the French *code pénal*, which contains 484 articles, and nearly seven times as many as the Russian criminal code of April 14, 1851, which has only 349 paragraphs. This extraordinary extent of the Russian code is owing partly to the fact that it embraces, besides felonies, the whole series of infractions of the laws regarding police matters, censorship, the construction of buildings, street and road improvements, post-offices, etc.—paragraphs which, in reality, should not have been incorporated with a criminal code, but, at the most, with a police code; and partly to the fact that the low state of culture and morality prevailing among a very large portion of the population as yet stamps many acts as crimes which more enlightened times would no longer regard and punish as such. Another peculiarity of the criminal code of Russia is, the large number and arbitrary classification of penalties, of which there are no fewer than thirty-seven. They are divided into penal and correctional ones; of the former, there are four classes, and of the latter, seven, which are subdivided into a number of “degrees;” namely:

1. Penal penalty of the first class: The criminal is divested of all the privileges of his rank, and suffers death.

2. Penal penalty of the second class, first

degree: Criminals exempted from corporal punishment, after being divested of all the privileges of their rank, are transported to Siberia, where they are imprisoned for life at hard labor in the mines. Non-exempted criminals receive in addition one hundred lashes, which are inflicted publicly by the executioner, and, with the exception of women, or men over seventy years of age, they are branded on the cheeks and forehead with the letters K. A. T. (Katorshnyi—convict). Second degree: For the exempted criminals, transportation to Siberia, hard labor in the mines for from fifteen to twenty years, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, from eighty to ninety lashes, and branding in addition. Third degree: For the exempted, transportation to Siberia, hard labor in the mines for from twelve to fifteen years, and colonization; the non-exempted receive from seventy to eighty lashes, and are branded, in addition. Fourth degree: For the exempted, transportation to Siberia, hard labor for from ten to twelve years in a fortress, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, sixty to seventy lashes, and branding, in addition. Fifth degree: For the exempted, transportation to Siberia, hard labor for from eight to ten years in a fortress, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, fifty to sixty lashes, and branding, in addition. Sixth degree: For the exempted, transportation to Siberia, hard labor for from eight to ten years in a factory, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, forty to fifty lashes, and branding, in addition. Seventh degree: For the exempted, transportation to Siberia, hard labor for from four to six years in a factory, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, thirty to forty lashes, and branding, in addition.

3. Penal penalties of the third class. First degree: For the exempted, transportation to the Eastern districts of Siberia, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, twenty to thirty lashes, in addition. Second degree: For the exempted, transportation to the less remote districts of Siberia, and colonization for life; for the non-exempted, ten to twenty lashes, in addition.

4. Penal penalties of the fourth class: The criminals are transported beyond the Caucasus, and colonized there for life.

The seven classes of the correctional penalties are subdivided into twenty-five degrees, and the whole classification is so illogical and arbitrary that few Russian judges know by heart what penalty is to be imposed upon crimes of secondary importance, and printed tables of the various penalties are generally consulted before sentence is passed upon a prisoner. Both with the penal and correctional penalties, there is coupled, in certain cases, an ecclesiastical penance, the character and duration of which are fixed by the Church authorities; and some correctional penalties are rendered more severe by the publication of the sentence in the Senate Ga-

zette, and in the newspapers of the two capitals, and of the district seats; and by an order of the court, forbidding the offender to live at the capitals, at certain other places, or on his own estates, which are placed under the management of an official administrator, or to carry on his former trade or profession. Special penalties, besides those enumerated in the code, are imposed upon public functionaries who commit penal offences; in addition to the ordinary penal and correctional penalties, they are punished with permanent exclusion from the civil service, and cannot be elected to an office by any noble corporation or town and village authorities; or they are removed, and lose the right of holding office for three years; they are reduced to a lower rank; sharp reprimands are the mildest additional penalty inflicted upon them.

As regards the crimes enumerated in the Russian code, "offences against religion and infractions of the regulations established for the protection of religion" are treated of in the first chapter (§§ 182-263). "Blasphemy and disparaging expressions about religious matters" are declared to be terrible crimes, and heavy penalties are imposed upon defection from the national faith, heresy, schismatical movements, and disregard of ecclesiastical regulations. § 182 says: "He who purposely and publicly utters, in a church, a blasphemy against the Triune God, or against the Holy Mother of God, and eternal Virgin Mary, against the cross of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, against the incorporeal heavenly powers, or against the saints of the Lord and their images, shall suffer the penal penalty of the second class, third degree. If this crime is committed outside the church, at a public place, or before a concourse of people, the penal penalty of the second class, sixth degree, will be inflicted on the criminal." Transportation to Siberia will be inflicted on all who make "blasphemous, heretical, or schismatical remarks," as specified in § 182, in the presence of other persons, neither publicly, nor before a concourse of people, but with the intention of reviling the faith of his hearers, or producing a scandal.—§ 188 says: "He who utters irreligious remarks, not with the intention of producing a scandal or giving vent to his contempt of religion, but from stupidity, ignorance, or while in a state of intoxication, will be imprisoned for from three weeks to three months." No less rigorous penalties are imposed upon persons convicted of a defection from the national faith, heresy, and schismatical movements. § 192 says: "If a Mohammedan or Jew is married with a woman of the Lutheran or Reformed creed, and, contrary to his written promise, does not allow the children, issuing from such a union, to be brought up in the Christian religion, prevents his wife or children from worshipping God according to the rites of Christianity, or incites them, by dint of threats or seductive arts, to defection from

Christianity, the union will be declared null and void, and the Mohammedan or Jewish husband, after being divested of all the rights and privileges of his rank, will be transported to a more or less remote district of Siberia and colonized there for life." § 193: "A Jew who, without special legal permission, keeps at his house a Christian to perform household duties for him, even though he does not incite him to defection from Christianity, shall be fined five rubles for every day which the Christian has passed at his house; and, in case of a repetition of the offence, imprisonment for from three weeks to three months will be added to the fine." Even when Jews are permitted to employ Christian domestics, a fine of from one to two hundred rubles will be imposed upon them for causing female Christian servants to live in the same house with them. § 195 says: "He who induces any one to leave the Orthodox national Church and to join any other Christian denomination, will suffer the correctional penalty of the first class, fifth degree;" that is to say, a man who converts somebody in the aforesaid manner will, if exempted, be exiled for life to the districts of Tomsk or Tobolsk; if non-exempted, he will receive fifty to sixty lashes, be put for one or two years into a convict-gang, and finally be placed for one or two years under the surveillance of the police. As for the convict, he is treated as a lunatic who must be cured by the ecclesiastical authorities, or, as the code has it, "be brought to see his errors;" for this purpose a "tutelar administration of his whole property," and, above all, of the "estates, on which orthodox peasants live," is to be decreed by the courts. He is even forbidden to live on his estates, "lest the peasants and their servants should be exposed to temptation" (§ 196). On the other hand, "he who prevents any one from voluntarily joining the orthodox Church will be imprisoned for from three to six months" (§ 199). "He who knows that his wife, his children, and other persons intrusted to his care intend to leave the Orthodox Church, and does not employ all means at his command to prevent it, will be imprisoned for from three days to three months, and, in case he belongs himself to the Orthodox Church, will be subjected to a church penance" (§ 200). Most Draconic are the penalties imposed upon "heresy and schismatical movements." § 206 says in regard to them: "He who disseminates the heretical and schismatical teachings of those who have left the Orthodox Church, or founds a new sect injurious to religion, forfeits all the rights and privileges of his rank, and will be transported and colonized for life; if living in European Russia, he will be sent to Transcaucasia; if domiciled in the Caucasian and Caspian provinces, or in the Grusian-Imeretian district, he will be sent to Siberia; and, if a resident of Siberia, he will be sent to the more remote districts of that country. Those, for whom

this penalty is transformed into military service, will not be furloughed nor dismissed until they have returned into the bosom of the Orthodox Church. The same penalty will be imposed on sectarians who, in fanatical infatuation, venture to revile the Orthodox Church or its ministers." § 214: "He who issues old religious books (that is to say, works on orthodox theology), in any other way than through the Moscow Synodal printing-office, sells such books, or disseminates them, or uses schismatical books at church, will be fined, in the first instance, from 100 to 200 rubles; in the second and third instance, twice as much; and, in the third instance, imprisonment for from three to six months will be added to the fine. The books will be confiscated and delivered to the ecclesiastical authorities." § 215: "He who establishes convents or retreats for schismatics, erects or repairs a building devoted to schismatic worship, constructs altars in such buildings, or makes a prayer-house of a peasant's house, will be imprisoned for from one to two years. All such buildings will be demolished, and the materials will be delivered to the local committee of general welfare." Finally, § 217 says: "If the owner or manager of a private estate or the tenant of a crown-estate receives into his house a Jew in a place infected with Jewish heresy, and which he has been ordered to leave, he will be fined, in the first two instances from fifty to one hundred rubles: in the third instance, however, the private estate is placed in the hands of a public administrator during the lifetime of the guilty owner, or the manager is declared incapable of taking charge of any estate. If peasants or commoners aid and abet such a Jew in the aforesaid manner, they will be imprisoned, for the first and second time, for from three weeks to three months; or, if they are not exempt from corporal punishment, they will receive from twenty to thirty lashes; for the third time, however, they will be imprisoned for from six months to one year."

The retention of these Draconic paragraphs in the penal code excited much dissatisfaction on the part of the more enlightened opponents of the Old Russian party, especially the so-called German wing of the Liberals and even a large part of the Conservative nobility, while the extreme wing of the Old Russian or National party was rather delighted with it; the latter, on the other hand, was somewhat disappointed at the reappearance, in the revised penal code, of all the rigorous paragraphs of the code of the Emperor Nicholas in regard to the so-called "state crimes." At the head of this part of the code stand the "crimes against the sacred person of the Emperor and against the members of the imperial house." Capital punishment will be inflicted upon all who attack the lives of the Emperor, the Empress, the Grand-duke hereditary, and the other members of the imperial family, or enter into criminal plots for the purpose of murdering them,

or killing or wounding them in the execution of some unlawful scheme. All attempts and plots to dethrone the Emperor, to deprive him of his liberty, to limit his sovereignty, to do violence to his person, are punished with death. The same penalty will be imposed upon all those who attempt "to commit crimes against the Emperor's honor," and even on "those who know of the intentions of the criminals to make such attempts, and fail to inform the authorities thereof" (§ 285). § 267 says: "He who gets up and circulates written or printed compositions or pictures, for the purpose of reviling the Government or the person of the Emperor, will suffer the penal penalty of the second class, fourth degree. The same punishment will be inflicted on those who assist in getting up or circulating writings or pictures of this description." Imprisonment for from seven days to three months will be imposed upon those who possess such writings or pictures without the permission of the authorities, and they will, moreover, be placed under the surveillance of the police. § 268: "He who dares to utter impertinent and insulting words against the Emperor, even in his absence, or intentionally injures, disfigures, or destroys his statues or pictures in official buildings or on public places, will be sentenced to suffer the penal penalty of the second class, sixth degree. He who permits himself such impudent words or actions, while in a state of intoxication, without premeditation, will be sent to the house of correction for from six to twelve months." Imprisonment for from three weeks to three months will be inflicted on those who witness these words or actions, and neither hinder them nor bring them to the notice of the authorities. The same penalties will be imposed upon those who violate the majesty of the Empress, the Grand-duke hereditary, or any other member of the imperial house.

No less Draconic are the paragraphs relating to "sedition, riots, and resistance to the supreme power of the Government." §§ 272 *et seq.* begin with the following words: "He who gets up and circulates written or printed proclamations, manifestoes, or pictures, for the purpose of exciting riots, sedition, or resistance to the supreme power of the Government, will be transported to Siberia for from eight to ten years, imprisoned at hard labor in a fortress, and colonized for life. The same punishment will be inflicted on him who maliciously circulates such writings and pictures without having got them up himself, or who assists in the perpetration of this crime in any manner whatever, and, likewise, on him who delivers public speeches for the same criminal purpose." Even those who do not directly incite others to sedition and riot, but only deny and question the authority of the Government, or try to contest the existing form of Government or the order of possession, do not escape transportation to Siberia, and the same punishment

will be inflicted upon him who maliciously circulates writings of this description, or aids and abets the perpetrators of these crimes. §350 says: "He who is cognizant of the existence of a society not permitted, and does not inform the authorities of it, will be imprisoned for from three to seven days; nor shall he be permitted to plead that the character and objects of the society were not fully known to him." §354: "He who leaves the fatherland, and, without the permission of the Government, enters the service of a foreign power, or becomes the subject of a foreign Government, will be divested of all the rights and privileges of his rank for this violation of his duties as a subject, and of his oath, exiled from the empire for evermore, and, in case of his unauthorized return, transported to Siberia and colonized for life." §355: "He who leaves the fatherland, and does not return at the order of the Government, will lose, in punishment of this disobedience, all the rights and privileges of his rank and be exiled from the empire for evermore, unless he proves, within the time fixed by the court, that his absence was caused by circumstances over which he had no control. Until then he will be treated as having left Russia forever, and his property will be placed in the hands of the public administrator. Transportation to the districts of Tomsk and Tobolsk and colonization for life awaits, furthermore, all Russians who, without special permission from the Government, remain abroad longer than they have been authorized to do, or who invite Russians to emigration."

It should be borne in mind, however, that some of these rigorous paragraphs of the Russian code are, *in praxi*, not carried into execution to the full extent of the law, especially in the western provinces, where considerable latitude is allowed to the judges of the criminal courts. This latitude seems to be indirectly recognized by certain paragraphs, relating to the mode of criminal procedure, in the revised penal code.

As regards the loss of "all the rights and privileges of his rank," which the criminal code of Russia mentions so often, it is a phrase embracing all personal and real rights. There are three degrees of the loss of these rights: Loss of all rights and privileges, loss of *all special* privileges, and loss of *some special* privileges. Noblemen, deprived of all the rights and privileges of their rank, lose their hereditary and personal nobility, and all prerogatives connected therewith; clergymen, in the same case, are expelled from the clergy; persons possessed of hereditary or personal honorary citizenship, and merchants of the first two guilds, lose their good name and prerogatives. Besides, the loss of all rights and privileges involves the loss of all titles, orders, and marks of distinction, and the confiscation of all diplomas, grants, patents, and certificates. On the other hand, he who is deprived of all the

special privileges of his rank, loses only his titles, marks of distinction, nobility, and rank, and is subjected to the following regulations: 1. He is forbidden to enter the service of the state or of any corporation; 2. He cannot enter any guild nor obtain the license required for carrying on mercantile affairs; 3. He cannot be a witness to any contract or other legal document, nor give evidence, whether under oath or not, in civil lawsuits, unless the court should deem his testimony indispensable; 4. He cannot be chosen arbiter; 5. He cannot officiate as guardian or curator; 6. He cannot hold any powers of attorney. Persons sentenced to lose *some special* privileges of their rank, when noblemen, cannot enter the service of the state nor that of any corporation, participate in the elections, hold electoral offices, and officiate as guardians; when clergymen, they are deprived of the faculty of filling clerical positions; when merchants and honorary citizens, they cannot participate in the municipal elections, nor be elected to any positions of honor or trust.

RUSSIA, THE PRESS OF, IN 1868. The statistics, regarding the periodical press of Russia, are so meagre and incomplete that it is very difficult to decide whether the statement in Texier's work on "European Journalism," that, in the year 1864, there was in Russia only one newspaper to every four hundred and twenty-five thousand inhabitants, is reliable or not. Since that time the number of daily and weekly papers, published in Russia, has decreased rather than increased. Thus, for instance, in St. Petersburg there were published in the year 1863 eleven daily papers with an aggregate circulation of sixty thousand copies. On the 1st of January, 1868, there were only seven of these papers still in existence, and their aggregate circulation barely exceeded forty thousand copies. Warsaw had in 1860 eight daily newspapers, with an aggregate circulation estimated at fifty thousand copies. Five years afterward it had but three daily papers, whose aggregate circulation fell short of fifteen thousand copies. Kieff, one of the largest inland cities of the Russian empire, had in 1862 two daily papers, both of which were suppressed by order of the Government; in 1867 only one small official weekly journal was issued in this place, which has nearly one hundred thousand inhabitants. Vilna, the capital of Lithuania, had in 1862 four daily newspapers; it has now only one, the official *Russian Gazette*, with a circulation of less than one thousand copies. Moscow has several daily papers; two of them have a very considerable circulation. One of the latter, the *Moskva*, edited by M. Katkoff, is the most influential paper in Russia, and its circulation, in 1867, was believed to be upward of forty thousand copies. Being the ablest and most outspoken organ of the National (Old Russian) party, it was not long in achieving a success unparalleled in the history of Russian journal-

ism. But, although it confined its polemical articles mostly to subjects connected with the foreign policy of Russia, and, in treating of domestic topics, took pains to pursue a most conciliatory course toward the Imperial Government, it was involved in endless conflicts with the latter, prosecuted for violations of the press laws every month or two, frequently subjected to heavy fines, and, on the 27th of December, 1868, ordered by the Government to suspend publication for six months, a measure which is likely to result in the definite suppression of this most popular and influential of Russian newspapers. In Odessa, where there is a comparatively large foreign population, and where the administration has always displayed more lenity toward the press than in any other large city of the empire, there were published in the year 1867 six daily papers, with a circulation of twenty-five thousand copies. One of these daily papers is published in the French language; and two of the Russian journals of Odessa, so far as editorial ability is concerned, are equal to any of the St. Petersburg papers. The National party, which is very strong in St. Petersburg, and, above all, in Moscow, controls most of the papers published in those two capitals; but it is exceedingly weak in Odessa, the population of which has more of a cosmopolitan character, and, in consequence, only one of the dailies in that southern city, and, moreover, the one having the smallest circulation, advocates Old Russian principles.

In the Baltic provinces of Russia there were published in the year 1866 thirty-one dailies and weeklies in the German language, and seven in the Russian language. In 1867 and 1868 the Old Russian party made energetic efforts to increase the number of Russian organs in the principal cities of those provinces; but these efforts, though indirectly supported by the St. Petersburg administration, had remained fruitless until the middle of the year 1868, when, for the first time after several years, a new daily paper, printed in the Russian language, made its appearance at Riga. Owing to the disinclination of the population to encourage the growth of Russian organs in their city, while the German papers were sorely oppressed by all sorts of vexatious measures on the part of the authorities, the journal had to suspend publication in October, 1868.

In consequence of the persistent attempts of the Imperial Government to Russify all the border provinces inhabited by non-Russian populations, the German papers, published in the Baltic provinces, were subjected in the year 1868 to a series of persecutions, which would have certainly resulted in the ruin of most of them but for the great firmness with which the population stands by them, and the resolute resistance which it offers to the efforts of the administration to lessen the circulation and influence of the German press of Russia.

Throughout the year 1868, there has been going on a bitter war between the Russian journals of St. Petersburg and Moscow, on one hand, and the German papers of Riga, Dorpat, Mitau, etc., in regard to the Russification measures strenuously advocated by the former, and as resolutely resisted by the latter. Although most of the German papers of the Baltic provinces are managed and edited with considerable ability, their circulation, owing to the limited extent of the field, to which they are confined, is not very large.

By far more successful than in the Baltic provinces have been the efforts of the Russian Government to extirpate the independent organs of the Polish press. The number of political papers published in 1868 in Poland was considerably smaller than it was during the most oppressive periods of the reign of the Emperor Nicholas. Nearly all the Polish newspapers at the present time are official organs of the Government, and, owing to the hostility with which the vast majority of the population looks upon the administration, whose views and policy they support, their influence and circulation are very limited.

There exist, however, in Poland six or eight papers, which are printed clandestinely, and which circulate in large numbers all over the country.

In the Old Russian provinces of the empire, too, there are issued numerous clandestine papers, whose aggregate circulation Alexander Herten, an excellent authority in regard to this point, estimates at one hundred thousand copies. Most of these clandestine papers are printed at Moscow and St. Petersburg. They are almost without an exception organs of the Nihilists, and advocate the consolidation of the Slavic races into a great Panslavonic Republic. In one respect these clandestine papers of Russia, objectionable as their language and tendencies frequently are, certainly exercise a very salutary influence, and that is by the opportunity which they constantly afford to their editors to expose the crimes committed by tyrannous and dishonest functionaries, etc. Besides the papers secretly printed in Russia, large numbers of the two democratic journals published in the Russian language in London and Geneva are smuggled every week into the various provinces of the empire. At one time, ten thousand copies of the celebrated *Kolokol* (Bell), edited by Alexander Herten, were regularly sent to St. Petersburg.

As regards the relations of the independent Russian newspapers toward the administration, the year 1868, like the preceding one, presented an unbroken series of prosecutions and all those vexatious measures which the Russian press code enables the Government to bring to bear upon the journals that incur its displeasure. Since the year 1865, when the attack made upon the life of the Emperor Alexander II. put an end to the moderately liberal policy which he had pursued during the first decade

of his reign, the reforms in the press laws, which had been granted shortly after the emancipation of the serfs, were neutralized by the spirit of severity and intolerance displayed by the functionaries that were intrusted with the surveillance and censorship of the newspapers. In consequence of this rigor, the condition of the Russian press, in 1867 and 1868, was little better than during the reign of the Emperor Nicholas. Many of the most talented Russian journalists abandoned in the last two years the journalistic career, and quite a number of journals suspended publication during that time.

The most important event in the journalistic history of St. Petersburg, during the year 1868, was the promulgation of an imperial ukase directing the Minister of the Interior to consolidate the existing official and semi-official journals into one official paper, to be called the *Russian Moniteur*. The *Journal de St. Petersbourg*, the *Russian Invalide*, and the *Northern Bee*, have, in consequence, been discontinued.

The *St. Petersburg Gazette* has the largest circulation of any of the daily papers of the capital. It prints daily between nine and ten thousand copies. Next comes the *Golos*, with

a circulation of between six and seven thousand copies.

A notice issued by the Russian post-office department in July, 1868, places all Russian papers on a footing of equality in regard to the rates of postage, which until then had been fixed in the most arbitrary manner; the papers devoted to the Government paying only half as much postage as the independent and Liberal journals.

Twenty-nine literary papers, seven monthly literary magazines, and three quarterly reviews, are published in St. Petersburg and Moscow. Five of the literary weeklies are illustrated, and have a relatively large circulation. The *Wjestnik* (Messenger) stands at the head of the monthly magazines, both as regards editorial ability and popularity. Its circulation in the year 1867 was larger than that of any magazine published on the Continent.

The literary periodicals of Russia, limited as their number is, as a general thing, suffer from lack of able contributors, inasmuch as eminent Russian writers are mostly averse to writing for the papers. In consequence of this peculiar state of affairs, the compensation paid to the writers for the literary press is comparatively liberal in Russia.

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SAN DOMINGO, or the Dominican Republic, a state of the West Indies, comprising the eastern portion of the Island of Hayti. Area, 17,826 square miles; population, 136,500 (mostly mulattoes or whites). The value of imports in 1867 was \$520,000, and that of exports \$690,000. The tax on imports is about 40 per cent. *ad valorem*. The number of vessels entering the ports of San Domingo and Puerto Plata in 1867 was 62 (together of 8,699 tons), of which 27 were German and 17 English. President, in 1868, Buenaventura Baez. Ministers, in May, 1868: Justice, Felix Delmonte; Foreign Affairs and Agriculture, Gautier; War, Hungria; Finance and Commerce, Curiel.

The insurrection, which in the latter part of 1867 had broken out against President Cabral, rapidly gained ground in January, 1868, and in February President Cabral, with his whole Cabinet, fled from the capital, which was taken by the insurgents. The leader of the insurrection, General Buenaventura Baez, who in January had been formally proclaimed President, took possession of the government, and maintained himself throughout the year, though he did not succeed in ending the civil war. Cabral himself remained in the field against Baez, and in December, 1868, was reported to have gained some advantages. Besides him, the chief opponents of Baez, and leaders of the insurrection, were Generals Polanco, Luperon, Morena, Castillo, Ogando, and Adzu.

SAXE, the name of one grand-duchy (Saxe-Weimar) and three duchies (Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Meiningen, and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha), belonging to the North-German Confederation. Reigning princes, Grand-duke Karl Albert, of Saxe-Weimar, born June 24, 1818, succeeded his father July 8, 1853; Duke George II., of Saxe-Meiningen, born April 2, 1826, succeeded his father September 20, 1866; Duke Ernst I., of Saxe-Altenburg, born September 16, 1826, succeeded his father August 3, 1853; Duke Ernst II., of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, born June 21, 1844. Area and population (according to the census of 1867) are as follows:

	Square Miles.	Population.
Saxe-Weimar.....	1,404	283,044
" Meiningen.....	956	180,335
" Altenburg.....	510	141,426
" Coburg-Gotha.....	760	168,735

Saxe-Altenburg had, in 1867, 141,149 Protestants, 240 Roman Catholics, 36 persons belonging to other religions, and 1 Israelite. Saxe-Meiningen, in 1867, had 177,279 Protestants, 1,102 Roman Catholics, 44 Mennonites, 1,629 Israelites, and 139 members of other congregations. In Saxe-Weimar there were, in 1864, Protestants, 269,007; Roman Catholics, 9,927; Greek Catholics, 48; Mennonites, 2; other Christians, 43; Israelites, 1,129.

According to a military convention concluded on June 26, 1867, by Prussia with Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt,

Reuss-Greiz, and Reuss-Schleitz, the troops of these states are organized by Prussia into three infantry regiments of Thuringia, of three battalions each.

Revenue, expenditure, and public debt, were in 1867 as follows (value expressed in thalers):

	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Public Debt.
Saxe-Weimar.....	1,730,131	1,700,088	4,000,000
“ Meiningen....	2,137,895	2,032,152	4,116,143
“ Altenburg....	878,904	878,888

In Saxe-Coburg-Gotha the financial administration is still separated for the two former duchies of Coburg and Gotha. In Coburg the receipts, in 1867, were 417,000 florins; expenditures, 407,000 florins; public debt, 1,686,574 florins: Gotha, receipts and revenue, 624,890 thalers each; public debt, in 1868, 333,134 thalers.

SAXONY, a kingdom belonging to the North-German Confederation. King, Johann I., born December 12, 1801; succeeded his brother Friedrich August II. on August 9, 1854. Heir-apparent, Albert, born April 23, 1828. Area, 5,779 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 2,423,401. The population of the largest cities, in 1867, was as follows: Dresden, 156,024; Leipsic, 90,824; Chemnitz, 58,573. The ecclesiastical statistics of the kingdom, in 1867, were as follows: Lutherans, 2,361,861; Roman Catholics, 51,478; Reformed, 5,566; German Catholics, 1,649; Anglicans, 458; Greek Catholics, 413; Israelites, 2,103; others, 58. The revenue and expenditures are estimated, in the budget for the year 1868-'69, at 13,371,057 thalers each. The public debt, at the close of the year 1867, was 75,264,062 thalers. The Saxon army, which now constitutes the Twelfth army corps of the North-German Confederation, numbers, in time of peace, 24,143 men.

Among the important acts of the Saxon Diet was the abolition of capital punishment, and the adoption of a new constitution for the Lutheran Church, giving to that church a higher degree of self-government. The King, in his closing speech, thus referred to these and some other bills adopted by the Diet:

An important affair, on which you had been already occupied, namely, the new ecclesiastical and synodal organization of the Evangelical-Lutheran Church of Saxony, has this time been brought to a satisfactory result. If the position of the church toward the state has thus become more free and more clearly defined, I also hope that the more unrestricted participation in ecclesiastical affairs, accorded to the parishes and to the church in its collective form, will contribute to vivify and strengthen the religious and moral element, deeply enrooted in the people. Not only does the bill you have adopted on the retiring pensions of schoolmasters greatly improve their position, but you have also shown, by allowing different credits, the lively interest you feel in our educational establishments. The revision of the mining regulations which you have terminated, and by which the principle of the liberty of trade has been applied to that branch of production, must be counted, with the voting of other bills which are not without importance, among the happiest results of this session.

I observe, with especial satisfaction, that you have been enabled in the latter part of the session to adopt the bills introducing trial by jury. With the political education which the Saxon people has acquired by a long participation in public affairs, I hope that this institution will rapidly take root among us, and will produce results all the more satisfactory since its principle is already fully realized in the law, and is freed from all inconvenient formalities. An important, and, with the aid of God, a beneficent, progress has also been achieved by the abolition of capital punishment. The question is of so grave a nature, and touches so closely the human conscience, that every sincere conviction, even when differing from our own, demands respect, and consequently the opposition I have met with on this subject has been neither against my expectations nor my desires; and, moreover, my resolution was formed with difficulty. But it did not arise from purely theoretical reflections. I thought that, considering the character of the Saxon people, it is possible to dispense with this punishment under ordinary circumstances, and that its retention could not be justified in presence of the doubts which have arisen respecting it. I consequently hope that the success of the experiment will confer upon Saxony the honor of having first taken a step which will perhaps be followed elsewhere at a later period. Finally, you gave a new proof of your patriotic sentiments in agreeing to the changes proposed in the electoral laws, which involved the sacrifice of so many institutions and relations we all were accustomed to venerate.

SCANDINAVIAN PRESS, THE, IN 1868. I. THE SWEDISH PRESS.—On the opening of the year 1868, there were published in the kingdom of Sweden one hundred and thirty-three political papers, fifty-nine literary journals, twenty-seven papers devoted to scientific, agricultural, and mechanical subjects, ten sheets containing only advertisements and official publications, thirteen literary and scientific monthly magazines, five quarterly and three annual reviews. Of the political newspapers, thirty-four were dailies, thirty tri-weeklies and semi-weeklies, and sixty-nine weeklies, and semi-monthlies. Fifteen new political journals were established in the course of 1867, of which three were dailies, three semi-weeklies, and nine weeklies. Seven of the political papers of Sweden suspended publication or were entirely discontinued in the year 1867.

The aggregate circulation of the daily papers of Sweden in the year 1867 was, on an average, one hundred and eleven thousand copies daily; of the tri-weeklies, fourteen thousand; of the semi-weeklies, sixteen thousand; and of the weeklies and semi-monthlies, forty-one thousand copies. In the months of January and February, 1868, there was a considerable increase in the circulation of most of the Swedish newspapers, owing to the intense excitement to which the important political struggle, taking place at that time, had given rise; but, as the interest soon afterward subsided to a great extent, there was a sensible falling off in the circulation, especially in that of the daily papers published in Stockholm and the other large cities of the kingdom. The largest circulation of any daily paper published in Sweden (that of the Stock-

holm *Aftonblad*, Evening Journal) is between eleven and twelve thousand copies; the circulation of three other daily papers exceeds seven thousand copies; four other dailies have a circulation of upward of three thousand copies; a few other papers print between one thousand and fifteen hundred copies; and most of the small country dailies have a very limited circulation, frequently not exceeding two hundred copies. All the daily papers published at Stockholm, Gothenburg, Calmar, Ystad, and Upsala, receive regular telegraphic dispatches from all parts of Europe, although, with the exception of the Stockholm press, they do not get near as full telegraphic reports as the Danish press. Very few of the Swedish country dailies received any telegraphic dispatches at all until the excitement, brought about by the elections of members for the new Swedish Parliament, and the debates of the Chambers, caused a majority of the country journals to have the most important news on those subjects telegraphed to them from Stockholm; and some of them, afterward, made arrangements for the publication of special dispatches from the capital whenever important events should take place. The total sum paid by the Stockholm press for telegraphic dispatches in the year 1867 is estimated at forty-two thousand rix-dollars. It must have been considerably larger in 1868, in the first place, owing to the great political excitement which prevailed at certain periods of the year; and, then, in consequence of the painful and intense interest excited all over Sweden by the appalling famine which, in the early part of the year 1868, desolated certain provinces of the kingdom. While the exciting political struggles which took place in Sweden at the beginning of the year, and the interest so generally taken in the developments of the extensive famine—one of the most terrible calamities which ever befell the Scandinavian Peninsula—added considerably to the circulation of the newspapers, especially in the large cities, where some of the most enterprising and popular journals succeeded in selling twice as many copies as ever before, the general stagnation of business, arising from the same causes, on the other hand, reacted injuriously upon the prosperity of Swedish journalism, and the advertising receipts of most of the Swedish newspapers, in the early part of 1868, were considerably smaller than in the same length of time in the preceding year.

Seven political dailies and five weeklies were published in Stockholm in February, 1868; the aggregate circulation of these seven dailies was, on an average, forty-six thousand copies daily; the *Aftonblad* (Evening Journal) had the largest circulation. The annual advertising receipts of all the Stockholm dailies rarely exceed one hundred and twenty-five thousand rix-dollars. They are mostly edited with marked spirit and ability, as regards both their political and literary matter. The com-

pensation paid to Swedish journalists and feuilletonists, as a general thing, is more liberal than that obtained by their Copenhagen colleagues. Some of the most eminent Swedish authors and *sarants* are connected with the press of Stockholm, whose influence over the educated classes of the population is very great, and which played an important part in the momentous struggles which have agitated the kingdom since the year 1865. But for the boldness and talent with which the organs of the Liberal party in the Stockholm press attacked the old Constitution of the kingdom and advocated the necessity of reforms more in keeping with the progressive spirit of the times, the struggle against the aristocratic system of the "Four Estates" and the transformation of Sweden into one of the most liberal constitutional monarchies in Europe could not have been carried into effect at so early a day. The daily journals of some of the other large cities of Sweden are but little inferior to the metropolitan press, as regards ability and enterprise; but little can be said in praise of the Swedish country press. Owing to the sparseness of the population in most of the central and northern districts of the kingdom, the imperfect character of the railroads, and postal and telegraphic communications, few of these country papers are in a prosperous condition. As a general thing, they are even smaller, and contain less reading-matter, than the Danish country papers; but, as the resources of the country are being more and more developed, and railroads and telegraph lines multiplied, their condition and prospects cannot but greatly improve.

The press laws of Sweden are not fully as liberal as those of Denmark, and administrations of reactionary tendencies might subject the press of the country to many vexations; but, fortunately, the Swedish Government, for many years past, has displayed a spirit of unusual moderation in this respect, and press prosecutions are of very rare occurrence, notwithstanding the marked boldness with which the opposition papers frequently attack the measures of the administration.

Some of the literary papers published in Sweden have a comparatively large circulation; one of them, the Stockholm *Miscellany*, prints over twenty thousand copies. The compensation paid to contributors by some of these literary journals is larger than that obtained by the periodical writers in other countries of Northern Europe.

Two of the monthly magazines published at Stockholm are printed in the French language. Most of the others, as the quarterly and annual reviews, are edited by university professors and distinguished *sarants*. A feature, peculiar to the periodical literature of Scandinavia, is the fact that quite a number of these magazines and reviews contain only articles written by the editor and proprietor. Their circulation, with few exceptions, is limited.

II. THE NORWEGIAN PRESS.—According to the newspaper statistics published in the Christiania *Maanedskrift* for March, 1868, there were issued in Norway, in the year 1867, seventeen daily papers, sixty-two tri-weeklies, semi-weeklies, weeklies, and semi-monthlies, and seven monthly magazines and quarterly reviews. The aggregate circulation of the daily papers was thirty-seven thousand five hundred copies; of the tri-weeklies, semi-weeklies, weeklies, and semi-monthlies, forty thousand copies. Christiania has five daily papers, with an aggregate circulation of nineteen thousand copies. Seven of the Norwegian dailies receive brief telegraphic reports from Stockholm, Copenhagen, and other northern points. No Norwegian paper has a circulation of over five thousand copies. The advertising receipts of the Christiania, Bergen, and Drontheim papers are considerably smaller than those of their Stockholm and Copenhagen contemporaries. The poverty and sparseness of the population in the rural districts, the lack of railroad, mail, and telegraphic communications, exercise a depressing influence upon the Norwegian press, some of whose organs are edited and managed with considerable ability; and, in consequence, the compensation paid to Norwegian journalists and feuilletonists is not very liberal.

The literary and scientific press of Norway consists of nineteen weeklies, and seven magazines and reviews, most of which are edited by eminent Norwegian authors and *savants*. With one exception, their circulation is very limited.

SCHÖNBEIN, CHRISTIAN, a distinguished chemist, was born at Metzingen, Wurtemberg, October 18, 1779; died at Baden-Baden August 28, 1868. He was in early life apprenticed to a manufacturer of chemical products, but, having been conscripted, he declined to take the oath, asserting that he would only give his word. The King of Wurtemberg, having heard of this, interrogated young Schönbein, and was so much pleased with his answers, that he acquitted him from military service, and assisted him in completing his education at the University of Tübingen and then of Erlangen. After the completion of his studies at the universities, Schönbein made a trip through France and England, and at the age of twenty-nine became a professor of the University of Basle. Among the chemical discoveries of Schönbein are the general phenomena of *passivité*, or the property which many metals have of acquiring, under certain conditions, new properties; the discovery of the cause of the production of electricity in Grove's pile; the discovery of *ozone*, of *gun-cotton*, and of *collodion*. Schönbein has published two stories of travel, and a *Programme*, a kind of general plan indicating the end and aim of science.

SCHWARZBURG, the name of two principalities belonging to the North-German Confederation.

I. SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN. Reigning Prince, Günther, born September 24, 1801; succeeded his father August 19, 1835. Area, 332 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 67,500. Revenue, in 1866, 644,367 thalers; expenditures, 637,728; public debt, in 1868, 1,441,079. The capital, Sondershausen, had, in 1867, 6,275 inhabitants. The troops of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, in consequence of a military convention with Prussia, serve, since October 1, 1867, in the Prussian army.

II. SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT. Reigning Prince, Albert, born April 30, 1798; succeeded his brother June 28, 1867. Area, 374 square miles; population, 75,074, of whom 74,865 are Protestants, 93 Roman Catholics, and 113 Israelites. The capital, Rudolstadt, had, in 1867, 6,953 inhabitants. The receipts for the period from 1864 to 1866 were 2,582,322; the expenditures, 2,582,332. The troops of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt form, together with those of the two principalities of Reuss and Saxe-Altenburg, one of the infantry regiments of Thuringia.

SERVIA, MICHAEL III. OBRENOVITCH, Prince of, born in Belgrade, September 4, 1825; assassinated in that city, June 10, 1868. He was the younger son of Prince Milosh Obrenovitch, ruling prince of Servia, 1817-1839, and 1858-1860, who died in 1860. He was educated with his elder brother Milan, by a Russian professor named Zoritch. In 1839 his father was compelled to abdicate, and his brother Milan was made *hospodar* or prince, but died in about three months, when Michael was proclaimed his successor. He was at that time but fourteen years of age, and the principality was in a condition bordering on anarchy, from Russian intrigues, the schemes of other aspirants to the *hospodarship*, and the bickerings of the Senate. In September, 1842, he was deposed, and Alexander Karageorgievitch, a scion of a rival house, proclaimed prince. While in exile, he spent much time in travel and study, making his home in Vienna and in Wallachia. After sixteen years of exile, a revolution in 1858 restored his father to power, and on his father's death, in 1860, he succeeded to the *hospodarship* and ruled with great ability. In 1867 he succeeded in compelling Turkey to withdraw the garrisons of the five fortresses in the possession of that Government. His assassination was believed to be instigated by the deposed prince Karageorgievitch.

SEYMOUR, THOMAS HART, a political leader and former Governor of Connecticut, born in Hartford, Conn., in 1808; died in that city September 3, 1868. His early education was obtained in the excellent schools of his native city, and, his tastes leading him to prefer a military education, he entered the Military Institute at Middletown, Conn., then under the care of Captain Alden Partridge, and, pursuing the full course, graduated there, we believe, in 1829. He was, for some time after his re-

turn to Hartford, the commanding officer of the Hartford Light Guard, a well-trained and aristocratic voluntary organization. After some delay, finding the prospects of a military career not promising, he turned his attention to the study of law, and was admitted to the bar in Hartford about 1833. He soon attained to a fair practice, but never aspired to a high position in his profession. In 1837-'38 he became editor of a Democratic paper, *The Jeffersonian*, and about the same time was Judge of Probate for the district. His popular manners and fine address, together with his zeal, soon threw him into the arena of politics, and in 1843 he was elected to Congress from the Hartford district. At the expiration of his term he declined a re-nomination. In March, 1846, he was commissioned major of the Ninth or New England Regiment of Volunteers, in the Mexican War, where he distinguished himself by his gallant conduct. On the 13th of October, 1847, Colonel Ransom, the commander of the Ninth Regiment, having fallen in the assault on Chapultepec, Major Seymour led the troops, scaled the height, and with his command was the first to enter that strong fortress. He was promoted to the command of the regiment, and took part in the capture of Mexico. In 1849 he was nominated for Governor, but, though gaining largely over the vote of the preceding year, he was not elected. The next year he was again a candidate, and was chosen Governor by a handsome majority, being reelected in 1851, 1852, and 1853. In 1852 he was presidential elector. In the autumn of 1853, President Pierce nominated him as United States minister to Russia, and he filled the office for four years with marked ability. He formed a warm personal friendship both with the Czar Nicholas and his son, the present Emperor, and received from them many valuable and costly tokens of their regard. After nearly a year of European travel he returned to the United States in 1858. When the war commenced, his sympathies were largely with the South, and he continued his opposition to the war until its close. In 1863 he was again a candidate for the governorship, but was defeated.

SIPHON OF THE BRIDGE OF ALMA.
The river Seine divides the city of Paris and its sewers into two parts or districts, that of the right and that of the left bank of the river. In consequence of this division, two systems of sewers are required, one for either bank. The main sewer of the right bank, a sort of confluent of the Seine, empties into it at Asnières. The main sewer of the left bank empties at the bridge of Alma. It was important to avoid infecting the waters of the river with the current of the last-mentioned sewer. To effect this, it was determined to connect the two sewers by continuing the main sewer of the left bank to the point where that of the right bank empties into the Seine at Asnières. This necessitated the excavation of a tunnel under the river. The plan was adopted of

running a long subterranean canal under the Seine, from the bridge of Alma to a point of junction with the main sewer of the right bank, near the street Courcelles. This was a great undertaking. The excavated canal at its lowest level has a depth of 30 metres. Starting from the lower level of the Seine, this subterranean channel runs under the Avenue Josephine, crosses the Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile (its point of greatest depth), the Avenue of Wagram, the street of Courcelles, and of Villiers, and turns at right angles to form a junction with the main sewer of Asnières near the point where it empties into the Seine. Three years were required for this work, which was carried on to its completion without the use of any structure above-ground indicating the work going on beneath. The canal was excavated by means of shafts, opening at unequal distances at the surface, after the manner of those for opening a railway-tunnel, or a mining-gallery. Starting from the Place de l'Étoile, and running on the line of the Avenue Josephine, the Place de l'Alma, etc., through a series of pits, for a long time noticeable on that route, the *deblai*, or excavated matter, was brought to the surface by steam-power.

In July, 1868, the work was completed, the shafts filled up, without in the least interfering with the public travel, or giving any indication at the surface to show the extent and severity of the labors which had been performed beneath. The junction sewer being completed, the sewage of the left bank was now to be passed through it under the Seine. To effect this object a great metallic siphon was early in September, 1868, sunk in the bed of the Seine at the bridge of Alma. This siphon consists of two tubes, 124 metres in length. The difference of one yard in the grade, between the openings of the opposite ends of this vast tube, creates a current and forces the flow of the sewage at the rate of two yards in a second. These tubes of which this siphon consists are not cast, like gas or water pipes, but formed of two wrought-iron plates one centimetre in thickness, placed one upon the other and riveted together. They were brought from the workshop in pieces of 14 yards in length, and put together on the bank of the river. Each tube being double, as above described, is nearly an inch in thickness. The diameter of each tube is one metre. The bed of the Seine where this metallic siphon was to be placed had been dredged to the depth of two metres. The ditch caused by this dredging had been filled up with mortar, in the midst of which the siphon being placed, will thus lie and be enveloped in a bed of mortar of about 16 inches in thickness. In the sinking of the siphon a great and unanticipated difficulty was encountered. The ends had been closed before it was moved into the water, in order, being filled with air, that it might be moved and guided with less difficulty to its place over

the ditch prepared for it. Once in the line of position, the ends were to be opened, and the siphon sunk to its proper place in the bed of the stream. The two tubes were firmly joined at the ends with plate-iron couplings, or collars, moved to the surface line over the ditch referred to, and loaded down with pig-iron to sink them. But scarcely had they been submerged to the depth of one-half their diameter, when the water checked in its current, and, seeking an outlet, boiled up over the upper tube, fell into the interval between the two, and then leaped up again over the lower tube, thereby causing a formidable oscillation and rolling movement, which shook off a great part of the iron by which the siphon was being sunk. This iron was raised and the ditch cleaned out by divers, and meanwhile additional precautions were taken to make the next attempt a success, by constructing a double stockade of piles on the upper side of the siphon, in the manner of those on its lower side, to the end that the siphon, sustained and held in a horizontal position, might more effectually resist the force of the current. The siphon was again loaded with iron, guys were attached to control and regulate its descent, and, at its second trial, it was submerged, without accident or obstruction, to the entire length of the stockades, which to a certain extent served the purpose of slides or runways. Water-gauges placed on different parts of the double tube, and indicating by their scales the depth attained, marked, as they sunk, the progress of the immersion. When the index showed the proper depth, the siphon had reached its bed; and thenceforth it has received the sewage which it is destined to bear from bank to bank, and nothing betrays where it lies in the bed of the Seine.

SLEMMER, Brevet Brigadier-General ADAM J., Lieutenant-Colonel 4th Infantry, an American army officer conspicuous for his gallantry and meritorious conduct, born in Montgomery County, Pa., about 1828; died at Fort Laramie, Dakota Territory, where he was commander, October 7, 1868. He entered West Point in September, 1846, and graduated July, 1850, twelfth in his class. He was assigned a position in the 1st Artillery, and, after a short campaign against the Seminole Indians in Florida, was four years on frontier service in California. In 1855, after a short period of garrison duty at Fort Moultrie, Charleston harbor, he was appointed assistant professor at West Point, where he remained four years, and then returned to garrison duty at Fort Moultrie and Barrancas Barracks, Fla., till January 10, 1861, when he was transferred to Fort Pickens, which he gallantly held till May 9, 1861, against the attempts to besiege it. He was promoted to be major of 16th Infantry May 14, 1861, and served in Virginia and the Western Department, being engaged under General Buell in his march from Corinth to Louisville, and back to Nashville. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers, November 29, 1862,

and took part in the battle of Stone River, December 31, 1862, where he was severely wounded, and received a brevet of lieutenant-colonel in the Regular Army for his gallant conduct. He was disabled by his wound from further active service during the war, but performed some garrison and other duties. On the 8th of February, 1864, he was promoted to be lieutenant-colonel of the 4th Infantry, and in March, 1865, was brevetted colonel and brigadier-general for his meritorious services. After being mustered out of the volunteer service in August, 1865, he was employed in garrison duty at Fort Schuyler and Sackett's Harbor, N. Y., till October 1, 1865; was on Board of Examination of Cadetship for promotion in the Army for over a year, and then was assigned to the command of the post of Fort Laramie, D. T., where he died of disease of the heart.

SMITH, SEBA, an American journalist and author, born at Buckfield, Me., September 14, 1792; died at "The Willows," Patchogue, L. I., July 29, 1868. He graduated at Bowdoin College, Maine, in 1818, and subsequently settled in Portland, Me., as a writer for the periodical press. While there he wrote the popular series of humorous political letters under the pseudonyme of "Major Jack Downing," first published collectively in 1833, and which afterward passed through several editions. In 1842 he removed to New York, in which city, or in its neighborhood, he continued to reside until his death. His remaining publications comprise "Powhatan," a metrical romance (1841); "New Elements of Geometry" (1850), an ingenious but paradoxical attempt to overturn the common definitions of geometry, in which he maintained the position that the three dimensions of space—length, breadth, and thickness—were predicated upon lines, surfaces, and solids—the book excited little attention, and has long been out of print; and "Way Down East, or Portraits of Yankee Life" (1855). Mr. Smith was the husband of Mrs. Elizabeth Oakes-Smith, whose miscellaneous writings are familiar to numerous readers. His last illness was protracted and painful.

SOMMERS, Rev. CHARLES G., D. D., a Baptist clergyman and author, born in London in 1793; died in New York, December 19, 1868. In 1802 he emigrated with his parents to the United States, and was in 1811 employed by John Jacob Astor as his confidential clerk and travelling agent. He made long journeys to Canada and elsewhere in his employer's interest, and while engaged on one of these met with such a change in his religious views that he decided upon entering the Christian ministry. He accordingly stated to Mr. Astor his purpose and his reasons for it, and his employer parted with him kindly though reluctantly. He completed his studies and began his labors as a preacher at the Old Almshouse in the Park, where he was very useful. From thence he was called to the pastorate of the First Baptist Church in Troy, and after several years re-

called to New York to the pastorate of the South Baptist Church there (1823), worshipping in Nassau Street near Fulton. He remained there pastor till 1856, when he retired to private life. For twenty-three years he was the recording secretary of the Executive Committee of the American Tract Society. He was also an officer of the American Bible Society, and subsequently of the American and Foreign Bible Society, one of the founders of the American Baptist Home Mission Society, and a director almost from the first of the Home for Aged and Indigent Females. He published several tracts of the American Tract Society, a number of sermons and occasional addresses, and a few small denominational books; he was also one of the editors of *The Baptist Library*. Madison University conferred the degree of D. D. upon him in 1852.

SOUTH CAROLINA. The convention, called by order of General Canby, "to frame a constitution and civil government" for the State of South Carolina, under the provisions of the reconstruction acts of Congress, assembled in the city of Charleston on the 14th of January, and organized by the election of Dr. A. G. Mackey, as permanent president. The convention finished its work in fifty-three days, and adjourned on the 17th of March.

As soon as the work of organizing the convention was completed, Governor Orr was invited to address the delegates. This he did in an earnest speech, in which he expressed his regret that the white citizens who were entitled to vote under the reconstruction acts had very generally abstained from exercising the privilege, and that, as a consequence, the "intelligence, refinement, and wealth of the State," were not represented in the convention. He therefore all the more earnestly recommended wise and moderate action on the part of the delegates, and suggested some of the features which he considered most essential in the new constitution. Above all, he urged the removal of all political disabilities from the white citizens, but advised an educational or property qualification, applicable to blacks and whites alike. In regard to a time-honored doctrine in the South, he said: "The doctrine of State rights, as taught in South Carolina, has been exploded by the war. The allegiance of the citizen, according to the results of that controversy, is due to the Government of the United States, and not to the State. I recognize this doctrine to the fullest extent, and, in my inaugural message as Governor of the State, I announced my judgment that hereafter the supremacy of the United States Government over the State was undisputed and indisputable. I am aware that many of my contemporaries deny the proposition, but, if I can properly comprehend the legitimate sequences of war, no other result presents itself to my mind."

During the first weeks of the session, while the various committees were occupied in preparing the portions of the constitution in-

trusted to them respectively, some measures of general legislation were adopted. The expenses of the body were provided for by an ordinance to raise a special tax for that purpose, which was carried into effect by an order of the military commander. One of the subjects demanding the most serious attention of the convention was that of relieving the people from their numerous pecuniary embarrassments, by some enactment having the force of law. Among the poorer classes, especially the freedmen, a degree of want existed amounting almost to destitution, but this was relieved in some measure by the United States Government through the agency of the Freedmen's Bureau. Advances were also made to planters, to a moderate extent, from the same source, which became a lien upon their property, by order of the military commander, to secure repayment. It was also proposed to make appeals directly to Congress for loans or donations, to relieve the people from pressing wants, but none of the propositions of this kind prevailed.

By far the most important measures of relief ordained by the convention was a "stay law," which was matured by long deliberation and finally adopted on the last day of the session, and afterward carried into effect by military order. While this ordinance was pending in the convention, a temporary stay of sales on execution for a period of three months was effected by an order of the district commander issued in response to a request of the convention. The stay law, as finally passed, continued all civil actions pending in the Superior Courts, to the spring term of 1869, and provided that execution on all judgments then rendered should be for only one-tenth of the amount due; further execution for one-fifth to be issued in 1870, for one-half the residue in 1871, and for the balance in 1872. Such provisions were made as were necessary to render this ordinance effectual, and its operation was limited to debts and demands contracted prior to May, 1865. Another ordinance was passed declaring null and void all contracts the consideration of which was the purchase of slaves, and prohibiting all proceedings for their enforcement.

During the deliberations of the convention, the following resolutions, which exhibit the views of a portion of the members, were submitted, and referred to the Committee on the Executive:

Whereas, a large majority of the people heretofore constituting the government of the State of South Carolina have, by unjustifiable rebellion, forfeited their political rights, and are hostile to every act of Congress for the reconstruction of the State to the Union, claiming, as they do, every political right under the Constitution, which properly defines their late acts as treason and authorizes even the penalty of death for crimes thus committed, instead of equal rights with those who love the Government which they so madly attempted to destroy, and

Whereas, the officers of the present provisional government of the State, from the highest to the

lowest, have generally exercised their influence and used the emoluments of their offices in a manner highly prejudicial to the claims of loyal citizens, and in opposition to the laws of Congress, looking to a speedy reconstruction, the only competent authority we recognize, and are now marshalling their forces to defeat any constitution, however faultless it may be, that this convention may frame as the fundamental law of the State: therefore, be it

Resolved, That we, the representatives of the loyal people, having accepted in good faith the terms offered by Congress for the restoration of the State to her proper relations in the Union, demand for ourselves and our constituents, under the law and the constitution, present and prospective, every right which these embittered and incorrigible enemies to the Government claim as exclusively their own.

Resolved, That the continued efforts of the present disloyal officers of the provisional government of the State, to continue themselves in power as such, while looking to a speedy reinstatement to place in the Federal positions so lately and contemptuously deserted by many of them, and their systematic efforts to escape the just penalties of violated faith, while their active hostility to the essential principles of republicanism remain, are substantial and positive proofs that the safety of the Government and the welfare of the people demand their removal.

The following were referred to the Committee on Miscellaneous Provisions:

Whereas, the prosperity of States, like that of families, depends upon the harmony existing among its members, and the precepts of truth and religion teach us to do unto others as we would they should do unto us;

And whereas, our newly-enfranchised citizens have displayed their good sense and strong love of country, by a cordial and unassuming cooperation with the rest of their fellow-citizens, in promoting the true interests of our beloved State and glorious Republic, be it

Resolved, That this convention take such action as it may in its wisdom deem compatible with its powers, and conducive to the public weal, to expunge forever from the vocabulary of South Carolina the epithets "negro," "nigger," and "Yankee," as used in an opprobrious sense. That the exigencies and improved civilization of the times demand that this convention, or the legislative body created by it, enact such laws as will make it a penal offence to use the above epithets, in the manner described, against any American citizens of this State, and to punish the insult by fine or imprisonment.

The first article of the constitution embraces only the Declaration of Rights, which consists of forty-one sections. Besides the provisions ordinarily contained in documents of the kind, the following may be selected as somewhat peculiar:

SECTION 2. Slavery shall never exist in this State; neither shall involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted.

SEC. 5. This State shall ever remain a member of the American Union, and all attempts, from whatever source, or upon whatever pretext, to dissolve the said Union shall be resisted with the whole power of the State.

SEC. 12. No person shall be disqualified as a witness, or be prevented from acquiring, holding, and transmitting property, or be hindered in acquiring education, or be liable to any other punishment for any offence, or be subjected in law to any other restraints or disqualifications in regard to any personal rights than such as are laid upon others under like circumstances.

SEC. 32. No property qualification shall be neces-

sary for an election to or the holding of any office, and no office shall be created, the appointment to which shall be for a longer time than good behavior. After the adoption of this constitution, any person who shall fight a duel, or send or accept a challenge for that purpose, or be an aider or abettor in fighting a duel, shall be deprived of holding any office of honor or trust in this State, and shall be otherwise punished as the law shall prescribe.

SEC. 39. No title of nobility or hereditary emolument shall ever be granted in this State. Distinction on account of race or color, in any case whatever, shall be prohibited, and all classes of citizens shall enjoy equally all common, public, legal, and political privileges.

The House of Representatives is to be composed of 124 members, apportioned among the counties according to population, who shall hold office two years. There is to be one Senator for each county elected for a term of four years. The regular State elections are to be held on the third Wednesday in October of every second year, beginning with 1869, and the sessions of the General Assembly are to be held annually on the 4th Monday of November. Ministers of the Gospel are made ineligible to seats in the Legislature, and to the office of Governor or Lieutenant-Governor. All members of the Assembly, and all officers, before entering upon their duties, and all members of the bar, before commencing the practice of their profession, are required to take and subscribe the following oath:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I am duly qualified according to the Constitution of the United States, and of this State, to exercise the duties of the office to which I have been elected (or appointed), and that I will faithfully discharge, to the best of my abilities, the duties thereof; and that I recognize the supremacy of the Constitution and laws of the United States over the constitution and laws of any State; and that I will support, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States, and the constitution of South Carolina, as ratified by the people on _____ So help me God."

The Governor and Lieutenant-Governor are to be chosen for a term of two years, and are invested with the functions usual to officers of the same grade in other States. Among the disqualifications for these positions, is a denial of the "existence of a Supreme Being." A Comptroller-General, Treasurer, and Secretary of State are to be chosen, to hold office for a term of four years.

The judicial power of the State is vested in a Supreme Court; in two Circuit Courts, viz., a Court of Common Pleas having civil jurisdiction, and a Court of General Sessions with criminal jurisdiction only; in Probate Courts, and justices of the peace. The General Assembly may also establish such municipal and other inferior courts as may be deemed necessary. The Supreme Court is to consist of a chief justice, and two associate justices, chosen by a joint vote of the General Assembly for a term of six years. The Circuit Judges are to

be chosen in the same manner, and hold office four years. A Court of Probate is to be established in each county, the judge of which shall be chosen by a vote of the people for a term of two years. Justices of the peace are elected by the people, and have jurisdiction of all cases where the amount involved does not exceed one hundred dollars. The General Assembly is required, at its first session after the adoption of the constitution, to make provision "to revise, digest, and arrange, under proper heads, the body of our laws, civil and criminal, and form a penal code founded upon principles of reformation, and have the same promulgated in such manner as they may direct; and a like revision, digest, and promulgation shall be made within every subsequent period of ten years. That justice shall be administered in a uniform mode of pleading, without distinction between law and equity, they shall provide for abolishing the distinct forms of action, and for that purpose shall appoint some suitable person or persons, whose duty it shall be to revise, simplify, and abridge the rules, practice, pleadings, and forms of the courts now in use in this State."

The qualifications of electors are laid down in the following section:

Sec. 2. Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, not laboring under the disabilities named in this constitution, without distinction of race, color, or former condition, who shall be a resident of this State at the time of the adoption of this constitution, or who shall thereafter reside in this State one year, and in the county in which he offers to vote, sixty days next preceding any election, shall be entitled to vote for all officers that are now, or hereafter may be, elected by the people, and upon all questions submitted to the electors at any election: *Provided*, That no person shall be allowed to vote or hold office, who is now, or hereafter may be disqualified therefor by the Constitution of the United States, until such disqualification shall be remedied by the Congress of the United States: *Provided further*, That no person, while kept in any almshouse or asylum, or of unsound mind, or confined in any public prison, shall be allowed to vote or hold office.

Any person, entitled to vote, is declared eligible to office "except as otherwise provided in this constitution or the Constitution and laws of the United States;" and the Legislature is prohibited from depriving any of the citizens of the State of the right of suffrage "except for treason, murder, robbery, or duelling, whereof the persons shall have been duly tried and convicted."

The supervision of public instruction is given to a State Superintendent and to County Commissioners, and it is made the duty of the General Assembly, "as soon as practicable," to provide for a "liberal and uniform system of free public schools," and to cause the State to be divided into suitable school districts, in each of which one or more schools are to be kept open at least six months in the year. Compulsory attendance, at either public or private schools, of all children between the ages of six and sixteen, not physically or

mentally disabled, for a term equivalent to twenty-four months at least, is to be provided for as soon as "a system of public schools has been thoroughly and completely organized and facilities afforded to all the inhabitants of the State for the free education of their children." The Legislature is also required to provide for the establishment of a State Normal School; educational institutions for the Blind, and Deaf, and Dumb; a Reform School; State University; and Agricultural College. A poll-tax of one dollar is to be exacted solely for the support of schools, and an annual tax on all taxable property is to be levied for the same object.

The following is section 10 of the article on education:

All the public schools, colleges, and universities of this State, supported by the public funds, shall be free, and open to all the children and youths of the State, without regard to race or color.

When the work of the Constitutional Convention was completed, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the convention are due to Brevet Major-General E. R. S. Canby, commanding Second Military District, and all officers in this department who have cooperated with this body in the framing of the constitution, under the provisions of the reconstruction acts of Congress, for the future government of South Carolina.

Resolved, That this convention will ever remember with gratitude the harmonious relations which have existed between the military authorities, under the command of General Canby, and its members, and that, in this expression of the appreciation of such a pleasant fact, we recognize how feeble words are to convey the true sentiment of the heart.

Resolved, That a certified copy of these resolutions be furnished by the President of this convention to Brevet Major-General E. R. S. Canby, commanding Second Military District.

The convention had adopted an ordinance on the 9th of March providing that the constitution should be submitted "for ratification to the persons registered under the provisions of this act (March 23, 1867, section 4), at an election to be conducted by the officers appointed or to be appointed by the commanding general as hereinbefore provided, and to be held after the expiration of thirty days' after the notice thereof, to be given to the said convention;" and on the 13th, General Canby issued the necessary orders appointing the 14th, 15th, and 16th of April for holding the election, at which the vote was to be taken on the constitution, and all the State officers were to be chosen. Full directions were given with regard to the registration of voters, the revision of the lists, and the taking of the ballots, which did not differ materially from those for the election of 1867.

For the preservation of good order on election days, the following regulations were laid down:

9. The sheriff and other peace officers of each county are required to be present during the whole time that the polls are kept open, and until the election is completed; and will be made responsible that there shall be no interference with judges of elections, or other interruption of good order. If there should be more than one polling-place in any county,

the sheriff of the county is empowered and directed to make such assignments of his deputies and other peace officers to the other polling-places, as may in his judgment best subserve the purposes of quiet and order; and he is further required to report these arrangements in advance to the commander of the military post in which his county is situated.

10. Violence, or threats of violence, or of discharge from employment, or other oppressive means to prevent any person from registering or exercising his right of voting, is positively prohibited; and any such attempts will be reported by the registrars or judges of election, to the post commander, and will cause the arrest and trial of the offenders by military authority. The exhibition or carrying of deadly weapons, in violation of General Orders No. 10, of 1867, at or in the vicinity of any polling-places during the election herein ordered, will be regarded and treated as an additional offence.

11. All bar-rooms, saloons, and other places for the sale of liquors by retail, will be closed from six o'clock of the evening of the 13th of April until six o'clock of the morning of the 17th of April, 1868; and during this time the sale of all intoxicating liquors at or near any polling-place is prohibited. The police officers of cities and towns, and the sheriffs and other peace officers of counties, will be held responsible for the strict enforcement of this prohibition, and will promptly arrest and hold for trial all persons who may transgress it.

12. Military interference with elections, "unless it shall be necessary to repel the armed enemies of the United States, or to keep the peace at the polls," is prohibited by the act of Congress, approved February 25, 1865, and no soldiers will be allowed to appear at any polling-place, unless as citizens of the State they are qualified and are registered as voters, and then only for the purpose of voting; but the commanders of posts will keep their troops well in hand on the days of election, and will be prepared to act promptly if the civil authorities are unable to preserve the peace.

Nominating conventions of both parties were held, to place candidates before the people for the State offices. The Republican nominations were made by the Constitutional Convention, sitting as a nominating convention, and with one exception were taken from the members of that body. For the office of Governor they nominated General R. K. Scott, a native of Ohio, who had been for some time Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau in the State; for Lieutenant-Governor, Judge Lemuel Boozer; for State Treasurer, N. G. Parker, formerly from Massachusetts, who had served as an officer of colored troops in the war; for Comptroller-General, J. J. Neagle, from New York, originally, however, a North Carolinian; for Secretary of State, F. L. Cardoza, a colored man of intelligence and education; for Adjutant and Inspector-General, F. J. Moses; for Attorney-General, D. H. Chamberlain, a young man from Massachusetts, who had served in the Federal army.

The Democratic Convention met at Columbia on the 8d of April. The attention of the delegates was given, soon after the opening of the convention, to a series of resolutions representing the views of the party. The following were adopted without debate:

Whereas, In the opinion of this convention, the interests both of our State and our common country imperatively demand the union of all good, wise, and

conservative men, under the banner of the national Democratic party—a party faithful to the principles of the Federal Constitution, as maintained by the fathers of the Republic: be it therefore

Resolved, That the Democratic party of South Carolina do unite with the national Democratic party of the country, and hold themselves ready, under the Constitution and the laws, to coöperate with that organization in all principles, and in all measures, that may be regarded conducive to the interests of the whole country and of all classes of the people.

Resolved, That the people of this State, including all men prepared to act with the party, be earnestly invited to form Democratic clubs in every section of the State.

The third resolution was in these words:

Resolved, That the people of this State be urgently recommended to go to the polls and vote against the constitution of the Radical faction lately promulgated in Charleston, and to vote for good and true men for all offices within their gift.

After some debate an amendment was adopted in the following words:

At the same time, in voting for officers under this constitution, we would put on record our protest against its validity.

A fourth resolution was then offered, which read as follows:

Resolved, That, under the action of the State of South Carolina, heretofore taken, we recognize the negroes of the State as an integral element of the body politic; and, as such, in person and property, entitled to a full and equal protection under the State constitution and laws. And that, as citizens of South Carolina, we declare our willingness, when we have the power, to grant them, under proper qualifications as to property and intelligence, the right of suffrage.

After some discussion, this was amended by substituting the words "colored population" for "negroes," and in that form adopted. The nominations were: for Governor, Hon. W. D. Porter, of Charleston; for Lieutenant-Governor, Hon. T. C. Perrin, of Abbeville; for Secretary of State, Ellison Capers; for Adjutant and Inspector-General, Colonel J. P. Thomas; for Treasurer, William Hood; for Comptroller-General, S. L. Leaphart; for Attorney-General, I. W. Hayne; for Superintendent of Education, J. A. Leland.

The commanding general having received information from different sections of the State, "and from members of both political parties, that combinations have been formed, or are now being formed, to prevent delay or hinder the execution of the laws of the United States, or by force, intimidation, or threat, to prevent persons from accepting or executing the duties of any office or employment under the United States, at the election to be held under authority of the law of March 2, 1867," issued an order on the 6th of April, warning all persons taking part in any such combinations that they were "amenable not only to the penalties prescribed under the authority of said laws, but for the violation of the act of Congress 'to define and punish certain conspiracies,' approved July 31, 1861." It was also declared to be the duty of the civil and military authorities "to secure to every registered voter the free and full exercise of his right of suffrage, and this

duty must be fully, faithfully, and impartially performed." Military commissioners were also appointed for each county with the powers of justices of the peace, and sheriffs, constables, police officers, and troops, if necessary, were placed at their command for the enforcement of the regulations laid down in regard to the election under the reconstruction laws. Some of the complaints had reference to the conduct of colored citizens, and to these the commanding general considered it "proper to say that the elective franchise conferred upon them by law carries with it no authority to restrict others in the free exercise of that right; and that while it is their duty not to regard threats or intimidation as to themselves, any combinations, to prevent by force, intimidation, or threats, the same free exercise of this right by others will be unlawful, and will subject the offenders to the penalties prescribed by law and by military orders. They are counselled to exercise the right of voting in a quiet and orderly manner, giving offence to no one; and, after casting their votes, not to linger about the polling-places, but to return quietly to their homes and to their customary avocations."

The election took place without serious disturbance, and resulted in the choice of the Republican candidates for the State offices. The vote on the constitution was as follows:

DISTRICTS.	Number Registered.	For.	Against.	Total.	Not voting.
Abbeville.....	5,302	2,821	1,100	3,921	1,381
Anderson.....	3,764	1,312	1,375	2,687	1,077
Barnwell.....	5,718	3,357	687	4,044	1,674
Beaufort.....	8,053	4,939	159	5,099	2,955
Charleston.....	20,144	12,282	3,334	15,616	4,528
Chester.....	3,471	1,750	981	2,731	740
Chesterfield.....	1,936	722	664	1,386	550
Clarendon.....	2,353	1,403	243	1,646	707
Colleton.....	5,420	3,083	382	3,465	1,955
Darlington.....	4,667	2,710	691	3,401	1,266
Edgefield.....	7,056	3,472	1,072	4,544	2,512
Fairfield.....	3,509	1,986	699	2,685	824
Georgetown.....	3,256	2,473	145	2,618	738
Greenville.....	3,572	1,610	788	2,398	1,174
Horry.....	1,640	406	773	1,179	461
Kershaw.....	2,743	1,406	329	1,735	1,008
Lancaster.....	2,100	868	780	1,648	458
Laurens.....	4,119	1,901	1,137	3,038	1,081
Lexington.....	2,595	1,105	569	1,674	921
Marion.....	3,741	1,586	1,565	3,151	590
Marlboro'.....	2,213	1,258	435	1,693	520
Newberry.....	3,492	2,049	802	2,851	642
Oconee.....	1,603	487	627	1,114	489
Orangeburg.....	5,159	2,957	1,167	4,124	1,035
Pickens.....	1,325	391	434	825	500
Richland.....	4,628	2,501	1,248	3,749	879
Spartanburg.....	4,449	1,430	1,983	3,413	1,036
Sumter.....	5,157	3,426	452	3,903	1,249
Union.....	3,383	1,490	771	2,261	1,122
Williamsburg..	2,639	1,644	290	1,934	755
York.....	4,233	1,933	1,576	3,509	724
Total.....	133,597	70,758	27,288	98,046	35,551

The constitution having been ratified, a copy of the instrument was forwarded to Congress for its approval. The Democratic Central Committee at once framed a remonstrance against it, which was prepared by the Hon. B. F. Perry, and sent three of their number to Washington, to urge it upon the attention of Congress. They argued their case before the Reconstruction Committee, and the remon-

strance was submitted in the House of Representatives, and there it was laid on the table. The principal ground of opposition to the constitution, on the part of the Democratic party, is exhibited in the following passages from the "remonstrance:."

Section two of article eight enfranchises every male negro over the age of twenty-one, whether a convict, felon, or a pauper, and disfranchises every white man who has held office in South Carolina. Intelligence, virtue, and patriotism are to give place, in all elections, to ignorance, stupidity, and vice. The superior race is to be made subservient to the inferior. Taxation and representation are no longer to be united. They who own no property are to levy taxes and make all appropriations. The property-holders have to pay these taxes, without having any voice in levying them! The consequences will be, in effect, confiscation. The appropriations to support free schools for the education of negro children, for the support of old negroes in the poor-houses, and the vicious in jails and penitentiary, together with a standing army of negro soldiers, will be crushing and utterly ruinous to the State. Every man's property will have to be sold to pay his taxes.

We have thus suggested to your honorable body some of the prominent objections to your adoption of this constitution. We waive all argument upon the subject of its validity. It is a constitution *de facto*, and that is the ground upon which we approach your honorable body in the spirit of earnest remonstrance. That constitution was the work of Northern adventurers, Southern renegades, and ignorant negroes. Not one per cent. of the white population of the State approves it, and not two per cent. of the negroes who voted for its adoption understand what their act of voting implied. That constitution enfranchises every male negro over the age of twenty-one, and disfranchises many of the purest and best white men of the State. The negro being in a large numerical majority as compared with the whites, the effect is that the new constitution establishes in this State negro supremacy, with all its train of countless evils. A superior race—a portion, Senators and Representatives, of the same proud race to which it is your pride to belong—is put under the rule of an inferior race; the abject slaves of yesterday, the flushed freedmen of to-day. And think you that there can be any just, lasting reconstruction on this basis? The committee respectfully reply, in behalf of their white fellow-citizens, that this cannot be. We do not mean to threaten resistance by arms. But the white people of our State will never quietly submit to negro rule. We may have to pass under the yoke you have authorized, but by moral agencies, by political organization, by every peaceful means left us, we will keep up this contest until we have regained the heritage of political control handed down to us by an honored ancestry. This is a duty we owe to the land that is ours, to the graves that it contains, and to the race of which you and we are alike members—the proud Caucasian race, whose sovereignty on earth God has ordained, and they themselves have illustrated on the most brilliant pages of the world's history.

After the passage of the act of Congress, of June 25th, popularly known as the "Omnibus Bill," the Governor-elect issued a proclamation for the assembling of the Legislature on the 6th of July. The new Governor was inaugurated on the 9th of July, and, in his inaugural address to the Assembly, declared his full confidence in the validity and wisdom of the Federal legislation which had been adopted in reconstructing the State. On taking leave of the office, which he had filled since November

1865, Governor Orr submitted a message to the Legislature, in accordance with an invitation which he had received, giving all the information in his possession respecting the condition and necessities of the State, and he also issued an address to the people of South Carolina, in which he reviewed the period of his own administration, and recommended a cheerful coöperation with the existing authorities, for the restoration of prosperity in the State. General Scott also transmitted a message to the Legislature, calling attention to the various measures required in the organization of the State Government, and recommending such acts as he deemed expedient, in carrying into effect the different provisions of the new constitution. One of his most earnest recommendations was, that a memorial be sent to Congress, praying for the removal of all political disabilities imposed upon citizens of the State. The "Fourteenth Amendment" was ratified by a vote of 108 to 10, and the reconstruction of the State was practically completed by the withdrawal by military order, on the 13th of July, of all the authorities created by the reconstruction acts, "except so far as necessary for the inauguration of the new State government, and to close up unfinished business." It was announced that the terms of office of all agents and appointees, instituted for the purpose of carrying into effect the authority of the military commander in the civil government of the State, would cease on the date of the proclamation of the President, announcing the ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment; and that the tenure of all appointees to civil office under authority of the reconstruction laws should terminate when their successors, elected or appointed under the constitutional laws of the State, might be "duly qualified." Further orders were given for completion of business connected with the functions of district commander, and the final withdrawal of all such anomalous authority.

The executive government of the reconstructed State of South Carolina consists of the following officers: Governor, R. K. Scott; Lieutenant-Governor, Lemuel Boozer; Adjutant and Inspector-General, Franklin J. Moses, Jr.; Secretary of State, Francis L. Cardoza; Comptroller-General, J. L. Neagle; Treasurer, Niles G. Parker; Attorney-General, D. H. Chamberlain; Superintendent of Education, Justus K. Jillson.

The Senate consists of 33 members, nine of whom are negroes. Seven of the 24 white Senators are Democrats. Only 48 of the 124 members of the other House are white men, and of these but 14 are Democrats. The entire Legislature consists of 72 white and 85 colored members.

One of the first duties of the newly-organized Legislature, and one in which great interest was taken, was the election of Senators to Congress. After considerable canvassing, the

choice of the majority fell on Thomas J. Roortson, for the short term, ending in 1871, and Frederick A. Sawyer for the long term, which ends in 1873. Judges of the Supreme Court were also chosen: F. J. Moses being selected for Chief Justice, and A. J. Willard and S. L. Hoge for Associates. A resolution with regard to a memorial to Congress for the removal of disabilities was introduced, and referred to a committee, but not acted upon at this session. A bill "to protect all persons in the State in their civil rights, and furnish the means of their vindication," was introduced in the House of Representatives, which declared the civil equality of all citizens, and prohibited any discrimination on account of race or color on the part of hotel-keepers, carriers of passengers, granters of licenses, etc. This bill passed the House after long debate, and in the Senate was adopted with some important modifications, but the amendments were not concurred in by the House, and the whole measure failed.

Many laws were passed during the session, the object of which was to effect a reorganization of the machinery of the State government. The various courts provided for in the constitution were organized, and laws enacted to regulate their proceedings. Several enactments were made relating to elections, but none of these were of peculiar interest. A bill to amend the charter of the city of Charleston, making provision for an immediate municipal election under regulations laid down in the act, was vetoed by the Governor, and an attempt to pass it over his veto was unsuccessful. Among other measures relating to the administration of affairs in the State, was a homestead law and a law establishing a State police. Two laws were authorized, one to provide for certain floating obligations of the State, known as "bills receivable," and the other to provide for the payment of interest on the State debt. The Legislature adjourned on the 25th of September.

The declared principles on which the Democratic party was organized, at the convention of April, did not give satisfaction to the entire body of Conservatives in the State. The point chiefly objected to was the concession made in favor of qualified negro suffrage. In reply to a letter of Judge Aldrich, condemning the action of the convention, a member of the Democratic Central Executive Committee gave the following as the "views and principles of the Democratic party of South Carolina, as now organized under the auspices of the April convention: "

1. We maintain, "with President Johnson and the whole Democratic party North," that the whole reconstruction programme, enacted and to be enacted under the Military Bill of Congress, is unconstitutional, illegal, and properly null and void.

2. We therefore repudiate the admissions made by Governor Orr, in his address to the so-called Constitutional Convention, wherein he acknowledged the legality of that body.

3. We maintain that to the States belongs the question of negro suffrage. And further, believing an affirmative declaration on this subject expedient and essential to party vitality, and a move in the direction of justice and fair dealing, we deem it becoming and right now to say what, in our sovereignty, we would be willing to concede to the colored element. And further, the negro element in our midst, being a large one, we deem it statesmanship not to ignore it.

4. We appreciate, as fully as any, the dignity and claims of the white race, and contend that their political control of this State, and the country at large, is a right which must never be given up. This must be, and shall be par excellence, a white man's government.

5. But, at the same time, confident and strong in the knowledge of the white man's power, influence, and resolve, we hold it magnanimous, just, and right, to give the colored man a fair showing, and to set a premium upon industry, intelligence, and worth, whenever these elements are found in him. We would extend no consideration to the black man's Radical advisers from the North, nor to his renegade adherents South; but, as respects the great mass of colored people themselves, in consideration of their own inexperience, and the influences to which they have been subjected, we are disposed to indulge them yet longer.

Another convention was held on the 9th of June for the purpose of sending delegates to the National Convention at New York, and a committee was appointed to confer with the Executive Committee of the former convention. A harmonious meeting was held, which resulted in the proposition that the present convention appoint an Executive Committee of its own, and that the two be united at an early day. This was unanimously agreed to, and the only platform adopted was embraced in the following resolutions, which constituted a supplemental report of the committee of conference:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of this State duly appreciates and accepts the invitation from the Executive Committee of the Democratic party of the United States, to send delegates to the general convention to be held in New York, on the 4th day of July next, to nominate candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency of the United States; but, inasmuch as the military despotism under which South Carolina labors will render it impossible for the white race to cast the vote of the State, at the next presidential election, it is recommended to the delegates appointed from this State to ask the counsel of their brethren from other States as to the propriety of their voting in the convention, and to govern themselves accordingly.

Resolved, That having entire confidence in the principles and patriotism of the Democratic party, and believing and trusting to their assurances that they will, if triumphant, restore and maintain at the South, as they have done in the North, in the East, and in the West, the supremacy and government of the white race—a white man's government—leaving to the States themselves to regulate their suffrage laws; and, also, that they will expunge the usurpations and the fraudulent governments created by the military power, under what are called the reconstruction laws, and thereby restore to the Union the Southern States, such as they were before the enactment of said laws—we hereby pledge ourselves to the support of the candidates of that party for President and Vice-President of the United States, to be nominated at the coming convention in the city of New York, the 4th day of July next.

Still another Democratic Convention was held on the 6th and 7th of August, at Columbia, for the purpose of nominating presidential electors. Speeches were made by General Wade Hampton and other prominent Conservatives, and resolutions were adopted declaring:

1. We adopt the declaration of principles of the national Democratic party, and indorse the nominations of Seymour and Blair.

2. While entering a protest against the reconstruction acts, we rely confidently on constitutional agencies and peaceful instrumentalities to bring us the peace we seek and the reforms we need.

3. We invite all to unite with the Democracy in the effort to save free institutions and secure a genuine restoration to the Union, and put the republic on a career of honor, peace, and prosperity.

4. That President Johnson, for resisting the aggression of Congress, is entitled to the gratitude of the people.

5. Our acknowledgments are due to the citizens, soldiers, and sailors of the North who, amid the storm of Radical passions, have raised their voice in behalf of an insulted and outraged section.

6. The State Central Committee is authorized to fill vacancies resulting from the death or resignation of presidential electors; also, to take such steps as may be necessary to insure a Democratic success.

An address was soon after issued by the Executive Committee of the party to the colored citizens of the State, in which they attempted to show that the Southern Democrats are the real friends of the colored men, and reproach the latter for numerous disorders which they were led into by political excitement.

The negroes made a reply to this address, in which they assume to prove, from the past record of the Democratic party, that it had not shown itself a friend to the colored man, and deny that they have any disposition to excite disorders, or indulge in violence. During the heat of the campaign some disturbances occurred, and, on the 31st of August, Governor Scott issued a proclamation, in which he stated that information had reached him of armed and disciplined organizations, formed for political purposes, in the interest, as he intimated, of the Democratic party. This was, however, denied by the Democratic Committee, who further declared that "in the future, as heretofore, this party proposes to be a party of peace, of law, and order, and confidently relies upon peaceful instrumentality, and the ballot, to accomplish political reform, which the interests of the State and country demand." The negroes were also accused of arming and drilling companies, and threatening danger to the whites, but no serious outbreak occurred. One result of these excitements, however, was the enactment of a law by the Legislature "for the suppression of insurrection and rebellion." This gave the Governor authority to call out the militia for this purpose, and to seize and control railroads and telegraphs, as a part of the military establishment.

Several assassinations occurred during the fall, prompted, as is supposed, by political motives, the most notable of which were those

of James Martin and B. F. Randolph, both members of the General Assembly.

At the presidential election in November, 107,538 votes were cast, of which 62,301 were given in favor of the election of General Grant, and 45,237 were for Seymour: Grant's majority, 17,064. There are four congressional districts in the State, three of which sent Republican, and one a Democratic Representative to Washington.

The Legislature met in regular session on the fourth Wednesday in November, and two weeks later adjourned into the month of January, 1869.

The entire bonded debt of South Carolina amounts to \$5,407,306.27, consisting of the following items:

Three per cent. stock, payable at the pleasure of the State	\$38,836 00
Six per cent. fire loan, payable in 1870	314,453 89
Six per cent. stock new State-House	1,775,000 00
Six per cent. stock and bonds, funded debt	1,232,971 27
Five per cent. bonds, fire loan	484,444 51
Six per cent. bonds, Blue Ridge Railroad	1,000,000 00
Six per cent. bonds, new State Capitol	511,600 00

Making a grand total of

Interest due on the entire debt July 1, 1863	\$355,204 32
Interest due January 1, 1869	159,214 38

Total interest

The regular report of the financial operations of the State covers the period from the 15th of May to the 15th of November. The expenses of the Government during that time were \$409,688.76, while the receipts for the same time, including the funds on hand on May 1st, amounted to \$435,373.83. The estimated disbursements of the current year are put at \$819,290.51, including interest on the public debt to the amount of \$330,692.38.

The reorganization of the public institutions has made a good degree of progress during the past year. The Lunatic Asylum has been in successful operation, and on the 7th of November contained 204 inmates. There is a new penitentiary at Columbia, having 500 cells for male convicts, and 48 for females. On the 15th of January, 1868, there were 187 prisoners in the penitentiary, 158 of which were negroes.

The State has property in railroads as follows:

Shares in Northeastern Railroad Company	\$123,000 00
Shares in Spartanburg and Union Railroad Company	250 000 00
Shares in Pendleton Railroad Company	42,500 00
Shares in Greenville and Columbia Railroad Company	433,960 00
Shares in Blue Ridge Railroad Company	1,310,009 00
Shares in Columbia and Augusta Railroad Company	42,300 00
Shares in Cheraw and Coalfields Railroad Company	200,000 00
Shares in Laurens Railroad Company	50,000 00
Shares in South Carolina Railroad Company	24,000 00
Shares in Charleston and Savannah Railroad Company	270,000 00
Shares in Southwestern Railroad Bank	6,000 00
Shares in Keowee and Tuckaseegee Turnpike Company	6,000 00

Total

SPAIN, a country in Europe. From January, 1868, until September, the country was under the rule of Queen Isabella II.; in September a successful revolution overthrew the throne of the Queen, and the country was until the close of the year under a provisional government. Queen Isabella II. was born October 10, 1830; succeeded her father on September 29, 1833; was declared of age by decree of the Cortes, November 8, 1843; was married October 10, 1846, to her first cousin, Francisco de Assis, Titular King of Spain, born May 13, 1822, son of the Infante Francisco, brother of King Ferdinand VII. Her apparent was Alfonso, Prince of Asturias, born November 28, 1857. The eldest daughter of the Queen, Infanta Isabella, born December 20, 1851, married on May 14, 1868, the Count of Girgenti, brother of the ex-King Francis II. of Naples. The only sister of the Queen, Infanta Louisa, was born January 30, 1832, and married October 10, 1846, to Antoine, Duke of Montpensier, youngest son of the late King Louis Philippe of France. The right of Queen Isabella to the throne has always been contested by the family of her father's brother, Don Carlos (born March 29, 1788; died at Trieste, March 10, 1855). Don Carlos, on May 18, 1845, resigned his claims to the throne in favor of his eldest son, Don Carlos, Count of Montemolin, after whose death, January 13, 1861, the second son of Don Carlos, Don Juan, born May 15, 1822, inherited the claim to the throne. Don Juan, after the revolution of September, 1868, resigned his claims in favor of his eldest son, Don Carlos, Duke of Madrid, born March 30, 1848; married February 4, 1867, to Infanta Margareta, daughter of the late Duke Charles III. of Parma. The act of renunciation is dated Paris, October 2, 1868, and says: "My only ambition being the happiness of the Spaniards—that is to say, the internal prosperity of my beloved country and her prestige abroad—I believe it to be my duty to abdicate, and do hereby abdicate all my rights to the crown of Spain in favor of my son Don Carlos." The attempts made after the expulsion of Queen Isabella from Spain to effect a fusion of the two lines of Bourbons, failed, and both Isabella and Don Carlos, who assumed the name Carlos VII., up to the close of the year, maintained their rival claims.

At the beginning of the year 1868 the Spanish ministry was composed as follows: President and Minister of War, Marshal Ramon Maria Narvaez y Cámpo, Duke of Valencia (appointed July, 1866); Foreign Affairs, Arrazola (1867); Grace and Justice, Marquis de Roncalli (1867); Finances, Marquis de Barzanallana (1866); Interior, Bravo Murillo (1866); Public Works, Commerce and Instruction, Orobio (1866); Navy, Belda (1867); Colonies, Marfori (1867). On February 15, Severo Catalina was appointed Minister of the Navy. In consequence of the death (March 23, 1868) of the Prime Minister Marshal Narvaez, the whole ministry tendered their resignation, and on the



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24th of March, a new ministry was appointed, composed as follows: Presidency and Interior, Luis Gonzales Bravo Murillo; Navy, Belda; Justice and Foreign Affairs (provisionally), Roncali; Colonies, Marfori; Finances, Orobio; Public Works, Catalina; War, Lieutenant-General Mayalde y Villaroya. On the 16th of June, Roncali was definitely appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs; Coronado, Minister of Justice; Marfori, Minister of the Royal House. The Provisional Junta, which assumed the reins of the Government after the expulsion of the Queen, charged Marshal Serrano with forming a new ministry, which was completed on the 8th of October, and composed as follows: Presidency, Marshal Serrano, Duke de la Torre; War, Lieutenant-General Juan Prim, Marquis de los Castillejos; Navy, Juan Topete; Finances, Laureano Figuerola; Foreign Affairs, Juan Alvarez de Lorenzana; Justice, Antonio Romero Ortiz; Interior, Praxedes Mateo Sagasta; Colonies, Adelardo Lopez de Ayala; Public Works, Manuel Luiz Zorella.

Revenue and expenditures, in the budgets from 1866 to 1869, were as follows (value expressed in escudos—1 escudo = 10 reales = 48 cents):

YEARS.	Revenue.	Expenditures.
1866-'67.....	214,114,525	219,147,729
1867-'68.....	256,878,172	263,946,776
1868-'69.....	258,200,479	263,005,296

The public debt, on November 30, 1866, amounted to 20,412,134,058 reales.

In the budget for the island of Cuba, published by the *Official Gazette* of Madrid on May 25, 1868, the expenditure of the colony is estimated at 498,504,350 reales, against a revenue of 603,293,250 reales, leaving a balance in favor of the treasury of 104,788,900 reales. In the budget of the Philippine Islands for 1868, the expenditure is estimated at 204,571,510 reales, and the revenue at 238,490,510 reales.

The area of Spain, inclusive of the Balearic and Canary Islands, is 195,607 square miles. In point of administration, Spain was formerly divided into thirteen provinces (exclusive of the islands), most of which were during the middle ages independent states. In 1822 the Cortes abolished this division and divided the kingdom into fifty-one provinces (exclusive of the Canary Islands); this division was modified in 1833, and again in 1856. From that time, Spain has been divided into forty-nine provinces, each of which is called after its capital. The provinces are subdivided into districts (*partidos*). At the head of every province was a civil governor, appointed by the King. Among the different schemes of reorganization which were discussed in the last months of the year 1868, there was one to make Spain a federal republic on the basis of the revived names of the old historic provinces. In the following table we give both the old and the new division of provinces:

OLD PROVINCES.	NEW PROVINCES.	Population in 1864.
New Castile, 1,275,544.	Madrid.....	493,234
	Toledo.....	336,249
	Guadalaxara.....	209,973
	Cuenca.....	236,088
Mancha, 256,905.	Ciudad-Real.....	256,905
	Burgos.....	349,714
Old Castile, 1,681,297.	Logroño.....	180,677
	Santander.....	230,396
	Soria.....	154,278
	Segovia.....	150,740
	Avila.....	172,701
	Palencia.....	190,574
	Valadolid.....	252,217
Leon, 878,194	Leon.....	348,437
	Salamanca.....	256,336
Asturias, 571,335.	Oviedo.....	273,421
Gallicia, 1,880,522.	Coruña.....	571,335
	Lugo.....	589,448
	Orense.....	451,522
Estremadura, 715,899.	Pontevedra.....	383,340
	Badajoz.....	456,212
	Caceres.....	416,905
	Seville.....	298,994
	Cádiz*.....	490,368
	Huelva.....	411,301
	Huelva.....	184,043
Andalusia, 3,116,255.	Cordova.....	371,327
	Jaen.....	379,418
	Grenada.....	468,123
	Almeria.....	338,649
	Malaga.....	473,036
	Murcia.....	407,500
	Albacete.....	214,223
Valencia, 1,342,515.	Valencia.....	647,286
	Alicante.....	412,514
	Castellon de la Plana.....	282,715
Aragon, 921,305.	Saragossa.....	403,015
	Huesca.....	272,692
	Teruel.....	245,598
	Barcelona.....	746,453
	Tarragona.....	326,746
	Lerida.....	329,122
	Gerona.....	319,477
Catalonia, 1,731,798.	Navarra.....	310,944
	Biscaya.....	177,355
	Guipuzcoa.....	170,125
	Alava.....	100,886
Basque provinces, 759,310.	Total of provinces.....	15,752,607
	Balearic Islands.....	778,660
	Canary Islands.....	256,408
	Spanish population of Tetuan (Morocco).....	14,950
Islands,	Total population in 1864.....	16,302,625

According to the census of 1860, the total population was 15,673,536; in 1857 it was 15,464,340. The colonies of Spain, in 1868, had the following area and population:

COLONIES.	Square miles.	Inhabitants.
<i>America.</i>		
Cuba and dependencies.....	48,489	1,396,530
Porto Rico and dependencies....	3,596	583,308
<i>Asia and Oceanica.</i>		
Part of Philippine Islands (1867)	52,065	1,979,838
Caroline Islands & Palaoa (1860)	65,908	4,319,269
Marianas (1864).....	878	23,580
	417	5,610
<i>Africa.</i>		
Guinea Islands.....	67,303	4,348,459
	489	5,590
Total Colonies.....	119,777	6,333,887

The Cortes, which were in session on the opening of the year 1868, consisted almost ex-

* Inclusive of the island of Ceuta (10,395 inhabitants).

† Inclusive of the Presidios de Africa (3,119 inhabitants in 1860).

clusively of members of the Conservative (Moderados) and Neo-Catholic parties, as all the Liberal parties abstained, in March, 1867, from taking part in their election (*see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867). The only opposition made to the ministry proceeded from the Senate, in which from 30 to 40 members belonged to the Liberal parties. On the 2d of January, the Chamber of Deputies unanimously passed the draft of an address, in reply to the speech of the throne on the reassembling of the Cortes in December, 1867. The most important passage of this address is the following, in which the Chamber refers to the position of Spain with regard to the Roman question:

The deputies may be permitted to express their satisfaction at the flattering and pacific state of our relations with friendly powers, and to render themselves the interpreters of the extreme joy that has been produced in all truly Spanish, and consequently Catholic hearts, by your Majesty's magnificent words relative to the Pontifical power, and favorable to the independence and stability of the legitimate power and the incontestable rights of the Holy See.

While making use of the initiative, and taking up the attitude suitable to an eminently Catholic nation, and while offering to the Emperor of the French, a friend and ally of Spain, the support of our moral co-operation, and even of our forces in case it should be thought necessary to employ them in the defence of the legitimate rights of the Holy See, the Government has deserved well of the nation, has shown itself worthy of the Queen who happily occupies the throne of Isabella I., and worthy also of the nation which has combated for the integrity of its faith during seven centuries. In the horrible struggle of the revolution against legitimacy of force against right, the Holy See symbolizes the cause of right and of legitimacy. By her filial love toward this Holy Father, by the moral influence of her opinion, by her language and her vote, if the European Conference came to be realized, Spain must assume the post of honor and of justice at the right of the Sovereign Pontiff, who is the most august, the calmest, and the most venerable figure of contemporary history.

Conformably to these sentiments, the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, on January 22d, informed the Italian Government that Spain was determined to uphold the temporal power of the Pope. A brigade of volunteers was also formed for the support of the Pope, but it was dissolved before starting for Rome, owing to the remonstrances of France.

The proceeding of the Cortes did not present many points of interest. On March 11th the Minister of Finance was authorized to contract a loan of fifty-five millions of francs. The difficulty with England, arising out of the seizure of the British ship *Queen Victoria*, was settled by the payment of an indemnity to England. A treaty of commerce was concluded with the North-German Confederation. The formation of a new ministry, after the death of Marshal Narvaez, produced no change of policy. The Cortes were adjourned on May 20th.

During all this time, Spain was comparatively quiet. The Carlists had made preparations for a rising in February, but the scheme utterly failed. There were slight tumults in Catalonia in April, and the province was placed

under martial law; but no serious outbreak occurred.

But the situation became very grave in July. The Government claimed to have satisfactory evidence that the three great sections of the Liberal opposition, namely—the "Liberal Union," of which the late Marshal O'Donnell had been the chief; the "Progressists," to which belonged Espartero, Prim, Olózaga, and Madoz; and the Democrats, who embraced a large republican element—had united in a more extensive revolutionary scheme than any that had yet threatened the reign of Isabella. On the 7th of June, Generals Serrano, Cordova, Dulce, Bedoya, Latore, Letona, and Zabala were arrested at Madrid, and lodged in prison. Simultaneously with the arrest of the generals, the Government requested the Duke and the Duchess de Montpensier, who were likewise suspected of being implicated in the conspiracy, to leave the country. The ministerial papers announced that this measure had become necessary, in order "that the Duke might not be used as a flag by the enemies of Spanish institutions." Previous to their exile, the Duke and Duchess de Montpensier refused to comply with the orders of the Spanish Government, on the ground that an Infanta of Spain could only receive orders direct from the sovereign. Isabella thereupon signed the decree exiling them from Spain. After this step had been taken, the generals belonging to the Liberal Union party were also all exiled without exception. Insurrectionary attempts were at once made in Barcelona, Valencia, and Saragossa, but they were suppressed. Dissatisfaction with the Government increased, however, rapidly in all the provinces, and a number of prominent generals, among them the Captain-Generals of Madrid and Barcelona, tendered their resignations. Preparations for a great rising were made in all the provinces, and a perfect accord between all the oppositional parties secured.

The expected revolution began on the 17th of September, with an insurrectionary movement in Cadiz, and assumed at once formidable dimensions, when the commander of the naval force off Cadiz, Topete, declared in favor of the insurrection. Within a few days, pronunciamientos were made in almost every province. Local and provisional juntas were formed everywhere, to assume the control of the movement, and all the generals, exiled in June, as well as General Prim, appeared upon the scene, to place themselves at its head. Serrano and Prim were at Cadiz as early as the 19th of September. On the 21st the city of Santander fell into the hands of the insurgents, but it was recaptured on the 24th by General Calonge, after a sharp fight with the insurgents, who numbered about 1,800. The general reported a loss of 600 killed and wounded on the royal side, and 300 on that of the insurgents. After the reoccupation of the city, a number of citizens, who were found with arms in their hands, were tried by court-martial and immediately

shot. Against Serrano, advancing from Cadiz, General Pavia y Lacy (Marquis de Novaliches) was sent with troops from the capital. On the 28th an encounter between the two armies took place at Alcolea, two leagues from the city of Cordova, in the province of Andalusia. The first shots of the guerillas were heard toward three o'clock p.m. on the flank of the route at the gorge of the Sierra. Immediately after the artillery of the Marquis de Novaliches opened a well-sustained fire on the bridge and the country-houses beyond Las Ventas. After three hours and a half of a furious struggle the insurgents suspended their fusillade, and then the commander-in-chief and his staff rushed on to the bridge to the cry of "Viva la Reina!" They expected to pass without difficulty, but the troops of General Serrano, ambushed and covered by parapets, opened so violent a fire upon them that the troops of the Government had to fall back. The Marquis de Novaliches himself was seriously wounded in the throat. The defeat of Novaliches was immediately followed by a revolution in Saragossa, the whole of Andalusia, and in Madrid. In Madrid, the soldiers refused to fight any longer for the Queen, and made common cause with the citizens who declared in favor of the revolution. General Concha, who commanded in Madrid, resigned, and a provisional junta, composed of 14 Progressists, 9 Liberal Unionists, and 7 Democrats, was established to carry on the Government. All further resistance to the advance of Serrano was abandoned, and unopposed he entered with his troops on the 3d of October the city of Madrid, when he met with an enthusiastic reception. Equally or even more enthusiastic was the reception by the capital of General Prim on the 7th of October. The entire town turned out, and the crowds in the streets were immense. Deputations arrived from all parts, and they, with the troops, sailors, and civic bodies, escorted the general. It took upward of four hours for the procession to pass through the streets. The traffic was completely stopped, and several men and women were crushed to death by the crowd in front of General Prim's hotel, and in the Puerta del Sol. French, Italian, and Swiss deputations and musical bands accompanied the procession. General Prim made a speech to the people from the balcony of the office of the ministry, and laid stress upon the intimate unity existing between Marshal Serrano and himself, and urged the necessity for Liberals of all shades, for the people, and for the army, to preserve concord. "The victory of the revolution," he said, "was due to the joint action of the fleet, Marshal Serrano, and the exiled generals." At the conclusion of the speech, General Prim embraced Serrano, exclaiming aloud, "Down with the Bourbons!" This was received by all the people with unanimous applause. In the evening Madrid was magnificently illuminated.

At the outbreak of the revolution, the Queen,

who had just returned from a visit to the Emperor Napoleon at Biarritz, was at St. Sebastian, in the Pyrenees, near the French frontier. The defeat of her troops at Alcolea decided her to leave Spain at once for France. The Emperor sent three officers of the imperial household to meet the Queen, who on her flight was accompanied by the King-consort, her four younger children, her uncle Don Sebastian, the Minister of State, and several officers of the household, at the frontier. At the railway station at Hendaye, the Emperor, the Empress, and the Imperial Prince awaited the arrival of the Queen, who, after a brief interview with the imperial family, proceeded to Pau, where she took up her residence at the castle which the Emperor had placed at her disposal. From Pau she at once issued the following protest addressed to the Spanish people:

A conspiracy, for which the history of no European people offers a parallel, has just flung Spain into all the horrors of anarchy. The army and navy, which the nation so generously kept up, and whose services I have always been so happy to reward, forgetting glorious traditions and tramping upon the most sacred oaths, turn against their country, and involve her in mourning and desolation. The cry of the rebels raised in Cadiz Bay, and repeated in a few provinces by part of the army, must echo in the hearts of the immense majority of Spaniards as the forerunner of a storm which perils the interests of religion, the principles of legitimacy and right, and the independence and honor of Spain. The lamentable series of defections, the acts of incredible disloyalty which have occurred within so short a space of time, offend my dignity as a Spaniard even more than they affect my dignity as a queen. Let not the greatest enemies of authority themselves, in their insane dreams, imagine that a power which emanates from so high an authority can be conferred, modified, or suppressed by the intervention of brute force, under the impulse of deluded soldiers. If the towns and the provinces, yielding to the first pressure of violence, submit for a time to the yoke of the insurgents, soon public feeling, hurt in its inmost and noblest parts, will shake off its torpor, and show the world that the eclipse of reason and of honor in Spain cannot last long. Until that time arrives I have thought proper, as Queen of Spain, and after due deliberation and sound advice, to seek in the states of an august ally the security requisite to enable me to act, under these difficult circumstances, in conformity with my position as a queen, and with the duty that devolves on me to transmit unimpaired to my son my rights, sanctioned by law, acknowledged and sworn to by the nation, and fortified by thirty-five years of sacrifice, vicissitudes, and tender affection. While setting foot on a foreign soil, my heart and eyes turned toward that which is the land of my birth and that of my children. I hasten to frame my explicit and formal protest before God and before mankind, declaring that the force to which I yield in leaving my kingdom cannot invalidate my rights, nor lessen nor compromise them in any way. Neither can those rights be affected in any way by the acts of the revolutionary Government, and still less by the regulations of its assemblies, which must needs be formed under the pressure of demagogic fury, and under obvious conditions of violence as regards the conscience and will of the people. Our fathers maintained a protracted but successful struggle for the religious faith and the independence of Spain. The present generation has unceasingly toiled to connect all that was great and glorious in past ages with what modern times contain that is sound and fruitful. Revolution, that mortal foe to traditions and legiti-

mate progress, wars against all those principles which constitute the vital strength, the soul, and the manhood of the Spanish nation. Liberty in its unlimited expansion and in all its manifestations, attacking Catholic unity, the monarchy, and the legal exercise of power, disturbs family ties, destroys the sanctity of the domestic hearth, and kills virtue and patriotism. If you think that the crown of Spain, worn by a queen whose fortune it has been to connect her name with the social and political regeneration of the state, be the symbol of those sound principles, you will, as I hope, remain faithful to your oaths and to your creed; you will allow to pass away, as a scourge, the revolutionary vortex, in which ingratitude, felony, and ambition, jostle each other. You will live in the assurance that, even in the hour of misfortune, I shall omit nothing to uphold that symbol, apart from which Spain has not a single endearing recollection nor a single sustaining hope. The insane pride of a few is for a time upsetting and distracting the whole nation, throws men's souls into a state of confusion, and society into a state of anarchy. There is no room in my heart for hatred even against that small number. I should fear, lest any feeling of petty resentment should weaken the feeling of deep tenderness I entertain toward those loyal men who have risked their lives and shed their blood in defence of the throne and public order, and toward all those Spaniards who witness with grief and terror a triumphant insurrection—a shameful page in the history of our civilization. In the noble land whence I now address you, and everywhere, I will deplore, without allowing myself to be overcome, the misfortunes of my beloved Spain, which are my own. Had I not to support me, among many others, the example of the most venerable of sovereigns, a model of resignation and courage, also a prey to bitter tribulations, I should derive strength to do so from my confidence in the loyalty of my subjects, from the justice of my cause, and, above all, from my trust in the power of Him who holds the fate of empires in His hands.

A monarchy embodying fifteen centuries of struggles, patriotism, victories, and grandeur, cannot be destroyed by fifteen days of perjury and treason. Let us have faith in the future—the glory of the Spanish people was ever connected with its kings; the misfortunes of its kings ever fell heavily on the people. In my firm and patriotic hope that right, honor, and legitimacy will be maintained, your minds and your efforts will ever unite with the energetic decision and maternal affection of your queen,

ISABELLA.

CHATEAU DE PAU, *September 30, 1868.*

The Queen remained at Pau a few weeks, and then took up her residence at Paris.

Immediately after the success of the revolution in Madrid, a Central Junta was elected, which called upon Marshal Serrano to organize a ministry. Marshal Serrano accepted the task, and the ministry was formed on the 8th of October, consisting of the following members: Marshal Serrano, President; General Prim, War; Admiral Topete, Marine; Figuerola, Finance; Lorenzana, Foreign Affairs; Ortiz, Justice; Sagasta, Interior; Ayala, Colonies; Ruiz Zorilla, Public Works. It was at once announced that the definite organization of the country, and in particular the future form of government, would be left to the constituent Cortes which were to be elected, as soon as practicable, by universal suffrage. The Central Junta, and the several members of the ministry, issued a number of decrees for the provisional administration of the country until the

meeting of the Cortes. The Central Junta continued its functions until the 21st of October, when it dissolved. All the local juntas followed this example, and Marshal Serrano, until the close of the year, remained the head of the provisional government.

On the 20th of October the Provisional Government offered a manifesto, explaining the reasons which compelled the Spanish people to throw off the yoke of the Bourbon dynasty. After explaining the grievances of the nation against the late Government, the manifesto says:

The people must now regain the time which it has lost. The principle of popular sovereignty which is now naturalized in Spain is the principle of national life, and the ideal type of the nation's aspirations. We may, therefore, be permitted to affirm that the national sovereignty, exercised in the first place by the vote of all, and subsequently by those elected by the people, will decree a complete system of liberties, which form, or will form, soon the rich and inalienable patrimony of a civilized country.

The circular also examines at length the question of freedom of public worship, and expresses hopes for the free exercise of every religion. It also states the desire of the Government to be on good terms with foreign Powers, and to obtain the moral concurrence of foreign Governments, adding:

But if we should fail in this respect, if the example of America in recognizing the revolution be not followed, we shall not be discouraged. We can tranquilly proceed with our task, for our independence is not threatened, and we have no foreign intervention to fear. To legitimize the revolution we have sought the sole criterion now considered infallible—namely, an appeal to universal suffrage. The aim which we have in view is to place ourselves on a level with the most advanced nations, and thus cease to form a dissonance in the great concert of nations. We have a perfect right to expect from foreign countries respect for the state of things which we have created, and we entertain a justifiable hope that the Governments which march at the head of civilization will not refuse to Spain those proofs of amity and fraternity which they accorded to the power that crushed and humiliated us.

The new electoral law announced by the Provisional Government was as follows: Every Spaniard twenty-five years of age has a right to vote. The only persons disqualified are the following: Convicts not rehabilitated; men under criminal accusations at the moment of the elections; those deprived of their political rights; individuals against whom a judgment has been given, declaring them incapable of managing their own affairs; bankrupts; insolvent traders or manufacturers; and individuals prosecuted to recover payment of their taxes. Soldiers and sailors will vote at the places in which they are garrisoned, provided that they have a two months' residence. All electors dwelling in the communes and engaged in trade are eligible to municipal functions; they may also form part of the provincial councils, provided they do not occupy any office paid by the local government or the state. No Government functionary is qualified in the province, district, or commune in which he holds his office.

The functions of deputy are incompatible with any post requiring the holder to reside away from Madrid, and the acceptance of the former implies the resignation of the latter. The elections for the Cortes will take place by provinces. Those returning from six to nine deputies will form two circumscriptions; and those of ten and upward, three. The Balearic and Canary Islands are to be the object of a division in which their particular situation will be taken into account. There is to be a deputy for every 45,000 inhabitants, and for a fraction above exceeding 22,500. The ballot will last three days, and a special decree will fix the mode of voting in the islands. The electoral lists will be made out from November 15th to November 25th. The number of deputies is to be 350. A special decree indicating the manner in which the elections are to be conducted in the Spanish possessions will shortly be published.

The Minister of Public Instruction issued a decree ordering that henceforward primary education shall be absolutely free, restoring the normal schools, and reappointing the professors removed by the late Government. The minister also announced that he was preparing measures for establishing free secondary and superior education. The Minister of Justice and Public Works, Antonio Romero Ortiz, decreed the immediate extinction of all the monasteries, convents, religious houses, and congregations of both sexes that have been established in Spain and the adjacent islands since July, 1837, when they were last abolished. The decree provides that all the buildings, real property rents, rights and shares in these buildings are to become national property. The monks and nuns ex-cloistered in consequence of this decree are not considered to have any right to the pension that was granted to monks and nuns who were expelled in 1837. The nuns whose convents are suppressed in consequence of the decree may either go into such convents as still exist according to law; or they can claim to be paid back the dotation which they gave when they entered. This dotation or fee is 11,000 reals, or about \$555 in gold. All these convents, monasteries, etc., that were declared legally established by the law of July 29, 1837, are now to be reduced to half their number in every province, and the civil governors of the provinces will consult with the bishops and point out within the term of one month which of these establishments shall be preserved, and they are to take care that they preserve those that have architectural and artistic merit, and they are to send the nuns of suppressed convents to those that are left. The admission of novices in all the convents and nunneries of Spain is prohibited, and the novices that are now preparing to become monks or nuns are prohibited from taking the vows, even though they should have entered these monasteries as organists, singers, or with any other pretext. The nuns who, by virtue of the present decree,

can remain in these convents may leave whenever they please by an order given at their request by the civil governor, the bishop of the diocese being duly informed thereof. The nuns who took their vows before July 29, 1837, have a right to their pension of five reals a day, but those who have taken orders later have only right to their entrance-fee. The associations called Sisters of Charity, St. Vincent de Paul, St. Isabella, the Christian Doctrine, and such others as were dedicated only to teaching and to beneficence, are to remain, but hereafter, instead of having independent jurisdiction in their own affairs, they must come under that of the bishop. Another decree was issued by the same minister with special regard to the Jesuits, suppressing the Society throughout Spain and the Spanish islands, ordering that its colleges and institutions be closed within three days, and declaring its movable and immovable property sequestered to the state.

Señor Figuerola, the Minister of Finance, published a financial statement, in which he estimates the deficit at 2,500,000,000 reals, attributing it to the necessity for extraordinary expenditure in consequence of the prevailing distress and the want of work for the lower classes, though, he says, the Government did not acknowledge the right of the citizens to be provided with work by the state. This statement, which enters into a full explanation of the real state of the finances in Spain, was accompanied by a decree opening public subscriptions to a loan of 200,000,000 crowns, issued in 1,250,000 Treasury bonds, bearing six per cent. interest. The issuing price was 80, and the interest payable on June 30th, and December 31st, reckoning from January 1, 1869. The redemption of the loan would be by drawings, commencing in 1869 and terminating in 1888.

Señor Sagasta, the Minister of Justice, issued a decree promulgating the absolute liberty of the press, abolishing the office of a special judge for press trials, and placing all press offences within the jurisdiction of the ordinary penal code. The decree also suppresses the censorship on literary and dramatic productions. The number of political journals in Madrid, in consequence of the liberty of the press, increased very rapidly. The most important of these at the close of the war were the *Pensamiento Español*, the *Esperanza*, *Siglo*, the *Estandarte* (reactionary), *Diario Español* and *Política* (Liberal Union), *Novedades* and *Iberia* (Progressist), *Discusion* (Republican).

The Protestants of Spain were authorized to hold meetings, and to erect churches in Madrid, Seville, Barcelona, and other places.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, Lorenzana, sent a circular to the foreign representatives of Spain abroad, in which the minister explains the causes, character, and political bearing of the revolution. Spain had, under the rule of

her last two monarchs, presented the sad spectacle of a loyal and generous people lavishly devoting their wealth and their blood for the benefit of kings who repaid these heroic sacrifices with the blackest ingratitude. The people patiently waited until their sufferings were overflowing. That moment having arrived, the people took their stand upon the ground of modern popular right. The circular treats upon the question of religious liberty, stating that the useless legal obstacles hitherto thrown in the way of other creeds would disappear, even as they had already disappeared from the habits of the people. In conclusion, the minister says that the Spanish revolution could cause no alarm to other countries, and, therefore, the Government was in hopes that foreign nations would not refuse to entertain friendly relations with revolutionary Spain.

The first country which recognized the Provisional Government of Spain was the United States. Mr. Hale, the ambassador of the United States, notified Marshal Serrano of the fact on the 9th of October. All the other Governments represented in Madrid soon followed.

While the leaders of the different parties which effected the revolution were agreed that the future form of government should be decided by the constituent Cortes, the Liberal Union and the Progressists were unanimous in declaring their preference for a monarchy. The Democrats split on the question, one section joining the Liberal Union and Progressists, and the others declaring in favor of a republic. Actually, there were henceforth, besides the Reactionists, two great parties, the Liberal Monarchists and the Republicans. The latter party soon developed a strength which astonished the Provisional Government. The leaders of the Republican party were José María de Orense, who for some years had lived a refugee in the south of France; Garrido, a distinguished writer on Spanish affairs; Castelar, the best orator of the party; and General Pierrad. Señor Orense, in the name of the Central Republican Committee, published the programme of the party, of which the following are the principal heads:

1. Form of government: democratic federal republic.
2. Legislative power: A single Chamber, elected annually by universal suffrage.
3. Executive power: A President, nominated by the Chambers without limitation of time, but removable at the pleasure of the Chamber.
4. Judicial power: Appointment of judges, to be wholly independent of the legislative and executive powers.
5. The central, or national, government to manage the army and navy; the code; external and diplomatic affairs; statistics; the customs-house, while it lasts; post-office and telegraphs; disputes between provinces; unity of money, weights, and measures; extinction of the public debt (the money to be provided from the sale of the royal patrimony, national property, and mines); railways on a large scale.
6. The security to every citizen of his individual and primordial rights, which are as follow: Per-

sonal liberty, property, freedom of worship, freedom of the press, right of meeting.

7. The penalty of death, slavery, imprisonment, monopolies of the sale of salt and tobacco, taxes on consumption, etc., are to be abolished.

8. Customs, prisons, and judicial processes to be immediately reformed.

9. Domicile and private correspondence to be inviolable.

10. Education, choice of professions and employments, banks and credit institutions to be free.

11. The provincial deputations, alcaldes, municipal councils and magistrates to be elected by universal suffrage, their meetings to be open, and a report of the proceedings to be published. These bodies to decide upon all questions which do not come under the control of the central government.

12. Revenue to be raised by one tax, direct and general.

13. The Spanish possessions abroad to enjoy the same rights as the mother country.

14. The post-office, telegraphic, and other services to be paid for out of the profits they produce, and taxation to be reduced in proportion as these profits increase.

15. The civil guard alone shall act as a police. The army to be for the national defence, and a volunteer force to be proposed for the preservation of internal order. Spain renounces wars of conquest, and will make war only when its independence is menaced.

On the 18th of December municipal elections took place throughout Spain, upon the basis of universal suffrage. The Republicans obtained a majority in most of the large cities, except Madrid. The participation of the people in these elections was, on the whole, but small. In Madrid the schedules or tickets to be issued to the electors to empower them to vote were 76,432. Of these only 53,612 were either distributed or applied for; 22,820 were left unclaimed at the mayor's office. The actual voters in the city were only 27,600, of whom 24,000 gave their suffrage for monarchic councillors, and 3,600 favored Republican candidates. In Barcelona the voters were 47,000, of whom only 17,000 pronounced in favor of monarchic candidates, and 30,000 voted for the Republicans. In Valencia the voters were less than 4,000: the Republican candidate at the head of the poll only obtained 2,524 votes; and the most successful of his monarchic opponents only 806.

As soon after the success of the revolution it was generally regarded as probable that Spain would remain a monarchy, the question who would be elected King by the Cortes greatly agitated the public mind. It became apparent that, among the many names proposed, those of the Duke de Montpensier, and of Dom Fernando of Portugal, father of the King of Portugal, had the greatest number of partisans. Dom Fernando was generally reported as decidedly opposed to an acceptance of the throne, in case it should be offered. The Duke de Montpensier, on the other hand, made great exertions to secure his election. In accordance with a wish, expressed by the Provisional Government, he did not return to Spain, except for a few days during December, after the outbreak of disturbances in Cadiz, when he asked for permission to aid in putting down

these disturbances, for which he claimed a reactionary origin; but, respecting the wish again expressed on this occasion by the Provisional Government, he immediately returned to Portugal. In the following letter, addressed to the *Política*, a Madrid newspaper, the Duke publicly explained his views:

ESTEEMED SIR: I had resolved to observe an absolute silence as long as the transitory situation of our country should last, till its definitive termination. The excitations of the press, sometimes hostile and sometimes favorable, the manifestations of which have assumed a personal character to which I cannot remain indifferent, have sufficed to induce me to change my intentions. I have thought that the Infanta and myself ought to make public, as our last word, the manifesto we addressed to the Provisional Government on October 30th, which ended by the declaration: "We are willing to respect all the resolutions arrived at by the national vote, the legitimate source of political rights in free countries." You will remark that there is not a single reserve in that frank and loyal manifestation. Spain, whatever may be her form of government, would reckon us among her citizens; we should serve her, if we could be useful to her, and forever and in all circumstances, our hearts will share her fortunes and her misfortunes. But if my resolution to remain silent has been unshaken till now, if I have been able to hear with patience the absurd fables invented against us, I am in duty bound not to consent that the feeling of patriotic abnegation that, in spite of our wishes, would have kept us at the mouth of the Tagus till the day when, thinking that the freedom of Spain was endangered in Andalusia, I came to offer my sword to the Provisional Government, should be construed as a want of sympathy for the complete regeneration of our country. That step of mine having met the approval of some and the censure of others, I find myself in the imperative necessity of explaining it. Absent from Spain, but without having been prohibited from reentering her territory, and belonging to the Spanish army, I felt it was both my duty and my right to offer my services, should the passing events require it. I learned what had occurred at Cadiz, and judging the seriousness of those events by the narrations and the telegrams published in the newspapers, I concluded, with the aid of the information I possessed, that perhaps those events were the result of a combination between the several elements opposed to the revolution, and I thought my duty was to proceed to the point of junction of the army forces to place myself at the disposal of the Government. In the conviction that it was more honorable in a soldier to wait for orders at the immediate centre of danger rather than at a long distance, I did not think necessary to officially announce my voyage before having arrived on the field of action. Another consideration confirmed me in my views that, if events had been decided and order restored before having reported myself to the governor-in-chief to offer to him my services and accept the post assigned to me, I should be able to return to Lisbon without having taken any official step which could be possibly taxed with vainglory and useless offer of service. My prevision was well founded, for on my arrival at Cordova I learned that the events of Cadiz were on the point of having a favorable issue. I learned also that there were no reactionary elements to fight against, and my duty being to abstain from any interference in the conflicts between the Liberal parties—conflicts which I deplore—I immediately returned to Lisbon. My last step being explained, I must tender my thanks to all the members of the press who have justified it according to their own inspiration. To those who have censured it I will only say that, when I crossed the frontier to offer my services as a citizen, I exercised

a right, and I fulfilled my duty as a soldier; and it is lamentable that, in a free country, there should be persons who reprobate the exercise of rights and the performance of duties. My task might terminate here; however, now that I have broken the silence I had imposed on myself, I believe it is better not to throw the pen aside without refuting certain unfounded accusations concerning events anterior to the revolution of September. Among other things is has been circulated that we had seen with indifference from our retreat at San Telmo the accomplishment of the events which had caused the deepest sensation in Spain. The allegation is completely false. If I did not take part in the war in Africa in 1859, most certainly it was not my fault. Official documents show that I did crave at that time the honor of pouring out my blood for my adopted country, as I had done in 1844 for the defence of the interests of France on the very same African soil, at the head of a company of brave Spaniards belonging to the Foreign Legion. One must remember, also, that in 1866, when many agitators of nowadays did not show any sign of life, the Infanta, at the peril of her life, on account of the state of her health, after having unsuccessfully demanded an amnesty, undertook to travel to Madrid, to give to the court liberal counsels; she was only requested not to utter any other word relating to politics. We have been also accused by some of being fanatic, by others of being atheists; therefore we must be very explicit upon that point. We, fervent Catholics, who have been able to publicly fulfil our religious duties in the Anglican town of London, in the Evangelical city of Edinburgh, in the Calvinistic city of Geneva—we do not understand that those, not belonging to the religion we deem the true one, possess, for that reason, in our beloved country, less liberty than we found in other nations. I conclude, because I intended to write a refutation and not a programme of political principles. It is enough for me to express, clearly and peremptorily, that I do share those which have been proclaimed by the revolution and welcomed by the nation. By authorizing you to publish my letter, in the exercise of a right now practised in our country, which, among other liberties, enjoys the freedom of the press, I have only to assure you that I have no ambition, and that I have only resolved, perfectly and entirely, to continue to belong to the new Spain—to the free Spain.

(Signed) ANTOINE D'ORLEANS.

LISBON, December 19, 1868.

The aspiration of the Duke de Montpensier found a very determined opponent in the Infante Don Henry de Bourbon (a brother of the King), who addressed to the Provisional Government the following curious letter:

GENTLEMEN: When I observe the feverish ambition which devours the Duke de Montpensier; when I witness the explosion of pretensions hatched for many a year to take possession of the monarchical power in Spain—in Spain, free and independent, to which he returned without honor as a fugitive, when his father, Louis Philippe, fell from the throne by that providential justice which marks chastisement on the brow of certain kings; when everybody knows that he has no title and no right to our country, so jealous of its dignity, more than the hospitality which all civilized people accord to those who take refuge in it when driven from their own; when I examine this stranger, a prince without energy or elevation of character, and so full of vanity and selfishness that he thinks every thing due to him, and that no one in the world should refuse him the distinguished honor of becoming his courtier; when his cupidity accepts with one hand the gifts and favors of Isabella II., and when, ungrateful and traitorous, he strives with the other to usurp the place of his benefactors who reposed full confidence in him; when I see him coldly speculating at

a distance on the blood-stained field of Alcolea, ready to rush, without, however, exposing himself to danger, on the spoils of Isabella, like the bird of prey on a dead body; when I find him at Lisbon watching for the favorable occasion of imposing himself on Spain, and impatiently counting the moments, and, after those moments calculated by him, settling with miserable niggardliness the accounts of his cook; when I see him, in so impertinent and comical a fashion, desiring to meddle in the recent struggle which has left the noble and liberal city of Cadiz in mourning; and when, to crown this Orleanist conspiracy, I hear Spaniards, unworthy to bear that honorable title, proclaim the ridiculous and anti-national name of this stranger forced upon us as if it were the name of a hero, and when they thus trample under foot the ashes of the martyrs of Carral—the ashes of the illustrious members of the Spanish army shot by the treachery of the Madrid Government, delivered over to Louis Philippe—when I behold all this, I cannot help asking what is the talisman and what are the privileges of this pretender?

I, who count more than twenty-two years of suffering and political persecution, of which Louis Philippe was the instigator—I, who, without being culpable, am banished from my country and from my home—feel indignant as a Spaniard, and as belonging to the Liberal party, at the unjust and unpatriotic privileges accorded to Montpensier.

In the name of justice, I, who have never desired the place coveted by the intriguer of whom I speak—I, who would consider myself debased if I bore the title of pretender, for my aspirations are those of the honest citizen who knows the high value of self-denial—I, who place the glory of Washington far higher than that of Cæsar—I address myself to the Provisional Government of the nation to be allowed to return to my country, and to humbly occupy, as I ever had the habit of doing, my rented apartment in Madrid which contains the little I possess.

The remains of my parents, those of one of my children, and of my wife, are in Spain; and those remains, so dear to me, call me near them. I do not, like Montpensier, seek a crown—Montpensier who, in the possession of his many millions, might live contented and silent. All I ask for is the sunlight of my beloved native land—that air of country, of home, which every citizen who is free from crime has a right to enjoy.

At the same time I demand from the equity of the Provisional Government another thing which is equally just—to be reinstated in the naval service to which I belong. The Duke de Montpensier being recognized as field-marshal of the Spanish army, the representatives of the party for which I have so much suffered cannot hesitate to restore my sword to me, of which I was deprived by the vengeance and the tyranny of the Narvaez ministry. For a demand so reasonable I appeal to the friendly relations subsisting between me and General Prim at the time when he, like me, was exiled.

Receive, gentlemen, the assurance of the esteem which is the result of every good action, and the testimony of my gratitude for the favorable opinion I have merited from you. HENRI DE BOURBON.

PARIS, December 21st.

The Provisional Government, during the last weeks of the year, was greatly perplexed by the activity and the progress of the Republican party, who were making demonstrations in the provincial towns in furtherance of their principles. The Provisional Government and its officers greatly exasperated the Republican party by using their whole influence in behalf of the monarchists. The Republicans complained that the Government, which had received no authority from the people, denied to them rights

which were granted to their opponents. On Saturday, December 5th, an armed demonstration was made by the Republicans at Cadiz, which the authorities considered it their duty to repress. Accordingly, the assemblage was called upon to lay down their arms. This demand they not only refused, but commenced to erect barricades. Sharp fighting took place at the commencement, but the insurrectionists, having obtained possession of the park of artillery, very soon held all the chief places in the city, and the foreign consuls were placed in the custom-house facing the sea, in case the fleet should attempt a bombardment. Immediately on the news reaching Madrid, large bodies of troops were dispatched to Cadiz, General Caballero de Roda having the chief command. This officer at once declared Cadiz blockaded, and, on arriving there, so disposed his troops as to surround the city closely. He then (December 12th) issued a proclamation to the inhabitants, in which he called upon them to lay down their arms, and guaranteed to them in the name of the Government that their lives would be saved. He granted a delay until next day, in order that old men, women, children, and peaceably-disposed citizens might leave the city.

The insurgents sent a delegate, accompanied by the consul of the United States, to General Caballero, offering to place their arms in buildings which he should designate. This the general did, but on the following morning the insurgents altered their tone, and offered to surrender their arms into the hands of the consul of the United States; but General Caballero de Roda refused to entertain such a proposal, and declared that hostilities would at once be commenced if the arms were not placed in the military buildings. The insurgents thereupon yielded to his orders, and the troops, under the command of General Caballero, at once entered and took possession of the city. This occurred on December 14th.

In the last days of December another fierce conflict occurred between the Republicans and the regular troops at Malaga. The Government called on the National Guard of that city to give up their arms, which demand was resisted. When the commander-in-chief at length moved down on the city (December 31st), and announced that a day's delay would be granted for submission, the insurgents were at first disposed to listen to him, but they were finally urged to continued resistance by the more determined spirits among their own number. General Caballero de Roda then prepared to capture the barricades by force. The insurgents were strongly intrenched in the Trinity quarter of the town, and this was not occupied till after a heavy bombardment (in which the ships joined), and the most desperate hand-to-hand fighting. The troops finally obtained secure possession of the whole place (January 1, 1869). They made an immense number of prisoners, of whom, the greater number were

released, though over two hundred were reserved for trial.

On the 10th of October, an insurrection broke out in the island of Cuba. The movement had been prepared, even before the beginning of the Spanish revolution; but the latter hastened and matured the plans of the leaders. A declaration of independence was issued, dated Manzanillo, October 10th, which thus stated the reasons for and the objects of the movement:

In arming ourselves against the tyrannical Government of Spain we must, according to precedent in all civilized countries, proclaim before the world the cause that impels us to take this step, which, though likely to entail considerable disturbances upon the present, will insure the happiness of the future.

It is well known that Spain governs the island of Cuba with an iron and blood-stained hand. The former holds the latter deprived of political, civil, and religious liberty. Hence the unfortunate Cubans being illegally prosecuted and thrown into exile or executed by military commissions in times of peace. Hence their being kept from public meetings, and forbidden to speak or write on affairs of state; hence their remonstrances against the evils that afflict them being looked upon as the proceedings of rebels, from the fact that they are bound to keep silence and obey. Hence the never-ending plague of hungry officials from Spain to devour the product of their industry and labor. Hence their exclusion from public stations and want of opportunity to skill themselves in the art of government. Hence the restrictions to which public instruction with them is subjected, in order to keep them so ignorant as not to be able to know and enforce their rights in any shape or form whatever. Hence the navy and standing army, which are kept upon their country at an enormous expenditure from their own wealth to make them bend their knees and submit their necks to the iron yoke that disgraces them. Hence the grinding taxation under which they labor, and which would make them all perish in misery but for the marvellous fertility of the soil. On the other hand, Cuba cannot prosper as she ought to, because white immigration that suits her best is artfully kept from her shores by the Spanish Government, and as Spain has many a time pronounced us Cubans to respect our rights without having hitherto fulfilled her promises; as she continues to tax us heavily and by so doing is likely to destroy our wealth; as we are in danger of losing our property, our lives, and our honor under further Spanish domination; as we have reached a depth of degradation utterly revolting to manhood; as great nations have sprung from revolt against a similar disgrace, after exhausted pleadings for relief; as we despair of justice from Spain through reasoning, and cannot longer live deprived of the rights which other people enjoy, we are constrained to appeal to arms to assert our rights in the battle-field, cherishing the hope that our grievances will be a sufficient excuse for this last resort to redress them and secure our future welfare.

To the God of our conscience and to all civilized nations we submit the sincerity of our purpose. Vengeance does not mislead us, nor is ambition our guide. We only want to be free and see all men with us equally free, as the Creator intended all mankind to be. Our earnest belief is that all men are brethren. Hence our love of toleration, order, and justice in every respect. We desire the gradual abolition of slavery, with indemnification; we admire universal suffrage, as it insures the sovereignty of the people; we demand a religious regard for the inalienable rights of man as the basis of freedom and national greatness.

The movement rapidly spread over the whole of the eastern and central departments. Ten days later, the general-in-chief of the Cu-

ban forces, Carlos Manuel Cespedes, and the members of the Provisional Government addressed a letter to the Government of the United States, in which they asked for recognition as belligerents, and gave the following account of their strength:

We now hold much more than fifty leagues of the interior of this island in the eastern department, among which are the people (or communities) of Jiguani, Tunas, Baire, Yara, Barrancas, Datil, Cauto, Embareadero, Guisa, and Horno, besides the cities of Bayamo and Holguin, in all numbering 107,853 inhabitants, who obey us, and have sworn to shed to the last drop of blood in our cause.

In the mentioned city of Bayamo we have established a provisional government and formed our general quarters, where we hold more than three hundred of the enemy prisoners, taken from the Spanish army, among whom are generals and governors of high rank. All this has been accomplished in ten days, without other resources than those offered by the country we have passed through, without other arms than those taken from the enemy, and without other losses than three or four killed and six or eight wounded.

Numerous engagements occurred between the Cubans and the Spanish forces, as at Tunas (October 26th), Villa del Cobre, at the foot of Mount Alta Garcia (between Puerto Principe and Nuevitas), and Moran. The Cubans, being badly armed, were unable to drive the Spaniards out of the towns; but they maintained a control over a very large portion of the central and the eastern departments. Well-informed correspondents of American newspapers in Havana estimated their strength at about 50,000. The Spanish Captain-General Lersundi found the forces at his command insufficient to subdue the revolt, and he urgently asked for and received numerous reinforcements. In the last days of December the Spanish General, Count Valmaseda, advanced with four thousand troops to attack Bayamo, the seat of the Provisional Government.

In the first manifesto which the Cubans issued, the abolition of slavery was mentioned among the reforms which the successful revolution would effect. The sentiments of the Cubans on this subject became gradually more outspoken, and on the 27th of December General Cespedes issued the following proclamation of emancipation:

The revolution of Cuba, while proclaiming the independence of the country, has proclaimed with it all the liberties, and could not well commit the great inconsistency to restrict them to only one part of the population of the country. Free Cuba is incompatible with a slave Cuba, and the abolition of the Spanish institutions must include, and by necessity and by reason of the greatest justice does include, the abolition of slavery as the most odious of all. Abolition of slavery has, therefore, been mentioned among the principles proclaimed in the first manifesto issued by the revolution, and in the opinion of all Cubans, truly liberal, its entire realization must be the first of the acts for which the country employs its conquered rights. But as a general measure it can only be fully effected when the country, in the full use of its conquered rights can, by means of universal suffrage, make the most suitable provision for carrying it through to real advantage, both for the old and the new citizens. The object of the present measure is

not, nor can it be, the abrogation of a right which those who are at present directing the operations of the revolution are far from believing themselves entitled to invade; thus precipitating the solution of so difficult a question. On the other hand, however, the Provisional Government could not in its turn oppose the use of a right which our slaveholders possess in virtue of our laws, and which many of them wish to exercise—namely, to emancipate their slaves at once. It also sees how desirable it is to employ at once in the service of the country the freedmen, and how necessary to make haste to prevent the evils which they and the country might receive from a failure to employ them immediately. The Government, therefore, urges the adoption of provisional dispositions, which are to serve as a rule for the military chiefs in the several districts of this department, in order to solve the questions presented to them. Therefore, availing myself of the faculties with which I am invested, I have now resolved that the following articles be observed:

1. Free are the slaves whom their masters at once present to the military chiefs for this purpose, the owners reserving, if they choose, a claim to the indemnification which the nation may decree.
2. The freedmen shall, for the present, be employed in the service of the country in such a manner as may be agreed upon.
3. To this end a committee shall be appointed to find for them employment, in accordance with regulations to be issued.
4. In other cases, the slaves of loyal Cubans and of neutral Spaniards and foreigners shall continue to work, in accordance with the principle of respect for property proclaimed by the revolution.
5. The slaves of those who have been convicted of being enemies of the country, and openly hostile to the revolution, shall be confiscated with their other property and declared free without a right to indemnity, utilizing them in the service of the country.
6. The owners who shall place their slaves in the service of the revolution, without freeing them for the present, shall preserve their right as long as the slavery question in general is not decided.
7. The slaves of the Palisades, who may present themselves to the Cuban authorities, shall at once be declared free, with a right either to live among us or to remain among the mountaineers.
8. The isolated refugees who may be captured, or who may, without the consent of their masters, present themselves to the authorities or military chiefs, shall not be received without consulting with their masters.

Of the leaders of the insurrection, the Havana correspondent of the *New York Tribune* gives the following account:

General Cespedes, the hero and chief of the revolt, was, I am well assured, a lawyer and property-owner, and at the opening of the war emancipated his slaves. He is a man of good appearance, fifty years of age, and has travelled in the United States. His second in command, Arango, the Marquis of Santa Lucia, is a native of Puerto-Principe, and at taking part in the insurrection also manumitted his slaves. General Aguilero was a man of great wealth, and had held once under the Government the office of mayor over the town of Bayamo, just burnt by the rebels. He, too, released his slaves. General Donato Marmol bears the repute of having genuine military talent, as he is said to have defeated his opponents in most of their encounters with him, and signally at Baire, in the Eastern District. He is admired for the ready invention of a new weapon of defence in war, which is called the horququilla, and is a kind of hook to resist bayonet charges. The hook, which can be made without much trouble, of wood, is held with the left hand to catch the bayonet, while with the right the rebel brings his rude machete, a kind of sword, down upon his Spanish foe. General Que-

sada, the one other mentionable Cuban leader, served with credit on the side of Juarez during the intervention in Mexico. The soldiers of the revolt are of the rawest kind. A good part of them have been recruited from the emancipated slaves of Cespedes, Arango, and Aguilero. Many of the weapons are of the poorest kind, but I have heard that a certain number of Enfields have been furnished them, and lately some hand-grenades. It is told me that no help, or exceedingly little, has reached them from the North. Among some other things of their own device, they have been employing wooden cannon, good for one shot and no more.

SPALDING, Very Rev. BENEDICT JOSEPH, D. D., administrator of the Roman Catholic Diocese of Louisville, Ky., a learned and able Catholic clergyman, born in Marion County, Ky., in 1810; died at Louisville, Ky., August 4, 1868, of injuries received by the accidental burning of the drapery of his bed. He was sent at an early age to St. Mary's College, in his native county, and, having passed through the course of study there, entered the Diocesan Seminary at Bardstown, where he continued his studies, with a view to the priesthood. In 1832 he went to Rome and entered the College of the Propaganda, where he graduated with high honors in 1837, and was shortly afterward elevated to the priesthood. Returning home in the latter part of the year named, he taught for several months the students in the theological seminary of St. Thomas, and was afterward assigned the position of agent and *econome* in St. Joseph's College. In this responsible position his services were of great value to the institution. In 1840 he engaged with the Rev. John Hutchins in establishing a first-class seminary for boys in Breckinridge County, which they jointly carried on for two years with great success, and with much benefit to both religious and secular education in that portion of the State. In 1842 Dr. Spalding was called to Bardstown, having been appointed vice-president of St. Joseph's College. He remained in this position till July, 1844, when he was named by his bishop pastor of the Church of St. Joseph's, at Bardstown. He continued in charge of the Bardstown congregation till 1849, when he received the appointment of pastor of the Cathedral church, Louisville, and vicar-general of the diocese. This position he retained till the day of his death, with but two short intervals, while the see was vacant, when he was invested by his superiors with the administratorship of the diocese. During the sixteen years of his vicar-generalship, though performing arduous duties in connection with the temporalities of his Church in Kentucky, as well as those which devolved upon him as pastor of the Cathedral church, he never received any salary beyond his food and raiment, but dispensed largely of his own private fortune to those who were in need. His property, which was considerable, was left for benevolent objects. He was greatly beloved by Protestants as well as Catholics, for his blameless life, his generous liberality, and his courteous and self-sacrificing disposition.

STEVENS, THADDEUS, an American statesman and reformer, born at Peacham, Caledonia County, Vt., April 4, 1793; died in Washington, D. C., at midnight of Tuesday, August 11, 1868. His parents were poor. He was a sickly child, and lame; but his strong intellect was early detected by his mother, who toiled with all her strength to secure for him the benefit of an education. The boy was ambitious, and turned his few opportunities for improvement to such good account that he speedily succeeded in qualifying himself to enter Dartmouth College, whence he graduated with honor in 1814. Immediately after leaving Dartmouth, he removed to York, Pa., where he taught a school for a livelihood and read law carefully and steadily through the intervals of the day and night. Admitted, after many discouragements, to the bar, he soon attained a good practice and rose to eminence in his profession, which for many years he followed without participating in politics. The election of John Quincy Adams to the presidency, and the bitter contests which followed the triumph of the Democrats in the election of General Jackson in 1828, and his decided action, aroused the political fervor of Mr. Stevens, and he threw himself into the contest with all the zeal and ardor of his nature. He took sides with the Adams party, and when that merged in the Whig party he became an active Whig. In 1833 he was elected to the Legislature by the Whigs of Adams County, and was returned by the same party during the years 1834-'35-'37-'41. In 1836 he was a member of the Pennsylvania State Constitutional Convention, and took an active part in all the important debates in the framing of that instrument; but, being then, as always since, hostile to slavery, he refused to sign the document because it restricted suffrage on account of color. After the adoption of the constitution, Mr. Stevens was again in the Legislature. This was a period of intense political excitement. For a time two Legislatures were in session, Mr. Stevens being the leading spirit in one, and an equally ardent Democrat in the other. They finally coalesced without violence, and united in the choice of a Speaker, and in other acts of legislation. In 1838 Mr. Stevens was appointed a Canal Commissioner, and managed, so far as he had the power, the system of internal improvements of Pennsylvania with skill and ability. In 1842 Mr. Stevens removed to Lancaster, which, subsequently was his home. He immediately took a front rank at the bar, and was engaged in many important cases. The interval from 1842 to 1848 was devoted to his profession, but, in the latter year, he was elected to the Thirty-second Congress from the Lancaster district, and ardently opposed the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the Fugitive Slave Law, and the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. In 1859 Mr. Stevens was again returned, and continued in Congress by successive reëlections, and at the time of

his death was serving his seventh term. In all these Congresses he was a recognized leader. During three sessions he was chairman of the important committee of Ways and Means, and held the position of chairman of the Committee on Reconstruction of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses. He also served on other committees, his last important position being chairman of the Board of Managers, on the part of the House, in the impeachment of President Johnson before the Senate. Mr. Stevens was also a member of the Baltimore Convention, in 1864, and voted with the Pennsylvania delegation for Mr. Johnson for Vice-President. Thoroughly radical in his views, hating slavery with all the intensity of his nature, believing it just, right, and expedient, not only to emancipate, but to arm the negro and make him a soldier, and, after the war, to make him a citizen and give him the ballot, he led off in all measures for effecting these ends. The Emancipation Proclamation was urged upon the President by him on all grounds of right, justice, and expediency; the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution was initiated and pressed by him. He advocated and carried, during the war, acts of confiscation, and proposed the most rigid and stern measures against the Southern people to the last day of his life.

STOCKTON, REV. THOMAS HEWINGS, D. D., a Methodist clergyman, author, and poet, born at Mount Holly, N. J., June 4, 1808; died in Philadelphia, October 9, 1868. At the age of eighteen, though in frail health, he essayed to become a printer, but, finding himself disqualified for this work, he studied medicine. But, having become the subject of a religious change, his attention was directed to the ministry, and, just before he was twenty-one years of age, he preached his first sermon. He took charge of a circuit the same year on the Eastern Shore of Maryland, and his eloquence, fervor, and remarkable command of language drew great congregations wherever he preached. In 1830 he was elected editor of the *Methodist Protestant*, but declined the appointment. In 1833 he was stationed at Georgetown, D. C., and in December of that year elected chaplain of Congress. In 1835 and 1837 he was again elected to the same position, and meantime published two small volumes of poems, and compiled a church hymn-book. In 1838 he removed to Philadelphia. From 1847 to 1850 he resided in Cincinnati, and while there was unanimously elected president of the Miami University, but declined the position. In 1850 he removed to Baltimore, where he remained six years, pastor for most of the time of two churches, one Methodist Protestant, the other Associate Reformed Presbyterian, and engaged also in literary labors. In 1856 he returned to Philadelphia, which was thenceforward his home, though he was in 1862 and 1863 again chaplain of Congress. He was for the twelve years 1856-1868 almost constantly pastor of the Church of the New Testament, and

performed also much literary labor. His principal published works were: "The Christian World," "The Book and Journal," and "The Bible Times" (periodicals devoted to the diffusion of primitive and scriptural Christianity); "The Pastor's Tribute" (poems), 1848; "Floating Flowers from a Hidden Book" (poems), 1844; "Something New" (poems), 1844; "The Bible Alliance," 1850; "Sermons for the People," 1854; "Stand up for Jesus," and "The Blessing," small illustrated volumes, 1858; "Poems with Autobiographic and other Notes," 1862; "The Peerless Magnificence of the Word of God," and a work on "The Mediation of Christ," published since his death.

SUEZ CANAL, THE. Among the many works of extraordinary magnitude, expense, and general usefulness, which have been recently executed in different countries, the nearly-completed excavation and opening of the Suez Canal, in Egypt, is the most important. It connects the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, placing the East and the West in easy communication with each other by the shortest route.

The low, swampy, and in some parts sandy, strip of land which now separates the two seas, makes one conjecture and almost believe that their waters once mingled over this depression, and the Nile flowed through them across into Lake Timsah. Hence, dividing its waters into two branches, the one flowed northward to the Mediterranean, the other southward through the Bitter Lakes to the Red Sea near Suez, from which the whole isthmus has derived its name.

The ancient Egyptians appreciated the importance of a water communication from sea to sea, and eventually opened it, though they confined their views to an intercourse with Arabia. But, enterprising though they were, and having inexhaustible means of manual labor at command, as their works attest, they shrank from the difficulty of cutting a canal across the isthmus in a direct line, on account of the various obstacles presented by the condition of the place, and sought to effect their passage in an easier manner by a roundabout way. They followed the course of the Nile, sailing on its waters so long as it was navigable, and from the point where it ceased to be so, they cut an artificial channel supplied with water from that river, and debouching into the Red Sea at a point near the present site of Suez. Their line was, as it were, divided into four sections, having an aggregate length of $92\frac{1}{2}$ miles: namely, $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Suez to the Bitter Lakes, 27 through these lakes, 40 from the Bitter Lakes to El Ouady (of Tomat), and 12 from El Ouady to Bubastis, then one of the principal branches of the Nile.

The origin of this canal of antiquity is assigned by some to Rameses II., or to Sesostris, about 1300 years before the Christian era, by others to Psammethichus's son Necho, who reigned six centuries later. Herodotus

ascribes it to this king, and adds the circumstance that, frightened by the response of an oracle foretelling the invasion of barbarians through the canal, if completed, he desisted from the enterprise, yet not till 120,000 Egyptians had perished in the work. It was finished and opened, however, in the succeeding reign. That historian, who lived in the fifth century B. C., bears witness to the existence of the canal of the Pharaohs at the time when he visited Egypt, relating that it was wide enough to admit of two triremes sailing abreast, that it was much frequented by trading-craft, and that the navigation on it from sea to sea lasted four days. The nations, under whose subjection Egypt successively passed afterward, did not fail to give their attention to this canal as a matter of great public importance. On the Arab invasion in the seventh century of our era, however, it was no longer existing, as appears from the fact that Omar's vicegerent in Egypt proposed to open a channel from Suez to the Gulf of Pelusium, and supply it with water by restoring the canal of the Pharaohs. Omar at first disapproved the project, lest its execution should be a means for Christian incursions, but finally consented to it, in order to furnish Arabia with provisions. The canal remained in a navigable condition from 649 to 767, when the Caliph El Mussour Abool Hadur filled it up, for the purpose of starving the people of Mecca and Medina.

The vestiges of the old canal are still discernible, showing its width to have been from 100 to 200 feet. Men of power in the world have subsequently directed their attention to its reopening, and even taken some preliminary measures toward its realization, regarding it as vastly important to the development of European commerce in the Eastern seas. Napoleon Bonaparte, when he went, or was sent, to Egypt in 1798, discovered the traces of the ancient canal near Suez, and, appreciating its use, appointed a commission, in which M. Le Pire was prominent, for the purpose of inquiring into the subject of excavating one across the isthmus, a body of engineers being employed to survey the line. Although the then disturbed state of the country rendered the work both difficult and slow, the engineers being unable to proceed without an escort, and obliged to return with the escort when this was called back for active military service, which frequently happened, yet the survey was finally got through. Before seeing the report presented by the commission, however, Napoleon had returned to France, and, his attention being engrossed by other matters, the project of the canal could hardly be advanced toward realization, though he never abandoned it.

M. Le Pire's report stated that the level of the Red Sea was 30 feet higher than that of the Mediterranean; but the eminent French engineer M. Bourdaloue, having in 1846 accurately surveyed the grounds from Suez to Tineh, and again from Tineh to Suez, ascer-

tained the difference of the levels to be quite insignificant, so that the current of the canal, when in actual operation, could present no serious obstacle to its navigation either way.

But, prior to this double survey of M. Bourdaloue, M. Ferdinand de Lesseps had recognized the excavation of a navigable canal between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea as practicable, and conceived the idea of actually executing it. Besides his own ability and energy of character, he was powerfully helped in this by the happy concurrence of extrinsic circumstances, chiefly the favor of the Egyptian Government. His father, being attached to the French consulate in Alexandria, had become personally acquainted and rather intimate with Mehemet Ali, then pacha, and M. Lesseps's influence was probably no mean cause of Ali's being recognized as Viceroy of Egypt by the Sultan, who is said to have consulted the former on the subject. This circumstance could not but strengthen the relations of intimacy between Mehemet Ali and M. Lesseps, whose son Ferdinand became the friend of Said, the son and heir-apparent to the viceroy. Having long and carefully studied his plan, taken soundings in both seas, tested the currents and levels, bored the ground at different points along the intended line, and thus thoroughly ascertained that no insurmountable obstacles were presented by Nature to the opening of a canal from sea to sea, he communicated his project to Said, who understood its feasibility, as well as its importance and beneficial results, and, professing himself a firm supporter of the enterprise, authorized M. Lesseps to organize his company. The latter travelled for that end to Europe, where his project found favor, and even in England several capitalists were ready to take a part in it. The English Government, however, on political and other grounds, not only discountenanced, but positively opposed the enterprise in all its stages, both in England and at Constantinople, through its ambassador, in order that the Sultan, in exercising his rights of sovereignty over Egypt, should refuse to sanction the acts of the viceroy in the matter. Its opposition, however, has proved unavailing so far as the ultimate result aimed at is concerned.

M. de Lesseps organized his company in 1854, and obtained his first concession (or, rather, a contract was entered into by the Egyptian Government on one side, and M. de Lesseps, for himself and his company, on the other), when two engineers of the viceroy commenced and in the autumn of 1855 completed a new survey, recognizing the practicability of the project. This new survey was submitted to an international commission which was nominated by the leading powers of Europe and met at Paris, deciding that five of its members should visit Egypt and examine all the parts of the project in detail. They went, and by the end of 1855 presented their report, confirming the feasibility of the enterprise. A

second concession was obtained this year by M. de Lesseps from the viceroy, though the Sultan had declined to sanction the first one previously submitted to him.

As the terms, on which the two parties stand at present toward each other in regard to their respective rights and duties concerning the Suez Canal, are about the same as were reciprocally stipulated in the first two concessions just referred to, we here subjoin their principal clauses, which are as follows:

1. M. F. de Lesseps to form a company called "La Compagnie Universelle du Canal de Suez," and of which he is to be appointed the director, for the purpose of making a canal across the Isthmus of Suez, and the formation of a port at each end of the said canal.

2. The managing director always to be appointed by the Egyptian Government, and chosen, if possible, from among the largest shareholders.

3. The concession to last ninety-nine years from the opening of the canal to navigation.

4. The works to be all at the company's expense, and to whom all requisite lands for construction and maintenance, not belonging to private individuals, shall be conceded. If the Egyptian Government deem it advisable to erect fortifications, the company shall not be liable for the expense of construction.

5. The government shall receive 15 per cent. annually of the earnings of the company, without reference to interest or dividend derived from any shares they may hold, or hereafter take, in the company. The remainder of the net profits to be thus divided—75 per cent. for the general shareholders, and 10 per cent. for the original founders of the company.

6. The tariff for ships passing through the canal (and agreed on mutually by the Egyptian Government and the company) to be always the same for ships of all nations.

7. Should the company deem it advisable to join the Nile and the Maritime Canal by a navigable channel, the land now uncultivated may be irrigated and cultivated at their expense and charge. The company to have these lands free of any charge for ten years, dating from the opening of the Maritime Canal. During the remaining eighty-nine years they will pay one-tenth of the usual land-tax; after which the whole usual tax on irrigated land in Egypt.

8. A plan to be made of all lands ceded to the company.

9. The company to be allowed to quarry stone on government lands free of charge. Also to be permitted to import any material, machinery, and supplies for the workmen, free of custom-duty.

10. At the expiration of the concession the Egyptian Government will be substituted in lieu of the company, and will enter into full possession of all the property and rights appertaining to the canal between the two seas. A due valuation to be made for material, etc., etc.

To these, which form the basis of all the arrangements subsequently agreed upon by the parties, a most important clause was added in a later concession, dated January, 1856, providing that, of the workmen employed on the canal, "in all cases, four-fifths at least should be Egyptians." This contingent of workmen to be employed by the company, and furnished of course by the Government, amounted to no less a number than 20,000 Egyptian fellahs (agricultural laborers), their wages being fixed at one-third of the European rates for similar work; which third, however, was again one-third more than what the fellahs were paid in their own country. They were also to be pro-

vided with habitations, food, and medical assistance, and while in hospital receive half their pay when at work. This clause, which, while it imposed an obligation, conferred also a benefit on the company for quick dispatch in the work, and even economy, was objected to by the Sultan, and in 1859 the fellahs were withdrawn. This involved the company in no small embarrassment, as well as loss of time and money for procuring an adequate number of workmen from other countries. The Sultan refused also to confirm the clause enabling the company to sell or let any portion of their property in Egypt.

The withdrawal of the fellah labor and other wrongs heaped on the company, who were at one time even ordered to leave the country, resulted in an almost total cessation of the works for two years. But they manfully stood their ground, and, after a hard struggle, finally conquered all opposition. They have even a sufficient number of native laborers, who flock to the company for work on their own motion, induced by good wages and punctual payment.

As to the losses suffered by the company on the two above-mentioned points, and others, their complaints had at last the effect that the viceroy remitted their settlement to the arbitration of the French Emperor, who in July, 1864, decided as follows: 1. That the concessions of November, 1854, and January, 1856, had the form of a contract, and were binding on both parties. 2. That, as, by the withdrawal of the *fellah* labor, the cost of the works would be increased, the viceroy should pay an indemnity of £1,200,000 sterling on that account. 3. That the company should cede to the viceroy all their fresh-water canals, reserving only the right of passage through them; that the viceroy should pay £400,000 representing the cost of the construction of the canals, and £240,000 as compensation for the tolls which the company thereby relinquished. 4. That the company should retain only such lands along the line of the Maritime Canal as might be necessary for the care and maintenance of the said canal. 5. That the company should cede to the viceroy their title to all lands capable of cultivation by means of irrigation from the fresh-water canals, and for which the viceroy should pay £1,200,000. The total sum awarded as indemnity to the company thus amounted to £3,360,000.

But, in the face of such obstacles and discouragements as would appear capable of stopping the course of any enterprise, M. de Lesseps and his engineers have persistently fought their way and progressed in the mighty work, and finally brought it, as it is at present, to the point of its completion.

To enter into details concerning the variety, magnitude, and difficulty of the works on and for the canal, and the several kinds and power of the machinery used, would occupy too much space. We lay before the reader the two cuts exhibiting the surface representation of the

canal, and its longitudinal section showing the progress of the work up to October 15, 1868, confining ourselves to the bare mention of some few of its principal features.

The whole course of the canal, from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, is one hundred miles, though the distance in a direct line would be about 70 miles. For more than 60 miles it runs through the intervening lakes Menzaleh, Ballah, Timsah, and the Bitter Lakes, embankments having been formed on each side of it during its course through the two first-named lakes. Its width has been fixed at 328 feet in those portions where the land-level is low. The width at the base is 246 feet, and the depth of water 26 feet. These dimensions, representing those of the canal itself, convey but little idea of the amount of excavation that had to be carried out in many places where it traverses elevated plateaus, which entailed cuttings of great depth, as the longitudinal section shows.

On the northern extremity of the canal, where it debouches on the Mediterranean, a port has been constructed, named Port Said, consisting of two breakwaters, or moles, 2,726 and 1,962 yards long respectively, embracing a triangular area of about 550 acres, a safe harbor and easy to make. They are 26 yards at the base, 6 yards at the summit, and 12 yards in height, and formed of huge blocks of concrete, measuring 12 cubic yards, and weighing 22 tons each, prepared and made on the spot, by machines, from the harbor-dredgings and one-third hydraulic lime. The moles are visible at about 12 miles' distance. A writer says: "When we observe the scale on which Port Said now exists, no other portion of the vast engineering works along the line of the canal appears more strongly to exemplify the talent and indomitable zeal that have succeeded in so effectual a manner in surmounting those natural obstacles which here presented themselves." Besides being a port, properly so called, Port Said is now also a town regularly laid out in squares and streets, containing already 10,000 inhabitants, churches, mosques, hospitals and all the adjuncts of a thriving seaport town, the Sisters of Charity being also there to minister peace to patients in the hospitals, and educate the children of this large French colony.

On the north of Lake Timsah, about the middle of the whole course of the canal, "stands Ismailia (named after Ismail Paeha), a flourishing French town, full of life and activity, a real oasis in the desert. It contains a population of five thousand inhabitants, and is divided into French, Greek, and Arab quarters." It is, as it were, the headquarters of the administration of the company.

At its southern extremity the canal runs into the Red Sea, where, after entering the sea, its embouchure gradually widens to about 300 yards, and the depth in this portion is to be 27 feet. Here stands Suez, which, to use the same writer's words, "no more than four or five

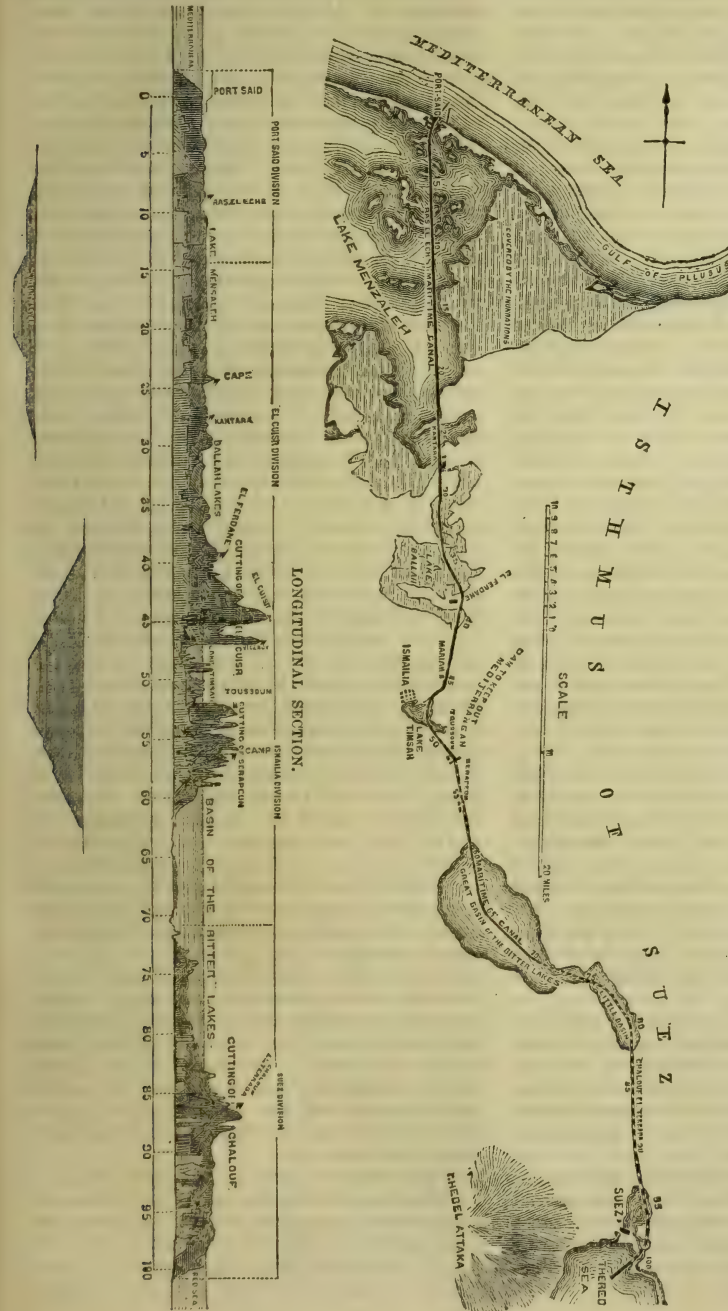
years ago, was an insignificant Egyptian village containing 4,000 inhabitants, but exhibiting no signs of life. The absence of water, and the dearth of provisions, both of which had to be brought from Cairo and the surrounding districts, rendered it as uninviting a spot as can well be imagined. The advent of the Fresh-water Canal (excavated by the Suez Canal Com-

pany) has brought about a marvellous change. The population has now increased to 25,000 and there is a degree of life and activity about the place clearly indicating the energy that is being displayed on all sides. The principal operations of the company consist: firstly, in constructing a mole 850 yards in length at the mouth of the canal, to serve as a protection

against southerly gales, and against the action of the tide at high water; secondly, in dredging to the requisite depth the channel leading from the canal to the road of Suez; and thirdly, the reclamation of land. The mole which projects from the Asiatic shore is nearly completed. It has been constructed with a kind of calcareous rock, quarried on the western shore of the bay."

Though not yet open to general and through navigation, the canal in its finished portion is, and has been for some time, already in operation, passengers and merchandise having been carried through it to a considerable and steadily increasing extent.

To give an idea on what a scale the company is formed, what sort of enterprise it has engaged in, and its means, we subjoin the final sums of its debit and credit accounts, taken from "an abstract of the general account laid before the shareholders April 30, 1868": Total expenditures to April 30, 1868, £11,532,171. Total receipts to April, 30, 1868, £13,853,866. The Viceroy of Egypt is personally interested in the undertaking to such an extent, that he holds 177,642 shares of the original capital, which represent a payment on his part of £3,552,840.



SUGAR INSECT, THE (*Acarus sacchari*). Professor Cameron, of Dublin, writes: "In my capacity of public analyst for the city of Dublin, I have had occasion to examine, more or less minutely, nearly 150 specimens of sugar, in quality varying from the purest white to the darkest brown. The greater number of these samples were perfectly genuine: some were of rather indifferent quality: and the rest—about 15—were so impure as to be quite unfit for use: they abounded in organic filth, and contained great numbers of disgusting insects. All the samples of very inferior sugar were of the kind known as raw; and in no instance did I detect in the refined article the slightest trace of any substance injurious to the health or repugnant to the feelings.

"The insects found in sugar are beetles and *Acari*, or mites. The beetles, which are more familiarly known to the sugar-dealers than to the general public, may frequently be seen running nimbly along the tables in the sugar warerooms. The *Acari* are minute insects, and do not attract attention. There are several kinds of *Acari*: the cheese-mite, the insect found in partially decomposed flour, and the minute parasite, which, by burrowing beneath the skin, produces the disease termed the itch—are all different varieties of *Acari*. The mite found in raw sugar, termed the *Acarus sacchari*, or sugar-insect, is a formidably-organized, exceedingly lively, and decidedly ugly, little animal. From its oval-shaped body stretches forth a proboscis terminating in a kind of scissors, with which it seizes upon its food. Its organs of locomotion consist of eight legs, each jointed and furnished at its extremity with a hook. In the sugar, its movements from one place to another are necessarily very slow, but, when placed on a perfectly clean and dry surface, it moves along with great rapidity.

"The itch is produced by an *Acarus* making burrows beneath the skin, and depositing therein its eggs; and hence the insect has been named the *Acarus scabiei*, or scab-mite. Mange in horses, cattle, and dogs, and scab in sheep, are essentially the same disease as itch in man. Now, it is a noteworthy fact that grocers' assistants and sugar warehouse-men are peculiarly liable to a kind of itch which affects their hands and wrists, but does not extend to any other part. These persons are usually of cleanly habits, and do not belong to the classes amongst whom the ordinary itch is so prevalent; there is, therefore, but one way of accounting for their tendency to contract that disease—namely, that the *Acarus sacchari*, having, like its congener, *Acarus scabiei*, burrowing propensities, bores into their skin, and breeds there. The two kinds of *Acari* resemble each other very closely, but the sugar insect appears to be the larger and more formidable. So common is this pustulous disease amongst persons engaged in the 'handling' (i. e. mixing) of sugar, that it has been termed the 'grocer's itch.'

"The number of *Acari* found in raw sugar is sometimes exceedingly great, and in no instance is the article quite free from either the insects or their eggs. Dr. Hassall (who was the first to notice their general occurrence in the raw sugar sold in London) found them in a living state in no fewer than 69 out of 72 samples. He did not detect them in a single specimen of refined sugar. The results of my examination of the sugar sold in Dublin coincided pretty closely with Dr. Hassall's experience. In the refined sorts, I found nothing but crystallizable and non-crystallizable sugar, and a little saline matter; in the raw kinds, organic and mineral filth—often in great abundance. In one of the samples examined, very inferior sugar, extremely damp, containing a very large proportion of treacle, and a considerable amount of such impurities as sporules of a fungus, particles of cane, albumen, and starch granules, it is no exaggeration to affirm that there could not be less than 100,000 of these insects in every pound of this sugar. Many persons believe that coarse brown sugar sweetens better, or, to use the common phrase, 'goes farther,' than white sugar; but that is a mistake. A teaspoonful of damp brown sugar will certainly sweeten a larger quantity of fluid than a spoonful of white sugar; but it does so because it is much heavier than the latter; but if equal weights be used it will be found that the white variety is by far the better sweetener. The kind of sugar which is both healthful and economical is the dry, large-grained, and light-colored variety.

"Two samples of the sugar were also examined, one by Dr. John Barker, curator of the Royal College of Surgeons, Ireland; the other by Dr. Hassall, of London, a very eminent authority upon the subject. In 15 grains' weight, Dr. Hassall found considerably over 100 living insects, or at the rate of 42,000 per pound; and Dr. Barker estimated no fewer than 1,400 in 45 grains' weight, or at the rate of 268,000 *Acari* in each pound weight of sugar.

"With the exception of the date-sugar made in the East,* every kind of raw sugar contains *Acari*. They are least numerous in the very damp, treacle kinds, because, as they are air-breathing animals, they cannot exist in treacle or water. If a spoonful of raw sugar be dissolved in a wineglassful of water, the animalcules will speedily come to the surface, from which they may be skimmed off and transferred to the object-glass of the microscope. On the surface of the water they appear as white specks, and, as they swim about vigorously, their movements are quite apparent to the naked eye.

"The *Acari sacchari* do not occur in refined sugar of any quality, for the following reasons: 1. Because they cannot pass through the char-

* The date-sugar, which is free from *Acari*, is practically a refined kind; its crystals having been repeatedly "clayed," or washed with water.

coal filters of the refinery; 2. Because refined sugar does not contain any nitrogenous substance (such as albumen), upon which they could feed, and even the most insignificant animals cannot subsist solely upon sugar, or upon any other kind of food destitute of nitrogen. The only impurity found, and that rarely, in refined sugar, is a trace of iron; its origin is easily explained: At the refinery, the sugar, after its solution in water has been effected, is sometimes put into iron cisterns, where it remains until filters are ready for its reception. If, through negligence, the solution is allowed to remain too long in contact with the iron, it is certain to dissolve a minute portion of the metal, from which its subsequent treatment fails to entirely separate it. When iron in solution is brought into contact with the body termed tannic acid, the two combine and form a black substance, which is the basis of most kinds of black ink. Tannic acid is a natural ingredient of tea; if, therefore, sugar containing iron be dissolved in an infusion of tea, the fluid will instantly acquire an inky hue. The presence of a small quantity of iron in sugar does not in the slightest degree injure its nutritive or healthful qualities; still, as tea resembling ink in appearance, however agreeable to the palate, would be displeasing to the eye, sugar which would thus affect its color is unfitted for domestic use."

SWAIN, DAVID LOWRY, LL. D., a statesman, jurist, and educator, of North Carolina, born near Asheville, Buncombe County, N. C., January 4, 1801; died of injuries received by being thrown from his carriage, at Chapel Hill, N. C., September 3, 1868. He was educated at the University of North Carolina, studied law, and was admitted to the bar of North Carolina in 1823. In 1824 he was elected to the House of Commons of the State Legislature from Buncombe County, and in 1831 was appointed one of the judges of the Supreme Court of that State. In 1832 he was chosen Governor of the State, being the youngest man who ever filled that office in North Carolina. On the expiration of his term of office in 1835 he was elected president of the University of North Carolina, as successor to Dr. Caldwell, and held that position till his death. In 1841 he received the honorary degree of LL. D. from the College of New Jersey, and in 1842 the same degree from Yale College.

SWEDEN and NORWAY, two kingdoms in Northern Europe, united under one king. Present King, Charles XV., born May 3, 1826; succeeded his father on July 8, 1829. Area of Sweden and Norway, 292,929 square miles. Population of Sweden, according to the census of 1866, 4,160,677; in 1867, 4,195,681. The capital, Stockholm, had, in 1866, 138,189 inhabitants; in 1867, 140,251. (According to former censuses, the population was, in 1748, 1,736,482; in 1810, 2,377,851; in 1855, 3,641,011; in 1860, 3,859,728.) The population of Norway was, according to the decennial census

of 1865, 1,701,478. The capital, Christiania, had 65,513 inhabitants. (According to former censuses the population was, in 1855, 1,490,047; in 1845, 1,328,471; in 1835, 1,194,827; in 1825, 1,051,318; in 1815, 885,467.) The Swedish island of St. Bartholomew, in the West Indies, had, in 1866, 2,898 inhabitants. In the Swedish budget for 1868, the revenue was 36,461,270 rix-dollars, the ordinary expenditures 34,054,500; and the extraordinary expenditures 7,438,621; deficit, 5,031,651. Public debt, in 1865, 74,068,000 rix-dollars. The Swedish army consisted, in 1866, of 124,807 men. The fleet, in August, 1868, consisted of 17 armed steamers, carrying 132 guns, and of 31 sailing-vessels. The imports, in 1865, were valued at 105,863,000, and the exports at 108,086,000 rix-dollars. Number of vessels entering the Swedish ports, in 1865, 4,946; together, of 164,637 lasts; number of clearances, 9,458, together, of 438,792 lasts. The merchant navy consisted, in 1863, of 3,236 vessels, together, of 86,404 lasts.—In the Norwegian budget, for the period from 1866 to 1869, the annual revenue and expenditures are each fixed at 5,023,000 specie dollars. The public debt, in 1865, amounted to 8,240,700 dollars. The army, on the peace footing, numbers 12,000, and on the war footing 18,000. The landwehr is to be exclusively used for the defence of the country. The imports, in 1866, were valued at 26,000,000, and the exports at 17,000,000 thalers. The number of vessels entering Norwegian ports, in 1866, was 12,215, together, of 693,626 lasts; the number of clearances, 12,223, together, of 698,736 lasts. The merchant navy, in 1866, numbered 5,750 vessels, together, of 400,000 lasts. Sweden, having enjoyed for more than a half century continuous peace, has made immense progress in developing her internal resources. The people, little numerous in comparison with the extent of the country, are augmenting rapidly. The population has nearly been doubled from 1815 to 1865, and, from the progression made during the last quinquennial periods, the prediction may safely be hazarded that it will again be doubled in fifty years. The construction of the first railway was commenced in 1854, and at the end of 1866 the state possessed a network of 134 Swedish miles, besides about 28 more belonging to private companies, making a total of 162 (1,732 kilometres), or nearly 1,100 English miles. These works have cost the state 102 millions of rix-dollars (146,880,000f.); however, the loans contracted only amount to 80 millions of rix-dollars. The last Diet had decided upon another of 6,000,000 (8,640,000f.) in the country itself. Notwithstanding the existing pressure, the operation was effected without the slightest difficulty. Both Chambers of the Swedish Parliament, in 1868, declared, by a large majority, against the abolition of capital punishment.

SWITZERLAND, a federal republic in Europe. Area, 15,722 square miles; population, in 1860, 2,510,494. President of the Federal

Council (the executive consisting of seven members), for the year 1868-'69, Dr. Jacob Dubs, of Zurich; Vice-President, Emil Welti, of Argovia. The Council of States consists of 44 members, two for each canton; President, in 1868, A. O. Aeppli, of St. Gall. The National Council consists of 128 members, elected for the term of three years; President elected July 6, 1867, for one year, Simon Kaiser, of Solothurn. The expenditures of the Confederation, in 1867, were 19,572,989 francs; the receipts, 19,781,961; surplus of receipts, 208,971. For the budget for 1867, the expenditures were estimated at 19,809,000 francs; the receipts at 20,173,000; surplus of receipts, 364,000. The regular army consists of 87,730 men; the reserves, of 49,765; the landwehr, of 65,359 men: total, 202,854.

The whole of the southeastern, or as it may be termed the Alpine half of Switzerland, suffered in 1868 from the most terrible floods which had taken place since 1834. If a line be drawn from the Lake of Constance, in the northeast, to the Col de Balme, in the southwest, it will divide Switzerland into two nearly equal portions, and scarcely a canton within the east of these divisions escaped without great damage. The cantons which suffered most terribly were those of Tessin, Grisons, and St. Gall. The St. Gothard Splügen and St. Bernhardin routes were rendered impassable. Twenty-seven lives were lost in the St. Gothard Pass, besides horses,

and wagons full of merchandise. It is stated that on the three routes upward of eighty persons perished. In the village of Loderio alone no less than fifty deaths occurred. The cantons of Uri and Valais likewise did not escape. From Unterwalden it was reported that heavy rains carried away several large bridges. In Tessin alone the damage was estimated at £40,000 sterling.

In January, 1868, a popular vote was taken in the canton of Zurich upon the question of the revision of the Constitution. The revision by the Constitutional Council was decided upon by 47,776 votes to 10,057. In April, the people of the canton of Thurgau also decided by a large majority in favor of a revision of the Constitution. The people of Neuchâtel, on the contrary, decided in March against a constitutional revision.

On the 22d of July a treaty of commerce between Switzerland and Italy was signed.

A considerable excitement existed in the Catholic districts of the canton of Berne, owing to the prohibition by the authorities of education being conducted by Catholic nuns. A part of the population threatened to secede from the canton of Berne and to annex themselves to France.

In August the Federal Council made an official declaration to the effect that Switzerland would reject any proposals, if made, for a military or commercial alliance with France.

T

TELEGRAPHS ON THE EUROPEAN CONTINENT. A number of highly-important treaties were concluded, in the course of the year 1868, between most of the governments of the states of Continental Europe, for the purpose of extending, cheapening, and popularizing telegraphic correspondence between their respective countries. The most important of these telegraph treaties were those concluded between Prussia and the rest of the states belonging to the North-German Confederation, on one hand, and Austria, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt, on the other, and by which the so-called German-Austrian Telegraph Union (*Deutsch-österreichischer Telegraphenverein*) was organized; and those concluded between this German-Austrian Telegraph Union and the Governments of France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, Russia, Sweden, and Norway, Denmark, Turkey, and Spain.

The following are the most important and interesting points agreed upon in these treaties, which have added largely to the business of the telegraph lines in and between all of the above-mentioned countries, removed many of the obstacles which had heretofore impeded the rapidity and regularity of telegraphic corre-

spondence on the European Continent, and proved highly beneficial to the interests of international commerce and industry. In the States belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, there have been established three so-called *zones*, in accordance with which the rates of the telegraphic dispatches are calculated. In the first zone, that is to say, in a circuit of ten geographical miles, telegrams containing from one to twenty words cost eight groschen; for every additional ten words, four groschen more are charged. In the second zone, that is to say in a circuit of forty-five geographical miles, dispatches containing from one to twenty words cost sixteen groschen, and eight groschen are charged for every ten additional words. In the third zone, dispatches sent to all points within the boundaries of the states belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, at a distance of upward of forty-five geographical miles, and containing from one to twenty words, cost twenty-four groschen, and twelve groschen are charged for every additional ten words.

Telegrams may be sent to all places to which the telegraph lines extend, either fully, or at least in part; in the latter case, the dispatches are forwarded from the last station to the

point for which they are destined either by mail or by express messengers. All telegraph agents and operators are authorized to receive dispatches marked "*Bureau restant*" or "*Poste restante*." In the former case, they are kept until called for at the office or station, to which they have been telegraphed; in the latter, the telegraph agent sends them in a sealed envelope to the post-office at the station. Cipher dispatches are at the present time admitted only in Holland. Most of the larger European states have hitherto refused to admit them, principally for political reasons. All dispatches may be registered. Persons who send registered telegrams receive from the station to which the dispatch is telegraphed a telegraphic copy of the telegram as received, with accurate information as to the time when it arrived at that point, and to the person or conveyance by which the dispatch was forwarded on, if addressed to a place to which the telegraph lines do not extend. All cipher dispatches must be registered. The rates charged for registering a telegram are equal to the cost of the original dispatch. If the return dispatch is to be forwarded to a place other than that from which the original dispatch was sent, the return dispatch is charged at the regular rates of the tariff prevailing between the two points. Persons sending telegrams may add to them the words, "To be forwarded," in which case the telegraph agent at the station to which the dispatch is telegraphed, after trying to have it delivered to the address contained in the dispatch, and being unable to find the person in question, at that place, will forward the dispatch to the place where there is reason to believe the person, to whom the dispatch is addressed, has gone, provided that that place is situated within the boundaries of the states belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, or in countries with which special telegraph treaties have been concluded by the German-Austrian Telegraph Union. The sender of a dispatch may prepay the answer which he demands from the person to whom the telegram is addressed, and have this answer sent to any point he may indicate. If an answer of twenty words or less is required, there must be added to the text of the dispatch the words, "Answer paid," and the sender has to pay for this answer the price of a simple dispatch; but, if the sender of a telegram requires an answer of more than twenty words, or of an unlimited number of words, there has to be added to the dispatch the following: "Answer . . . paid" (for instance, "answer 30 paid"), resp., "unlimited answer paid;" and a corresponding amount has to be paid or deposited, to be accounted for as soon as the answer is received. If the answer is not received within a week after the original dispatch has been telegraphed, the agent of the station, to which the latter was sent, informs the sender of it by a telegram which takes the place of the answer. If this

answer contains more words than have been paid for, the sender of the dispatch has to make good the difference.

All known telegraph charges have to be paid to the agent at the time the telegram is handed to him. The charges for forwarding registered dispatches to places to which the public telegraph lines do not extend, by mail, express messengers, or private railroad telegraphs, have likewise to be prepaid by the sender of the telegrams; but the charges for forwarding non-registered dispatches in the same manner, and for telegraphing dispatches from places where the persons to whom they are addressed cannot be found, to points to which they have removed, are collected on delivery.

The following rules prevail in regard to the calculation of the number of words contained in a dispatch: Every thing which the sender of the dispatch adds to the original text, for the purpose of securing the prompt delivery of the telegram, is counted; hence, the telegraph agent charges him for the address, the signature, the names which may be appended to it as attests, remarks concerning prepaid answers, registered dispatches or such as are to be forwarded on to other points from the station, to which they are originally sent. No word is allowed to have more than seven syllables. The additional syllable or syllables are counted as a separate word. If words are connected by a hyphen, or contracted by an apostrophe (for instance, *qu'il*), the separate words are counted. Numbers written in figures are counted as many words as they contain groups of five words; the additional figures are counted as a separate word. Separate characters, letters, and figures, are counted as words. The underlining of one or several words, provided the latter are not interrupted by non-underlined words, is also counted as a word. Marks of punctuation belonging to the text of the dispatch, such as apostrophes, hyphens, quotation-marks, parentheses, are not counted; but all marks which cannot be traced and represented by the telegraph are counted as words. Periods, commas, etc., used in forming numbers, are counted as one figure. In cipher dispatches, every five ciphers are counted as one word.

In some of the states belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, there exist the following special regulations concerning the use of the telegraph lines within the boundaries of those states.

1. In the grand-duchy of Baden, dispatches sent to any point of the state, and containing ten words or less, cost eighteen kreutzers; one kreutzer is charged for every additional word.

2. In the kingdom of Bavaria, dispatches sent to any point of the state, and containing twenty words or less, cost twenty-eight kreutzers; fourteen kreutzers are charged for every additional ten words, and, besides, two kreutzers for the blank. The same charges are made

for dispatches sent by railroad telegraphs from one railroad station to another.

3. In the duchy of Brunswick, all telegrams, of twenty words or less, cost eight groschen.

4. In Prussia and Saxony, dispatches of twenty words or less cost five silbergroschen, if addressed to points lying within eleven to eighteen geographical miles; ten silbergroschen, if addressed to points lying within 44½ to 55½ geographical miles; and fifteen silbergroschen, if addressed to points at a distance of upward of 55½ geographical miles. One-half these rates is charged in addition for every additional ten words.

5. In the kingdom of Wurtemberg, dispatches sent to any point of the state, and containing twenty words or less, cost twenty kreutzers; ten kreutzers are charged for every additional ten words.

The cost of dispatches sent from Germany and Austria to the other countries on the European Continent is as follows:

1. Dispatches sent to Belgium, if containing twenty words or less, cost on an average one franc, if the distance does not exceed fifty kilometres (6½ geographical miles). Dispatches of the same length between the other Prussian telegraph stations situated west of the Weser and Werra, on one hand, and all Belgian stations, on the other, cost two francs; and dispatches of the same length between the Prussian stations east of the Weser and Werra, on one hand, and the Belgian stations, on the other, cost three francs; one-half of these rates in addition for every additional ten words.

2. Dispatches sent from Prussia to Denmark, if the distance does not exceed ten geographical miles, cost one franc; dispatches between Denmark, on one hand, and Schleswig-Holstein, Lubeck, Hamburg, and all Prussian stations on the Baltic, on the other, cost two francs; dispatches between Denmark and the rest of the Prussian as well as Saxon stations cost three francs.

3. Dispatches sent from the states belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, with the exception of Wurtemberg and the Netherlands, to any point of France, cost three francs, provided the stations from which the dispatches are sent do not lie east of the Main-Neckar Railroad, and east of the Weser and Werra; in that case, dispatches to any point of France cost four francs. Dispatches from Wurtemberg and the Netherlands to France cost only two francs.

4. Dispatches from Germany to Greece, one franc.

5. To Italy, three francs.

6. To Norway, two francs.

7. To Portugal, one franc.

8. To (European) Russia, five francs.

9. To Sweden, three francs.

10. To Switzerland, one franc. Dispatches sent from any point in Switzerland to another in the same country cost one franc.

11. To Spain, all dispatches sent from states

belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, with the exception of Prussia, cost three francs; dispatches sent from Prussia to Spain cost two and a half francs.

12. To (European) Turkey, four francs.

The so-called transit telegraph rates have been fixed as follows:

1. Through Belgium, one franc; all dispatches sent from the Netherlands through Belgium and France to Italy and Switzerland cost only two and a half francs.

2. Through Denmark, one and a half francs.

3. Through France, three francs. All dispatches from the Netherlands through Belgium and France to all other states beyond the frontiers of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, only two francs.

4. Through Italy: all dispatches exchanged between the boundaries of Austria, France, and Switzerland, one franc; for dispatches exchanged between the same boundaries and Turkey, three francs.

5. Through Russia, five francs.

6. Through Sweden, three francs.

7. Through Switzerland, one franc.

8. Through Spain, for all dispatches from the states belonging to the German-Austrian Telegraph Union, with the exception of Prussia, three francs; for dispatches from Prussia, two and a half francs.

In *Switzerland* the reduction of the telegraph rates from one franc to fifty Rp., which took effect from the first of January, 1868, gave rise to the apprehension that, although this step forward would be greatly beneficial to the interests of the public, the telegraph administration would sustain heavy losses in consequence thereof, and that a considerable deficit would be inevitable. The Federal Council, upon fixing the budget for 1868, it is true, made no provision for this prospective deficit, but it assumed that the revenues and expenditures of the telegraph administration would balance each other. The economical results of the reduction of the telegraph rates in Switzerland during the year 1868, however, prove that the above-mentioned apprehensions were ill-grounded. Besides 44,805 so-called "service" dispatches, there were telegraphed in Switzerland in the year 1868:

DISPATCHES.	In the year 1868.	In the year 1867.	Increase in 1868.
Internal dispatches..	1,596,853	794,666	801,687
International " ..	282,627	245,154	37,473
Total.....	1,878,980	1,039,820	

The number of international dispatches, therefore, which were alone affected by the reduction of the telegraph rates was more than doubled in the course of a single year. But, to correctly appreciate the achievements of the Swiss telegraphs in the year 1868, we must add, furthermore, that, besides the aforesaid 44,805 "service" dispatches, they repeated

526,068 internal telegrams and 360,689 international dispatches.

As regards the receipts of the telegraph administration, they increased from 823,538 fr. 51 Rp., in 1867, to 921,182 fr. 45 Rp., in 1868, although the expenses increased also from 748,976 fr. 46 Rp., in 1867, to 846,900 fr. 60 Rp., in 1868, leaving in the latter year a surplus of 74,281 fr. 89 Rp.

TENNESSEE. This State continued throughout the year to be the most discordant one in the Union. The Legislature was unanimously Republican in both branches, and the Governor was one of the extreme representatives of the same party. The great source of irritation and of the consequent troubles and disorders has been the disfranchisement of a large majority of the white citizens for participation in the cause of the Southern Confederacy in the late civil war.

A Republican Convention was held in Nashville, on the 22d of January, to choose delegates to the National Convention of the party which was to meet at Chicago in May. One negro from each congressional district was added to the State Executive Committee, and resolutions were adopted expressing the high estimation in which the delegates held the "eminent services rendered to the cause of loyalty, liberty, and progress, by his Excellency W. G. Brownlow, Governor of the State," and hailing with "mingled feelings of pleasure and delight the reinstatement in office, as Secretary of War, of E. M. Stanton, by the Senate of the United States." A compliment was also paid to Joseph Holt for his "courage and fidelity to the Union."

The Conservatives held a convention in the same city on the 15th of February, to name delegates to the National Democratic Convention at New York. In the resolutions adopted on this occasion, they indorsed the administration of President Johnson, and declared him to be the choice of the Democratic and Conservative people of Tennessee, as a candidate for the next presidency. They resolved, however, to support any other good man, true to the Constitution, and to the rights and liberties of the people, who might be put in nomination by the National Convention. At a subsequent convention of the same party, on the 2d of June, a platform of considerable length was adopted, which declared in favor of paying the national debt in current paper of the nation, and of taxing the obligations of the Government. The following were also contained among the resolutions:

Resolved, That, as, in the course of events, the question whether a State of the American Union could, under the compact, secede, was submitted to a contest of arms, and decided in the negative; and as it is wise that theories in government should be abandoned when found impracticable, therefore, the American people, North and South, should accept such decision as final and conclusive; nevertheless, we assert and maintain that the Constitution created the Federal Government supreme under well-defined

limitations and restrictions, leaving the States a large mass of residuary rights and powers over their domestic concerns, and making the States coequal in respect of such rights; and that the result of the war has not, and should not, in any manner be construed to impair these rights, or aggrandize the power of the General Government to the endangerment of public liberty.

Resolved, That we recognize the system of African slavery formerly existing in a portion of this country as extinguished by the result of the war, and that fact is ratified by a binding constitutional amendment, but that we regard the measures of the Federal Congress, bestowing the elective franchise on the black race in ten States, and withholding it from large numbers of the white race—the owners of the soil, and payers of the Government taxes—as a gross usurpation of power, and that such subjection of these States to the political and social control of negroes is a policy unjust, unwise, and oppressive, and tending to excite a war of races; and that any measure which seeks to deprive the white men of America of their rightful position of superiority and supremacy in the administration of the Governments, both Federal and State, or to divide or impair it, is fraught with greater danger to the perpetuity of free republican institutions.

An address to the National Democratic Convention was afterward prepared by a committee appointed for the purpose, in which the conduct of the party in power in Tennessee was vehemently attacked as having deprived the State of "republican government as understood by Americans." The restrictions upon suffrage, the arbitrary power exercised by the Governor, and alleged attempts to bring about the supremacy of the African race, were all bitterly denounced as among the "oppressions, usurpations, and miseries to which this State has been subjected by the minions and agents of the party now in possession of the Government of the United States."

A good deal of trepidation appears to have been caused from time to time in different parts of the State by the exploits of a secret organization, known as the "Ku-klux Klan." According to the statement of Governor Brownlow, this was a military organization, "composed of ex-rebel soldiers, and those in sympathy with them," who aimed at the overthrow of the State government. Many vague stories were told of threats and violence, of assassinations and outrages committed by this organization from political motives, but no well-authenticated instances are given which can form the basis of any reliable account.

In June, the following correspondence passed between Governor Brownlow and the commander of the Department of the Cumberland:

EXECUTIVE OFFICE, }
KNOXVILLE, TENN., June 15, 1868. }

Major-General George H. Thomas, commanding, etc.:

The following is a copy of a dispatch from the Hon. Mr. Arnell:

COLUMBIA, TENN., June 14, 1868.

To W. G. Brownlow:

The Ku-klux searched the train for me last night, pistols and rope in hand. Empower me to call upon the military here if necessary, in your name, to suppress all armed and masked parties in this vicinity.

I propose to fight it out.

S. M. ARNELL.

This is but in keeping with what is going on in

other counties of Middle and West Tennessee, as I am advised by reliable men.

I therefore call upon you to furnish a company of troops for the counties of Lincoln and Marshall jointly; one for the county of Obion, one for the county of Dyer, and one for the county of Gibson. Without troops in these counties, the civil laws cannot be enforced, nor loyal men allowed to exercise their rights and liberties. If you have the troops, I also desire that a company be sent to Fayette County.

I have the honor to be, etc.,

W. G. BROWNLOW, Governor of Tennessee.

HEADQ'RS DEP'T OF THE CUMBERLAND, }

LOUISVILLE, KY., June 18, 1868. }

To his Excellency W. G. Brownlow, Governor of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn. :

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 15th inst., containing a copy of a dispatch from the Hon. S. M. Arnell to you, and your request for troops to be sent to certain counties in Tennessee. You say that, without troops in these counties, the civil law cannot be enforced, nor loyal men allowed to exercise their rights and liberties. I have the honor to say in reply that the military can only be used to aid and sustain the civil authorities in the discharge of their duties.

The State of Tennessee being in the full exercise of all the civil functions of a State, the military authority of the United States cannot legally interfere, except in aid and support of the civil authority. For these purposes, troops have been sent to various localities at your request. These details, together with the present demand for troops to assist the United States officers in collecting the revenue, have so exhausted the force at my command as to prevent the complying with your request to send companies to the counties named. Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

GEORGE H. THOMAS,

Major-General U. S. A., commanding.

General Thomas afterward gave it as his opinion that certain laws passed by the last Legislature gave the sheriffs of counties, and the Governor of the State, ample powers to cope with these disorders. The Governor, however, was of a different opinion, and intimated an intention to call an extra session of the Legislature to provide for the emergency. This he soon after did by proclamation, directing the members to meet at the capitol, on the 27th of July, at which time he would explain fully the objects which he had in view in calling them together.

The Legislature assembled accordingly in extraordinary session on the appointed day, and the Governor submitted a message in which he recounted in general terms the depredations of the Ku-klux Klan, and called on the members to speak and vote in the halls of legislation as they themselves and their constituents had spoken in private letters and petitions calling for the militia to protect them in their persons and property. Two other objects which he recommended to the attention of the two Houses were, the finances of the State and the condition of the Penitentiary. With regard to the removal of political disabilities, he used the following language: "I have been appealed to by prominent men of both political parties, to urge upon you the propriety of removing political disabilities formerly imposed upon a large class of rebels. The conduct of that class of people has been, and it still is,

such that I do not feel justified in making this recommendation. They have a military organization in this State, whose avowed object is to trample the laws under foot and force the party in power to enfranchise themselves and their sympathizers. I cannot stultify myself by yielding to this request, accompanied with threats of violence. If members of the General Assembly are alarmed for their personal safety, and feel disposed to sue for peace upon the terms proposed by an armed mob, they will, of course, take a different view of the subject. Any recommendation of this kind, if made at all, should be at a regular and not at a called session of your body. And whether such recommendation and corresponding action thereupon shall be deemed wise at your adjourned meeting in November next, can be then more safely determined, by strictly observing the conduct of these unreconstructed Ku-klux rebels and their sympathizing supporters, between this time and that."

While the Legislature was in session, and before it had taken final action on any of the subjects under its consideration, a Republican Convention was held, at which the sentiments of the party on these topics were expressed in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we thoroughly sustain and honor the administration of the Governor of Tennessee, the gallant, fearless, and incorruptible hero, Hon. William G. Brownlow; and we especially approve his calling the present extra session of the General Assembly for the twofold purpose of maintaining inviolate the credit of the State, and protecting defenceless loyal men from the wanton violence of Ku-klux banditti and others, aided and encouraged by wealthy and influential rebels.

Resolved, That so long as loyalty is a virtue, and treason a crime, unrepentant rebels should occupy back seats; and, therefore, we are opposed to enfranchising those of Tennessee until their own conduct shall give ample guarantee that it can safely be done.

Resolved, That the sectional proscription which would seek to abridge the rights of the citizen of one State because he was born in another is contrary to the genius of our institutions, and also to the Constitution of the United States.

Resolved, That the Republican Union party of Tennessee are desirous to administer the State government as economically, and with as light taxation, as can possibly be done; nevertheless, we are determined to protect our citizens in all their rights, and see that the laws are faithfully executed, cost what it may; and we respectfully ask the Legislature now in session to pass an efficient military bill that will enable the Governor to meet any emergency, trusting, however, that no emergency will arise to call into the field a single company.

Resolved, That, while the enemies of the State Government are making every effort to destroy the credit of our State, we are determined to sustain the same, believing that the loyal citizens never will permit the proud State of Tennessee to be disgraced and dishonored by repudiation, but will provide ample means to meet promptly all the indebtedness of the State. And we call upon the Legislature now in session to pass all needful laws to insure the prompt liquidation of the indebtedness of the State that is now or may hereafter become due.

Resolved, That, when necessity may require the presence of the State militia within any given county, it is the judgment of this convention that, if found

practicable, the cost of such military should be borne by the tax-payers of said county.

No sooner was the Legislature prepared for action, than petitions for the removal of political disabilities were presented in large numbers. One reason for making this request was "the better to insure peace, harmony, and an equal participation by all in the future prosperity and onward march of our noble State." The general disfranchisement, it was said, "alienates too many of our citizens from a proper interest in the execution of the laws, and thereby renders certain laws in many localities a mere nullity." On the 1st of August a conference took place between several prominent officers of the late Confederacy, for the purpose of disclaiming any encouragement or approval on their part of the lawless movements existing in any part of the State, and of petitioning the General Assembly for a removal of political disabilities. The following is their memorial:

NASHVILLE, August 1, 1868.

To the Honorable Legislature of Tennessee, now in extraordinary session:

The right of petition and remonstrance being conceded by all classes in this country, and feeling, as we do, a deep solicitude for the peace and quiet of our great and glorious State, and belonging to that class in Tennessee who are regarded by some of its authorities as hostile to its present organization, we yield to a sense of duty, and respectfully invite your honorable body to a consideration of our view of the means that may avert the precipitation of the crisis which is acknowledged to be imminent. Being regarded as identified with that large class supposed to be hostile to the State government, we beg respectfully to say, that his Excellency the Governor wholly misapprehends our feelings and intentions in declaring in his late message that we seek the overthrow of the State government, or to do any other act by revolutionary or lawless means. Neither we nor those with whom in our past days we have been associated contemplate any such rashness and folly; nor do we believe there is in Tennessee any organization, either public or secret, which has such a purpose. And if there be, we have neither sympathy nor affiliation therewith. We believe the peace of the State does not require the organization of a military force by your honorable body, and respectfully submit that such a measure might more strongly tend to bring about and promote collisions than to conserve the harmony and good order of the country. And, inasmuch as the supposed danger to the peace of the State is apprehended from that class of the community with which we are considered identified, as inducement and reason to your honorable body not to organize such military force, we pledge ourselves to maintain the order and peace of the State with whatever of influence we possess; to uphold and support the laws, and aid the constituted authorities in their execution, trusting that a reciprocation of these sentiments from your honorable body will produce the enactment of such laws as will remove all irritating causes now disturbing society. For when it is remembered that the large mass of white men in Tennessee are denied the right to vote or hold office, it is not wonderful or unnatural there should exist more or less dissatisfaction among them. And we beg leave respectfully to submit for your consideration that prompt and efficient action on the part of the proper authorities, for a removal of the political disabilities resting upon so many of our people, would heal all the wounds of our State, and

make us once more a prosperous, contented, and united people.

Respectfully, your obedient servants,

N. B. FORREST,	B. F. CHEATHAM,
WM. B. BATE,	GID. J. PILLOW,
JOHN C. BROWN,	S. R. ANDERSON,
THOMAS B. SMITH,	WM. A. QUARLES,
JOSEPH B. PALMER,	G. G. DIBRELL,
BUSHROD R. JOHNSON,	GEORGE MANEY,
G. W. GORDON.	

A petition for the removal of disabilities, signed by nearly four thousand citizens, including some of the leading men of the State, was presented to the Legislature by Judge Shackelford, who made an earnest and eloquent appeal for the enfranchisement of the large body of the people whose political rights had been curtailed for the past three years. Ex-Governor Foote, of Mississippi, at the same time added his voice to the general prayer for liberal action on the part of the Legislature, and called on the law-makers of Tennessee to seize this opportunity to distinguish themselves by their generosity to their own citizens. While these petitions were still occupying the attention of the Assembly, a supplemental message was received from the Governor, in which he said that he was induced by his "high regard for the author of the enclosed letter and ordinance, Hon. John M. Lea," and by confidence in his patriotism and integrity, "to submit those documents to the deliberate consideration" of the members. The letter alluded to was addressed to the Governor, and called upon him and the Legislature to complete the work of reconstruction in Tennessee on the plan set forth in the accompanying ordinance. This ordinance recited the general disfranchisement of citizens, and the disposition of the people to "acquiesce in the results which have been brought about by the late civil war," and recommended to the people, in the name of the General Assembly, an amendment to the constitution of the State, bestowing the right of suffrage on "every free man, white or colored, of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States, and a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of the election." This amendment was to be submitted to a vote of the people, in accordance with a provision in the ordinance that every voter in favor of its adoption should, at the next State election, write or print on his ticket the word "convention," and that he "elects and appoints as delegates to the said convention the members of the present General Assembly." If a majority of the people cast votes of this kind, it was to imply that they favored this amendment, and the General Assembly, thus constituting a constitutional convention for the purpose, was to incorporate it into the organic law of the State without further action on the part of the people. After some debate, in which the prevailing sentiment appeared to be that it was not expedient to entertain this question at the present ex-

traordinary session, the whole subject was laid on the table, and the members proceeded to the work for which they had been called together.

The question of organizing a militia to be at the command of the Governor "to suppress insurrection, and enforce the laws of the State," came up most prominently, and in the House was referred to a military committee, who reported a bill, giving the Governor authority to arm and equip as many regiments as he saw fit. Petitions against the passage of this bill poured in from all quarters, and several members entered a protest against it, but it passed the House without modification, and went to the Senate, where it met with more determined opposition. After much discussion, the Senate reenacted the law of 1867, establishing a "State guard," as a substitute for the House bill. This the lower House would not concur in, and the original bill was finally agreed upon, with some changes. The law authorizes the Governor to organize, equip, and call into active service a volunteer force, to be known as the "Tennessee State Guards," to be composed of "loyal men, who shall take and subscribe an oath to support the Constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State of Tennessee." The following are the most important sections of the act:

SECTION 4. *Be it further enacted*, That whenever a full representation is made to the Governor from any county or counties by the judge and the attorney-general of the circuit in which said county is situated, and the Senator and Representatives and ten Union men of good moral character, of said county or counties, that the laws cannot be enforced, and the good citizens of that county or counties cannot be protected in their just rights, on account of rebellion or insurrection, or the opposition of the people to the enforcement of law and order, the Governor be, and he is hereby, empowered to declare martial law in any county or counties of the State for the protection and safety of the citizens thereof, and to quarter said troops within any county or counties so declared under martial law, in such number as may be necessary for the preservation of peace and the protection of the lives of the citizens thereof; and, furthermore, as it is right and proper that the peaceable and law-abiding citizens of the State should not be held responsible or suffer loss for the violent acts of such turbulent communities, it shall be the duty of the Governor to assess and collect a sufficient amount for the full payment of said State guards so employed, out of said county or counties declared under martial law, as provided for in sections 3 and 4 of an act passed February 1, 1868, chapter xxxiii., entitled "An act to amend an act for the protection of sheriffs," etc.

Sec. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That upon the application of the sworn statement of ten or more known unconditional Union men of good moral character, or three justices of the peace of any county in this State, setting forth that the civil laws cannot be enforced, and that the law-abiding citizens cannot be protected in their rights and liberty without the aid of the military authorities, it shall be the duty of the Governor to furnish such number of troops as may be necessary to enforce the laws, and protect the citizens from violence.

An act was also passed, having for its object the suppression of the Ku-klux Klan, entitled "An act to preserve the public peace," which

provides that any person who shall "unite with, associate with, promote, or encourage any secret organization of persons that shall prowl through the country or towns of this State, by day or by night, disguised or otherwise, for the purpose of disturbing the peace or alarming the peaceable citizens of any portion of this State, on conviction of any tribunal of the State, shall be fined not less than five hundred dollars, imprisoned in the penitentiary not less than five years, and shall be rendered infamous." Full directions are given for the apprehension, trial, and punishment of all such persons. It is also made a criminal offence, entailing the same punishment, for any one voluntarily to feed, lodge, entertain, or conceal any person charged with crime under this act. Several acts of encouragement and aid to such organizations are specified and prohibited under heavy penalties. It is further provided that all public officers shall swear that they never belonged to the Ku-klux Klan, or other disguised body of men, and never aided, encouraged, or countenanced any such organization.

As a further measure of security, a committee of three was appointed in accordance with a joint resolution of the two Houses, to proceed to Washington, and lay before the President the condition of affairs in Tennessee, and urge him "to take steps to give protection to the law-abiding citizens of the State." This committee set out at once for the national capital, and presented an address to President Johnson, giving account of the operations of the Ku-klux Klan, which it declared, on the alleged authority of General Forrest, numbered 40,000 members in Tennessee alone. The President was, therefore, urged to send a "sufficient Federal force to that State to aid the civil authorities, to act with them in suppressing these wrongs, and bringing to trial the guilty parties, giving assurance that all the laws will be enforced, crime punished, and protection extended to such officers and citizens as may attempt to execute laws or prosecute further violation." In reply to this address, General Schofield, the Secretary of War, informed the committee that their communications had been referred to General Thomas, and that officer had been directed to report, without delay, "what military force, in addition to that now under his command, will be requisite to enable him to give all needed aid to the civil authorities of Tennessee." Assurance was, moreover, given that the power of the United States would be employed "wherever, and so far as it may be necessary, to protect the civil government of Tennessee against lawless violence, and enable the government to execute the laws of that State and protect its law-abiding citizens." The committee made their report on the 16th of September. On the same day Governor Brownlow issued a proclamation against the Ku-klux Klan, recounting the action which had been taken

by the Legislature, and calling upon the "good, loyal, and patriotic people, white and colored, of every county in the State, to proceed without delay and raise companies of loyal and able-bodied men, and report the same to me at Nashville." He also emphatically declared his purpose of using the force so collected if "compelled to put down armed marauders," with "such numbers and in such manner as the exigency shall demand, whatever may be the consequences."

It was alleged by many of the opponents of Governor Brownlow's administration that it was designed to use this military force to control the result of the fall election, and some Conservatives even advocated a complete withdrawal of the party from the political campaign. An address of the Executive Committee, however, announced, toward the end of September, that, "after anxious deliberation and consultation with many able and discreet persons," they had "resolved upon a vigorous prosecution of the canvass in the pending contest for the presidency, in behalf of Seymour and Blair, the nominees of the Democracy of the Union." No State election occurred this year, and the whole vote cast at the presidential election in November numbered 83,068. Of this vote, 56,757 were in favor of the election of Grant, and 26,311 for Seymour, giving the former a majority of 30,446.

The financial affairs of the State have been a good deal embarrassed, and it was partly for the consideration of these that the extra session of the Legislature was called. At the last regular session these affairs were intrusted to a Financial Board, consisting of the Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller, Treasurer, and the president of the Bank of Tennessee. The members of this Board did not work harmoniously, and two of the number soon resigned, and afterward continued to attack the action adopted by the others. The consequence was, an injury to the State credit, and a failure to raise funds for the interest on the public debt, which became due in July. Hence arose the necessity for legislative action. An act was passed providing for a new Board of Finance, to consist of three members appointed by the Governor, and authorizing a loan, secured by the bonds of the State, to raise funds to meet the pressing claims upon the Treasury. The aggregate debt of the State amounts to \$34,271,762.76.

The following proclamation may perhaps be regarded as indicating the state of things in Tennessee at the opening of the year 1869:

Whereas, there exist in Middle and West Tennessee lawless bands who set at defiance civil law, and in certain localities render it impossible for civil officers to enforce the laws of the State; and whereas, those masked villains, called Ku-klux, are taking prisoners from jails and hanging them without trial, and are abducting passengers from railroad trains, and notifying conductors of Northern birth to leave the State, thus having driven four conductors from one road, the Decatur and Alabama road; and whereas, certain ambitious men have made incendiary speeches, ad-

vising the overthrow of the State government, thereby encouraging these bands; and whereas, certain rebel newspapers have encouraged these men by denying the existence of the Ku-klux by ridiculing their acts, and failing to condemn them; and whereas, the Legislature has amended the militia law and given me authority to meet such outrages: now, therefore, I, William G. Brownlow, Governor of Tennessee, do call upon all good and loyal citizens to enter the ranks of the State Guards, be mustered into service, and aid in suppressing lawlessness. Those enrolling in East Tennessee will be transported to Nashville and armed and placed under the command of General James A. Cooper.

Another proclamation will be duly issued designating the counties in which I shall declare martial law, the effect of which will be to set aside civil law and turn over offenders to the military to be tried and punished summarily. These outrages have been long borne, but the Executive is not to be cajoled or trifled with. The citizens are warned against harboring any Ku-klux. The Governor will make the guards numerous and effective enough to make Middle and West Tennessee as orderly and quiet as East Tennessee is to-day.

In testimony whereof I have signed the foregoing and affix the great seal, this, the 20th day of January, 1869.

(Signed)

WILLIAM G. BROWNLOW.

The State Penitentiary is represented to be overcrowded, and larger provisions are required for its proper management. No effective action was taken in the matter at the extra session of the Legislature. The number of prisoners on the 1st of November was 394, which showed an increase of 61 in three months. The regular session of the Legislature met on 9th of November.

TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The number of Territories has been increased by one (Wyoming), and now amounts to ten, if we include the unorganized Indian Territory. Further explorations in the unsettled region serve only to reveal natural resources of the greatest variety and richness. Along the line of the Pacific Railroad, deposits of coal, iron, and other minerals, have been found, and cities and towns are springing up with marvellous rapidity. A railroad across the Northern Territories, Dakota, Montana, and Idaho, to Seattle in Washington, is in contemplation, and numerous branch roads are projected which will do much toward developing all this vast region of Territories. The people on the frontiers have continued to be troubled by the Indians, but the vigorous policy of General Sherman and General Sheridan seems to have had a salutary effect, and has apparently put an end to open hostilities for the present (*see* INDIAN WAR).

Arizona.—This Territory is divided into the counties of Pima, Yavapai, Yuma, Mohave, and Pahute, all of which are large and sparsely settled. The whole extent is broken up by gigantic mountain ranges, through which flow some fine rivers. The country is very rocky, and well adapted for cultivation only along the streams, though there is much excellent grazing-land. There are large deposits of rich silver ores, but mostly of a kind very difficult to work, and mining operations therefore have not

proved very profitable. New mines have been discovered between Wickenburg and Prescott, which are said to be very rich. A large portion of the inhabitants of this Territory are Indians and Mexicans. Tucson, the capital, is an old Mexican town settled about a hundred years ago, and contains a population of three or four thousand souls. The regular election for a delegate to Congress, and for members to the Legislature, was held on the 3d of June. No nominating conventions assembled, but the Democrats of Yavapai County met at Wickenburg, and put up the name of John A. Rush as a candidate. Richard C. McCormick, the Governor of the Territory, was brought forward as the Independent Union candidate, and received 1,263 votes out of a total of 2,093. In Yavapai County, Democrats only were chosen to the Legislature; in the other four counties the tickets were made up without regard to party, and the members elected were about equally divided in respect to political sentiments.

Colorado.—Although efforts have been several times made to have Colorado admitted into the Union as a State, it is still numbered among the Territories. Considerable advancement has been made in our knowledge of the physical characteristics of this Territory. It extends 260 miles from north to south and 375 miles from east to west, and has three natural subdivisions. The eastern third is a region of lofty rolling plains, 4,000 or 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, watered with numerous streams, and containing much fine land for agricultural and grazing purposes. Beyond this plateau is a mountain-belt, varying from 100 to 200 miles in width, within whose limits peaks rise to a height of 15,000 or 16,000 feet. The forms of the ranges and peaks exhibit a great variety, and in their combinations produce some of the grandest mountain scenery in the world. Among the mountains are several broad expanses of plain or diversified territory, which have received the name of the "Parks of Colorado." These vary in size from 20 by 50 miles, to 100 by 200, and the principal ones are four in number, viz.: North Park, Middle Park, South Park, and San Luis Park. The last mentioned of these is the largest, and contains an area of about 18,000 square miles, or double that of the State of Massachusetts. It is a vast elliptical bowl, shut in by mountains varying in height from 10,000 to 16,000 feet. The general level of the plain itself is 6,000 feet above the sea-level. The climate is one of the finest and most salubrious in the world, and the whole region is believed to be rich in minerals and the other undeveloped resources of nature. San Luis Park has a population of 24,000, for the most part a mixture of Mexicans and Indians, who have adopted in a great measure the habits and customs of Europeans. The western part of the Territory is almost an unknown land, uninhabited and unvisited save by adventurous miners.

The mining interests of Colorado are im-

proving, and as a consequence the cities and towns of the Territory are increasing rapidly. A railroad is in progress to connect Denver City with the Pacific Railroad in Nebraska. The Governor of Colorado is A. C. Hunt. A delegate to Congress was elected this year, and both parties held nominating conventions in June. The whole vote cast for delegate was 8,167. Of these, Bradford, Republican, received 4,092, and Belden, Democrat, 4,075, which gave the former a majority of 17. Conventions were held by both parties on the 1st of December, to consider the question of the admission of the Territory into the Union. The Republicans adopted resolutions requesting Congress to admit it at once on such terms as were deemed expedient. The Democrats were divided on the subject, some of them being in favor of immediate admission on any terms, others being opposed if negro suffrage was to be made a condition.

Dakota.—This Territory is as yet but thinly settled. The Government owns nearly all the land. Not more than twenty settlements make any pretension to the name of towns. Nothing has been done to develop any mineral wealth in the country, and agriculture has scarcely made a beginning. Sufficient advancement in industry has, however, been made to prove that it is an excellent country for raising cattle. Landed property about the capital, Yankton, is said to have increased in value 300 per cent. during the past year. Eight years ago, when the land was ceded to the Government by the Indians, not a white inhabitant was to be found. The present Governor is Andrew J. Faulk, and J. S. Spink represents the Territory in Congress.

Idaho.—Owing to the remoteness of this Territory, and the want of ready means of access, its growth as yet has not been so rapid as that of several of the other Territories. The Northern Pacific Railroad will, however, lead to immigration and a rapid development of its resources. There are already a number of enterprising towns and considerable mining business. Frequent reports are received of the discovery of new silver-mines. The Governor is D. W. Ballard, who is also the United States Superintendent of Indian Affairs in the Territory. At the election for delegate to Congress in August, 5,320 votes were cast, of which J. K. Shafer, the Democratic candidate, received 3,102, and T. K. Butler, the Republican, 2,218. Shafer's majority, 884. The members of the Council are Democrats, and the House of Representatives contains three Republicans and nineteen Democrats.

The following are the counties of Idaho:

Name.	County Seat.	Name.	County Seat.
Ada.....	Boise City	Lah Toh....	(Unorganized.)
Alturas.....	Rocky Bar	Nez Perce.....	Lewiston
Boise.....	Idaho City	Owyhee.....	Silver City
Idaho.....	Florence	Oncida.....	Malade City
Kootenai....	(Unorganized.)	Shoshone.....	Pierce City

Montana.—The progress of settlement in Montana has been chiefly from the Pacific coast,

and all the towns are in the western portion of the Territory. On the 1st of July, the entire population was 38,875; the real and personal property was valued at \$9,400,000. There were 243,427 acres of land under cultivation. The products of the mines were rapidly becoming a source of profit; the value of gold and silver refined and run into bars at that time was \$8,640,000. Bituminous coal of superior qualities has been discovered, which will be particularly valuable for the purpose of smelting metallic ores. The great interest of the Territory, however, will be its agriculture. It contains some of the most productive lands in the Northwest, and it will be found more profitable for steady industry to cultivate the soil than to take the doubtful chances of getting gain from the mines. A corporation known as the Northwest Transportation Company was organized in November, 1867, for the purpose of running a line of steamers up the Missouri from Sioux City to Fort Benton, thus establishing communication with the great States to the East. During the past season five steamers were employed in the business of the company, having a carrying capacity of 2,000 tons. The Legislature of Montana met at Virginia City on the 9th of December, and the Governor in his address recommended the encouragement of immigration from Northern Europe as a counterpoise to the rapid influx of Chinese. The Governor is Green C. Smith, and J. M. Cavanaugh is the delegate in Congress.

New Mexico.—There have been some new discoveries of silver during the year in New Mexico which promise very rich results. The mineral wealth of the Territory is undoubtedly great, but is said to be equalled if not excelled by its agricultural resources, which only wait for enterprise to yield profitable returns for labor and capital. The territorial Governor is Robert B. Mitchell, the delegate in Congress, Charles P. Clever. Considerable Democratic gains were reported at the last election.

Utah.—It is stated on good authority, that, out of the 43,000,000 acres of land in Utah Territory, not more than 500,000 are capable of cultivation. Most of that which is actually cultivated is occupied in little farms, of ten to fifteen acres, and frequently requires artificial irrigation. The soil is, however, quite productive, and under excellent cultivation. The present population of the territory is estimated at 115,000. Immigration is encouraged and aided by the Mormons, whose agents travel in Europe to obtain proselytes, and are supported by the community at home. The Governor of Utah is Charles Durkee, and the Superintendent of Indian Affairs, F. H. Head. William H. Hooper, of Salt Lake City, represents the Territory in Congress.

Washington.—Governor, Marshall F. Moore, Olympia; delegate in Congress, Alvan Flanders, Walla Walla.

Wyoming.—An act of Congress, approved July 25, 1868, provided for the temporary gov-

ernment of the new Territory of Wyoming, which was formed from a portion of Dakota, with small additions from Montana, Idaho, Utah, and Nebraska. The boundaries are as follows, viz.: Commencing at the intersection of the 27th meridian of longitude, west from Washington, with the 45th degree of north latitude, and running thence west to the 34th meridian of west longitude; thence south to the 41st degree of north latitude; thence east to the 27th meridian of west longitude; and thence north to the place of beginning. The rights of property, now pertaining to the Indians in this territory, are secured to them until extinguished by treaty; and the United States expressly reserves the power to divide the Territory into two or more, or to attach any portion to another State or territory as may be deemed best. A Governor and Secretary are to be appointed by the President, to hold office four years; and a Legislature is to be elected by the people, which shall consist of a Council of nine members, which may be increased to thirteen; and a House of Representatives, of thirteen members, which may be increased to twenty-seven.

This Territory was formerly the abode of the Crow Indians. The advancement into its limits of the Pacific Railroad at once drew after it a line of settlements, with a rapid springing-up of towns in the wilderness. The first stake was driven at Cheyenne, on the 13th of July, 1867, and in one month there was a town of 8,000 inhabitants on the spot. These were, however, made up in a large measure of adventurers and disreputable characters. No sooner was a new station established at Laramie, than a large part of this population departed from Cheyenne, but the more respectable portion remained, and a permanent city has undoubtedly been founded there. One year from its first inception it had a population of 4,000, and had a newspaper already started, "The Weekly Rocky Mountain Star." The resources of the Territory are believed to be very great, but are almost wholly undeveloped.

The Indian Territory is still unorganized, and chiefly occupied by reservations for the Indians and broad pastures for the buffalo.

TEXAS. At the opening of the year 1868, Texas formed a part of the "Fifth Military District," General Hancock, commander, and was at the same time under the immediate command of General J. J. Reynolds of the "District of Texas." In the latter part of the preceding year, General Hancock had been appealed to by Governor Pease, to order a trial by military commission of a man charged with murder, in Uvalde County, on the western frontier. The only reason given for thus superseding the action of the civil tribunals was, that the county had "only about one hundred voters in a territory of about nine hundred square miles," and it was not probable that the prisoners could be "kept in confinement long enough to be tried by the civil courts of

the county." General Hancock could not see in this case sufficient reason for the exercise of the authority vested in him, of ordering a trial by military commission, "when in his judgment it may be necessary." He said: "At this time the country is in a state of profound peace. The State government of Texas, organized in subordination to the authority of the United States, is in the full exercise of all its proper powers. The courts duly empowered to administer the laws, and to punish all offenders against these laws, are in existence. No unwillingness on the part of these courts is suggested, to inquire into the offences with which the prisoners in question are charged; nor any obstructions whatever in the way of enforcing the laws against them said to exist. Under such circumstances there is no good ground for the exercise of the extraordinary power vested in the commander to organize a military commission for the trial of the persons named."

He also expressed his surprise that the military power should be invoked in such a case, and declared that the powers possessed by the State government were sufficient for the trial of prisoners of this kind, and, if those powers were not exercised, it must be attributed to the "indolence or culpable inefficiency of the officers now charged with the execution and enforcement of the laws under the authority of the State government." This called forth a reply from Governor Pease, who denied the statement that the country was in a state of profound peace, and declared that a large majority of the white population was "embittered against the Government," and regarded the legislation of Congress as unconstitutional and "hostile to their interests." He argued, moreover, that it was the duty of the military commander to take the place of the ordinary laws and tribunals in his district and protect the rights and redress the wrongs of the people. General Hancock addressed to Governor Pease a long letter under date of March 9th, in which he dealt severely with the proposition of the latter, that the people should be deprived of the advantages of the ordinary administration of justice because they were not in sympathy with the Government, and expressed his intention of superseding the laws of the State and their ordinary execution only in cases in which it was shown to be absolutely necessary. He closed with the following remarks upon the letter of the Provisional Governor: "I have found but little else in your letter but indications of temper, lashed into excitement by causes which I deem mostly imaginary; a great confidence in the accuracy of your own opinions, and an intolerance of the opinions of others; a desire to punish the thoughts and feelings of those who differ with you, and an impatience which magnifies the shortcomings of officials, who are, perhaps, as earnest and conscientious in the discharge of their duties as yourself, and a most unsound

conclusion that, while any persons are to be found wanting in affection or respect for the Government, or yielding it obedience from motives which you do not approve, war and not peace is the status, and all such persons are the proper subjects for a military penal jurisdiction."

The registration of voters under the provisions of the reconstruction acts took place in 1867, but a revision of the lists was made in January, 1868. Under the former commander the following memoranda and questions had been issued from the military headquarters for the instruction of the registrars:

Memoranda of disqualifications, for the guidance of the Boards of Registrars, under the military bill, passed March 2, 1867, and the bill supplementary thereto:

1. Every person who has acted as United States Senator or Representative.
2. All who have acted as electors of President or Vice-President.
3. Every person who held any position in the Army or Navy of the United States.
4. All persons who held any position under the United States, in which they were required to take an oath before they entered upon the duties of office; such as officers in the custom-house, post-office, mint, judges, and all officers of the United States court, United States marshals, and deputies.
5. All who have been Governor of the State, State senator or representative, secretary of State, treasurer, and all officers provided for in the constitution of the State, made in 1845 and 1852, including judges of courts, justices of peace, clerks of courts and deputies, sheriffs and deputies, constables and deputies, tax-collectors, assessors, coroners, police, jurors, auctioneers, pilots, harbor-masters, recorders of conveyance and mortgages, parish recorders, notaries public, and all commissioned officers in the State militia. Every person who has acted as mayor of the city, treasurer, comptroller, recorder, alderman, assessor, tax-collector, administrator of the Charity Hospital, a member of the Board of Health, a commissioner of elections and his clerks, chief of police, lieutenant of police, and all who have served on the police force. Wardens and under-wardens of the parish prison and workhouse, board of school-directors, city surgeons and deputies, street commissioner and deputies, city attorney and assistant attorney, superintendent of public schools, inspectors of tobacco, flour, beef, and pork, and weights and measures, managers of the asylums for the deaf and dumb and blind, and sextons of cemeteries.

All who in 1862 and 1864 registered themselves as aliens, or who obtained protection papers from the representatives of foreign powers.

Any person who, at any time, held any of the above offices, and who afterward engaged in rebellion against the United States, or gave aid and comfort to the enemies thereof, is disqualified from voting.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED BY PERSONS PROPOSING TO REGISTER.

1. Have you been United States Senator, Representative, or elector of President or Vice-President, at any time before January 26, 1861?
2. Did you hold any office under the United States Government of any kind whatsoever, before January 26, 1861?
3. Did you hold any office under the government of this State, of any kind whatsoever, to which you were elected or appointed, prior to January 26, 1861?
4. Did you hold any office under the city government, of any kind whatsoever, to which you were elected or appointed, prior to January 26, 1861.

5. Did you in 1862 or in 1864 register yourself as an alien, or did you obtain protection papers from representatives of any foreign power?

In case any of the preceding questions are answered "Yes," or should you know they should be so answered, it would be proper to ask the following:

6. Were you in the Confederate service, military, naval, or civil, or did you give aid and comfort to those engaged in hostility to the United States?

If answered "Yes," or if you know it to be so, they must not be registered.

On the 11th of January, General Hancock issued an order expressing his dissent from the construction given to the disqualifying clauses of the reconstruction acts in these memoranda, and informing the registrars in Texas that they were to be regarded as of no effect as instructions to them, but that the members of the Board were to "look to the laws, and to the laws alone, for the rules which are to govern them in the discharge of the delicate and important duties imposed upon them." In case any questions arose as to the right of persons to be registered, the applicants, he said, should have a right to appeal from the decision of the Board, and a full statement of the facts should then be forwarded to the military headquarters. Such appeals were, in fact, made; and in a number of instances the decision of the registrars was reversed.

The whole number of white citizens in the State who would have been entitled to vote under the old laws is said to be about 80,000; the number registered under the operation of the reconstruction acts was 56,678. The number of colored persons registered was 47,581, making the whole number of registered voters 104,259.

Before the election took place, which was ordered for the 14th and 15th of February, a Conservative Convention was held at Houston, which occupied three days in its deliberations, and put forth a platform, the leading features of which were opposition to negro suffrage and to the congressional plan of reconstruction. The following were among the resolutions adopted:

Resolved, That the question of African equality rises far above all questions of party, and is vital to the future interests of this State, as subordinate to that, we cheerfully concur with all parties who are opposed to the Africanization of the State.

Resolved, That believing it to be the determination of the Radical party to create a convention, and yet desiring to express our opposition to the Africanization of Texas, we recommend the people of the State, entitled to register, to do so and vote against a convention, and to guard against the contingency of its being successfully carried; to vote at the same time for the election of delegates to the convention on the basis of creating a constitution without negro suffrage, and asking Congress to accept the same, believing that we should only be recognized as in the Union on a footing of equality with the other States, and that the Northern people will demand no more.

Resolved, That while we are unalterably opposed to negro supremacy, we are in favor of securing to them the full protection of all their rights of person and of property, under just laws bearing equally on all.

The whole vote given on the question of holding a convention, so far as authentic re-

turns have been made, was 54,888: for the convention, 43,142; against a convention, 11,246; majority in favor, 30,896.

The delegates chosen to frame a constitution for the State of Texas met in convention on the 1st of June, in pursuance of a military order issued on the 5th of May, by General Buchanan, who was at that time holding temporary command of the Fifth Military District prior to the arrival of General Rousseau, who had been appointed to succeed Hancock. The convention consisted of ninety members, nine of whom were negroes, and but eight or nine of the whites were adherents of the Democratic party. The body was, however, nearly equally divided into a party inclined to moderate action, headed by A. J. Hamilton, a former Provisional Governor of the State, and a party led by his brother, Morgan Hamilton, whose temper prompted extreme radical measures. General E. J. Davis was chosen to preside over the deliberations of the convention. Provisional Governor Pease submitted a message, suggesting some of the measures which he deemed it important for the convention to adopt; among other things he recommended that they declare null and void *ab initio* the act of secession and all laws repugnant to the Constitution and laws of the United States, and repeal all laws making any discrimination against persons on account of color, race, or previous condition. The first part of this recommendation introduced into the convention a question which led to a long and heated debate, and was finally settled by a close vote rejecting the proposition on which the discussion was based, to declare null and void all acts of any "body or assemblage of persons or men in Texas calling themselves a convention or Legislature, and not having the sanction of the Congress of the United States." This was called, throughout the discussion on the subject, the *ab initio* question. Propositions were made both for further disfranchisement and for the removal of disabilities, but nothing of importance was done on either of these subjects. The subject of dividing the State was brought up, but met with general disfavor.

The Governor, in his message at the opening of the convention, had declared that crime was never so prevalent in Texas as at that moment; and a few days later a military order was issued by General Reynolds, of the District of Texas, which declared that reliable information, received at the headquarters, showed that in many counties "organized bands of lawless men" were committing murders and otherwise violating the laws and disturbing the peace of the country. This subject was taken up in the Constitutional Convention, and a special Committee on Crime and Lawlessness was appointed to investigate the matter and report for the information of the delegates. Their report was submitted on the 30th day of June, and stated that about 900 homicides had been committed in the State since the close of

the war in 1865. Of these, 304 had been perpetrated since the first of January. These crimes were attributed to political differences, and a spirit of intolerance toward sentiments of "loyalty" to the Government. "Many of the persons murdered," said a majority of the committee, "were loyal men, and were murdered for their loyalty." This was denied in a minority report submitted some days later, though prevalence of crime in many parts of the State was admitted. The result of the investigation took the form of a resolution, appointing two commissioners to proceed to Washington and lay before Congress "the condition of lawlessness and violence prevalent in this State, and urge the immediate necessity for action on the following matter:

"1. The adoption of some law or regulation that will secure the filling of all State provisional offices with competent and loyal incumbents.

"2. The organization of loyal militia, to be placed under the direction and control of the local provisional authorities of Texas."

At about the same time, a resolution was passed appropriating \$25,000, and placing the same at the disposal of the Governor, "to enable him to offer suitable rewards for the arrest and apprehension of the desperadoes" who were disturbing the peace of the community, and to "ferret out their hiding-places." This resolution was forwarded to General Buchanan for his approval, and returned with the following objections:

"1. He [the commander] is unable to find in the reconstruction acts of Congress, under which the convention assembled, any thing which authorized it to appropriate the money of the State for the purpose specified in said declaration.

"2. This is properly a subject for legislation, and should be left to the consideration of said Legislature.

"3. The declaration appropriates \$25,000 to be used as above stated, with a proviso with reference to a military commission, which its author doubtless intended as a gratuitous insult to the commanding general of the Fifth Military District, by coupling it with conditions intended to reflect discreditably upon his administration of its civil affairs."

The proviso mentioned was in these words:

Resolved, That no part of the same shall be used unless the military commander of the District of Texas shall first be authorized to organize military commissions for the trial of offenders.

The Democratic Convention, which met on the 6th day of July, at Bryan, also appointed a Committee on Crime and Lawlessness, and a report was published which contained the views of the better portion of the conservative people of the State. They did not deny the prevalence of crime, but admitted it "with sorrow." They did, however, differ with the committee of the Constitutional Convention with regard to the causes of this unfortunate state

of things. These causes were stated to be: 1. The "general demoralization resulting from the war, and the absence of any government, civil or military, for several months after the conclusion of the war, and the sudden disbandment of a large number of Federal and Confederate soldiery," who were thus released from military restraint at a time when the checks of civil law were also wanting; 2. The "disorders had been increased in many localities by taking the execution of the laws from the civil authorities, without replacing them by any other power;" 3. The "inefficiency of judicial and ministerial officers appointed by the military authorities;" and, 4. The "changed condition of society resulting from the emancipation of the negroes, the indolent habits and thievish disposition evinced by them, and the turbulent spirit which they have manifested, instigated by bad and designing men, and in many instances supported by the officers of the Freedmen's Bureau."

The committee denied that freedom of speech and of political sentiment was not allowed in the State, and intimated that a liberal and efficient government was all that was needed in Texas. In the midst of these investigations on crime and lawlessness, a riot occurred at Millican, in which several persons lost their lives. An armed band of negroes, with a "parson" at the head, set forth on an expedition of vengeance for the supposed hanging of a negro in the Brazos valley, and came in collision with the sheriff and his *posse*, who attempted to preserve the peace. This occurred on the 15th of July.

After the restoration of Louisiana to her place in the Union by the act of Congress of June 25th, Texas alone formed the Fifth Military District, and on the 28th of July General J. Reynolds was assigned to the command. On the 24th of August, the following was addressed to the president of the convention:

HQ'RS, FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT, STATE OF TEXAS, }
AUSTIN, TEXAS, August 24, 1868. }

Hon. E. J. Davis, President Constitutional Convention, Austin, Texas:

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of a resolution of the convention, passed on the 20th inst., asking my approval of an additional appropriation of \$25,000 to defray expenses.

The convention has been in session about eighty-five days, and has expended an appropriation of \$100,000.

The present state of the Treasury, the rate at which money is coming in, and the prospective current wants of the State, forbid the appropriation of any more money from the Treasury for the expenses of the Constitutional Convention.

The resolution is respectfully returned without approval. I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant.

J. J. REYNOLDS,
Brevet Major-General U. S. A., commanding.

All the committees on the different portions of the constitution had made their reports, and the instrument was engrossed, but, on the receipt of the above communication, it was determined to take a recess. The convention

accordingly adjourned from the 31st of August to the first Monday in December.

The Democratic party in Texas held a convention on the 7th of July, and took steps to organize its forces for the presidential campaign. Electors were nominated, a platform adopted, and an address to the people was published. The following are the principal resolutions contained in the platform:

2. That we acquiesce in good faith in the abolishment of negro slavery, the repudiation of the war debt of the State, and its abandonment of the doctrine of secession as a peaceable remedy for State grievances, as results of the war finally settled, and do not propose to disturb or change the result.

3. That it is our purpose to adhere in good faith to our renewed allegiance to the Constitution and Government of the United States, and to cultivate fraternal good-will with the people of all parts of the country; and we repel with indignation the charges of disloyalty falsely made against us by the radical party for the purpose of perpetuating military despotism over us, and as a pretext for the disfranchisement of those who do not agree with their political opinions, and to maintain themselves in political power, in disregard of right and of the popular will.

4. That we earnestly desire the restoration of the Constitution of the United States to its original supremacy and vigor, and the faithful enforcement of the Federal laws within their sphere in all the States of the Union; that we earnestly seek to be restored to all the rights of local self-government; that we earnestly desire the reestablishment of the civil law administration by constitutional courts, and to see its supremacy established over the military; that we are unalterably opposed to the consolidation of the powers of the Federal Government in the legislative department, or to the encroachment of the legislative upon the executive and judicial departments; that we deplore the unlimited and irresponsible military despotisms which now exist in the States of the American Union, and we earnestly appeal to the people of the States now represented in Congress, to remove the odious and oppressive tyranny from over us; that we declare the practical operation and usual effect of the Freedmen's Bureau established amongst us, is to cultivate and stimulate discontent, with both the white and black races, and calculated to promote differences of opinion and contests between the races, which may prove more disastrous to both, and highly injurious to the whole country. That we declare it to be our deliberate conviction that there exists no necessity for continuing the disfranchisement of any portion of the white people of the Southern States, and that the continued disfranchisement of the large number of intelligent classes now deprived of political rights, while the rights of suffrage and the holding of office are conferred upon all the negroes, must, in the nature of things, endanger the stability of government, the peace and security of society, and prove destructive to good order and happiness amongst us. That we entertain no feelings of ill-will or hostility to the negro race amongst us, and that we desire to see them protected by the laws of the State in all their rights of person and of property, and will do whatever we can to promote their improvement in knowledge and virtue, this being alike necessary for the general welfare, and for the happiness of both races.

5. That we adhere to the constitutional doctrine that the power to regulate the question of suffrage in the States, rests exclusively with the States themselves, and we therefore deny that Congress has any constitutional power whatever to enact laws on that subject.

The Republicans also held a convention, but carrying their disagreement on the *ab initio*

question into this body, they divided into two factions, and finally adjourned without making any nominations.

The Democratic State Central Committee published a circular under date September 28th, in which it was claimed that the laws provided for the holding of an election for presidential electors in every State, and that there was nothing to prevent the people of Texas from exercising the right. As no provision had been made by the State authorities for the regular holding of such election, the people were "advised and earnestly recommended to assemble peaceably at their usual voting-places, appoint a presiding officer, and proceed to cast their votes for electors of President and Vice-President." It was "particularly and urgently advised that, in organizing the polls, casting the votes, and in making returns, the law be strictly complied with." This circular was submitted to General Reynolds, with a letter requesting him to order the election, and suggesting, "in the event that the general commanding should doubt his power, and decline to order the election," that "the laws of the State of Texas as now in force are broad enough to authorize the people of the State to assemble at their usual voting-places and appoint the necessary officers to conduct the election." In reply, General Reynolds transmitted to the chairman of the committee the following extract from Special Orders, No. 44:

Special Orders, No. 44.

HD'QRS FIFTH MILITARY DIST, STATE OF TEXAS,
AUSTIN, TEXAS, September 29, 1868. }

[Extract.]

IV. The following Act of Congress, passed the 20th of July, 1868, is published for the information and guidance of all concerned:

Joint Resolution excluding from the Electoral College votes of the States lately in Rebellion which shall not have been reorganized.

Resolved, etc., That none of the States, whose inhabitants were lately in rebellion, shall be entitled to representation in the electoral college for the choice of President or Vice-President of the United States, nor shall any electoral votes be received or counted from any of such States, unless, at the time prescribed by law for the choice of electors, the people of such State, pursuant to the Acts of Congress in that behalf, shall have, since the 4th day of March, 1867, adopted a constitution of State government, under which a State government shall have been organized, and shall be in operation; nor unless such election of electors shall have been held under the authority of such constitution and government, and such State shall have also become entitled to representation in Congress, pursuant to the Acts of Congress in that behalf; *Provided,* That nothing herein contained shall be construed to apply to any State which was represented in Congress on the 4th day of March, 1867.

No election for electors of President and Vice-President of the United States will be held in the State of Texas, on the third of November next. Any assemblages, proceedings, or acts for such purpose are hereby prohibited, and all citizens are admonished to remain at home, or attend to their ordinary business on that day.

By command of

Brevet Major-General J. J. REYNOLDS.

The State of Texas accordingly took no part in the presidential election of 1868.

The Constitutional Convention reassembled early in December, and spent upward of two

months in completing its work. The question of declaring null *ab initio* all the legislation of the State between March, 1861, and May, 1865, was again brought up, and the proposition to provide for the division of the State now took a prominent place in the discussions. Both these measures failed to receive the sanction of a majority of the delegates. The constitution itself was completed, and it was determined to submit it to a vote of the people in July, 1869. The following are the most peculiar features of the Bill of Rights:

That the heresies of nullification and secession, which brought the country to grief, may be eliminated from future political discussion, that public order may be restored, private property and human life protected, and the great principles of liberty and equality secured to us and our posterity, we declare that—

SECTION 1. The Constitution of the United States, and the laws and treaties made, and to be made, in pursuance thereof, are acknowledged to be the supreme law; that this constitution is framed in harmony with, and in subordination thereto; and that the fundamental principles embodied herein can only be changed subject to the national authority.

SEC. 2. All freemen, when they form a social compact, have equal rights; and no man, or set of men, is entitled to exclusive separate public emoluments or privileges.

SEC. 21. The equality of all persons before the law is herein recognized, and shall ever remain inviolate; nor shall any citizen ever be deprived of any right, privilege, or immunity, nor be exempted from any burdens, or duty, on account of race, color, or previous condition.

SEC. 22. Importations of persons under the name of "coolies" or any other name or designation, or the adoption of any system of peonage, whereby the helpless and unfortunate may be reduced to practical bondage, shall never be authorized or tolerated by the laws of the State; and neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been convicted, shall ever exist in the State.

SEC. 23. To guard against transgressions of the high powers herein delegated, we declare that every thing in this Bill of Rights is excepted out of the general powers of government, and shall forever remain inviolate; and all laws contrary thereto, or to the following provisions, shall be void.

The House of Representatives is to consist of ninety members, who shall hold office for a term of two years. The Senators are to be thirty-three in number, chosen for six years. The Legislature will meet annually, and on the second Tuesday after its first assembling it is required to ratify the 13th and 14th articles of the amendments to the Federal Constitution. The Executive Department of the government is to consist of a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller of Public Accounts, Treasurer, Commissioner of General Land-Office, Attorney-General, and Superintendent of Public Instruction; and the period of their administration is to be four years. The Secretary of State and Attorney-General are to be appointed by the Governor; the other executive officers are to be elected by the people. The judicial power of the State is vested in one Supreme Court, District Courts, and in such inferior courts and magistrates as may

be created by this constitution or by the Legislature under its authority." The judges of the Supreme Court are to be three in number, appointed by the Governor with the advice of the Senate, for a term of nine years. The district judges are to be appointed in the same manner, to hold office eight years. The qualifications of voters are laid down in the following section:

SECTION 1. Every male person who shall have attained the age of twenty-one years and who shall be (or who shall declare his intentions to become) a citizen of the United States, or who is, at the time of the acceptance of this constitution by the Congress of the United States, a citizen of Texas, and shall have resided in the State one year next preceding an election, and the last six months within the district or county in which he offers to vote, and is duly registered (Indians not taxed excepted), shall be deemed a qualified elector; and should such qualified elector happen to be in any other county situated in the district in which he resides, at the time of an election, he shall be permitted to vote anywhere in the State for State officers; and provided further, that no soldier, seaman, or marine in the Army or Navy of the United States shall be entitled to vote at any election created by this constitution.

The following forms an article by itself on the right of suffrage:

SECTION 1. Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, not laboring under the disabilities named in this constitution, without distinction of race, color, or former condition, who shall be a resident of this State at the time of the adoption of this constitution, or who shall thereafter reside in this State one year, and in the county in which he offers to vote sixty days preceding any election, shall be entitled to vote for all officers that are now, or hereafter may be, elected by the people, and upon all questions submitted to the electors at any election; provided that no person shall be allowed to vote, or hold office, who is now, or hereafter may be, disqualified therefor, by the Constitution of the United States, until such disqualifications shall be removed by the Congress of the United States: *Provided*, further, that no person, while kept in any asylum, or confined in prison, or who has been convicted of a felony, or who is of unsound mind, shall be allowed to vote or hold office.

It is made the duty of the Legislature to provide a system of "public free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all the inhabitants of the State between the ages of six and eighteen years," and to require the attendance at these schools of "all the scholastic population for the period of at least four months in each and every year," unless they are shown to have received regular instructions for a corresponding period from a private teacher having a "proper certificate of competency."

The following are among the "general provisions" of the constitution:

SECTION 1. Members of the Legislature, and all officers, before they enter upon the duties of their offices, shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I (A. B.) do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully and impartially discharge and perform all duties incumbent on me as ———, according to the best of my skill and ability, and that I will support the Constitution and laws of the United States, and of this State. And I do further swear (or affirm) that, since the acceptance of this constitution by the Congress of the United States, I, being a citizen of this

State, have not fought a duel with deadly weapons, or committed an assault upon any person with deadly weapons, or sent or accepted a challenge to fight a duel with deadly weapons, or acted as second in fighting a duel, or knowingly aided or assisted any one thus offending, either within this State or out of it; that I am not disqualified from holding office under the 14th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States (or, as the case may be, my disability to hold office under the 14th Amendment to the Constitution of the United States has been removed by Act of Congress); and further, that I am a qualified elector in this State.

SEC. 3. Any citizen of this State, who shall, after the adoption of this constitution, fight a duel with deadly weapons, or commit an assault upon any person with deadly weapons, or send or accept a challenge to fight a duel with deadly weapons, either within this State or out of it, or who shall act as second, or knowingly aid and assist, in any manner, those thus offending, shall be deprived of the right of suffrage, or of holding any office of trust or profit under this State.

SEC. 33. The ordinance of the convention passed on the first day of February, A. D. 1861, commonly known as the Ordinance of Secession, was in contravention of the Constitution and laws of the United States, and therefore null and void from the beginning; and all laws, and parts of laws, founded upon said ordinance, were null and void from the date of their passage. The Legislatures which sat in the State of Texas, from the 18th day of March, A. D. 1861, until the 6th day of August, A. D. 1866, had no constitutional authority to make laws binding upon the people of the State of Texas: *Provided*, That this section shall not be construed to inhibit the authorities of this State from respecting and enforcing such rules and regulations as were prescribed by the said Legislatures which were not in violation of the Constitution and laws of the United States, or in aid of the rebellion against the United States, or prejudicial to the citizens of this State who were loyal to the United States, and which have been actually in force or observed in Texas during the above period of time; nor to affect, prejudicially, private rights which may have grown up under such rules and regulations; nor to invalidate official acts not in favor of the rebellion against the United States, during said period of time. The Legislature which assembled in the city of Austin on the 6th day of August, A. D. 1866, was provisional only, and its acts are to be respected only so far as they were not in violation of the Constitution and laws of the United States; or were not intended to reward those who participated in the late rebellion; or to discriminate between citizens on account of race or color; or to operate prejudicially to any class of citizens.

THALLIUM. At the Herrog-Julius works, near Rammelsburg, Brunswick, is found a mineral containing large proportions of sulphate of zinc and lead. This ore, having been roasted and lixiviated, yields a solution of white vitriol, sulphate of zinc, of 1.441 specific gravity at 24° C. This liquid, which is made in great quantities, is rich in thallium, as compared with most of the sources of the supply of that metal. The following is an analysis of the fluid:

Sulphate of zinc.....	21.740
“ protoxide of manganese....	8.230
“ magnesia.....	0.717
“ potash.....	0.581
“ cadmium.....	0.536
“ soda.....	0.443
“ protoxide of iron.....	0.386
“ copper.....	0.285
“ lime.....	0.075
“ alumina.....	0.060

Sulphate of lead.....	0.008
“ lithia.....	trace
Arsenious acid.....	trace
Oxide of antimony.....	trace
Phosphoric acid.....	trace
Chloride of thallium.....	0.050
Hydrated sulphuric acid.....	0.119
Hydrochloric acid.....	0.009
Water.....	66.761

According to Bunsen, thallium is best obtained from this liquor by precipitating, by means of metallic zinc immersed in the liquor, the metals copper, cadmium, and thallium, jointly. The metallic spongy mixture thus obtained is rapidly washed—first with water, by being placed in a bag made of woollen fabric; next, some sulphuric acid is added to the wash water, whereby the metals thallium and cadmium get dissolved with evolution of hydrogen, while copper is left untouched; from the acid solution so obtained, thallium is precipitated, by means of iodide of potassium, as a pure yellow iodide, which is further purified by washing and by decantation; from the remaining liquor, cadmium is precipitated in the metallic state by zinc. One cubic metre of the above liquid yields in a few days 6.4 kilos. of spongy metallic precipitate, containing 4.2 kilos. cadmium, 1.6 kilos. copper, and 0.6 kilo. thallium, 7.4 kilos. of metallic zinc becoming dissolved. The solution of cadmium and thallium in sulphuric acid yields, on addition of 0.5 kilo. iodide of potassium, 0.07 kilo. of iodide of thallium. Thallium may be precipitated from the sulphuric acid solution by means of chlorides, but in so doing a not inconsiderable quantity of the metal is retained by the cadmium. The thallium may be directly obtained from the first liquid at once by precipitation with iodide of potassium, provided previously a sufficient quantity of hyposulphite of soda be added to keep the copper in solution; the application, however, of this latter method interferes with the object for which the liquor is prepared, viz., the making of sulphate of zinc.—*Polyt. Centralbl.*, 1868, No. 10.

Messrs. Hopkins and Williams, of London, have been remarkably successful in the preparation of thallium and its compounds. The metal itself they have obtained in considerable masses—or a weight as high as 2 lbs. They have also made the chloride, bromide, iodide, silicate, phosphate, molybdate, cyanide, oxalate, borate, chromate, acetate, bitartrate, tungstate, and other rare combinations of the metal with different elements, as also the common forms, and a variety of double thallium salts, all in a condition of great purity. Sulphate of thallium they prepared by fusing thallium and sulphur together. They ascertained that sulphide of hydrogen does not precipitate the solutions of the sulphate, nitrate, etc., of thallium, but an abundant precipitate is produced in the solution of the acetate, and, as thus prepared, it can be washed and dried, but, if precipitated by sulphide of ammonium, and the precipitate washed and dried, when approach-

ing dryness it will take fire at a very moderate temperature. Messrs. Hopkins and Williams could not succeed in obtaining a permanent sulphide by this process.

Professor J. W. Gunning, M. D., communicates to the London *Chemical News* his method of extracting thallium from flue-dust gathered from the works at Amsterdam, where pyrites are used for making sulphur. He found the flue-dust to yield about one per cent. of chloride of thallium, the bulk being made up of arsenious and arsenic acid, and some iron and lead, but hardly any sulphuric acid. He says:

It is usual, in order to obtain thallium from this dust, to boil it (the dust) with dilute sulphuric acid, to strain, and to precipitate the thallium by means of hydrochloric acid; the chloride of thallium so obtained is washed and afterward dissolved in strong sulphuric acid, yielding the well-crystallizing sulphate of thallium. Another plan is, to digest the flue-dust with a solution of carbonate of soda, and to precipitate the thallium by means of hydro-sulphuret of ammonium. It has struck me, while engaged with this matter, that neither of these methods answers the purpose well; the sulphate and carbonate of thallium are not very readily soluble, and, unless, therefore, one is prepared to lose a portion of thallium, there is no end of boiling the flue-dust with solvents. One must, moreover, bear in mind that the flue-dust contains a portion of the thallium as peroxide, insoluble in soda, and indifferently soluble only in dilute sulphuric acid. The presence of Tl_2O_3 in flue-dust is proved in this way; after long treatment with soda solution, there is a brownish muddy mass left, which, when acted upon by sulphurous acid dissolved in water, becomes partly discolored and yields a large proportion of sulphate of thallium.

I have applied phosphoric acid to extract thallium from the flue-dust, and I find it answer admirably well. The phosphates of thallium, and especially so the acid phosphate, are among the most soluble of the salts of thallium. Since phosphoric acid itself is rather too expensive to be thus applied, I have substituted therefor a mixture of bone-ash and sulphuric acid, which answered the purpose splendidly; it only required to digest and heat the mixture of flue-dust and bone-ash with sulphuric acid, and some water, a sufficiently long time, to render a twice-repeated digestion quite efficient to remove from the flue-dust I had obtained all the thallium it contained, amounting to about one per cent. of the whole mass; of course the filtrate was treated with hydrochloric acid. The fluid, from which the chloride of thallium had been separated by filtration, contained, however, yet a considerable amount of thallium dissolved, partly so in consequence of the non-thorough insolubility of chloride of thallium, partly also as thallous salts not precipitable by hydrochloric acid; in order to obtain this portion, sulphite of soda is added to the acid liquid, whereby the thallous salts are reduced to thallous salts, next the acid is pretty nearly neutralized with carbonate of soda, and the thallium compounds afterward precipitated by iodide of potassium as insoluble yellow iodide of thallium.

THURSTON, Rev. ASA, a Congregational clergyman and missionary to the Sandwich Islands for nearly fifty years, born in Fitchburg, Mass., October 12, 1787; died at Honolulu, March 11, 1868. He graduated from Yale College in 1816, having learned and labored at the business of scythe-making till he was twenty-two years of age. He graduated from Andover Theological Seminary in 1819. Both in the college and seminary he was the

most athletic man of his class. Before completing his course at the seminary, he offered himself as a missionary to the American Board of Foreign Missions, and was ordained in August, 1819, as a missionary to the Sandwich Island Mission. He sailed with Mrs. Thurston, October 23, 1819, on the brig Thaddeus. The vessel reached the islands March 30, 1820, and Mr. and Mrs. Thurston were assigned to the station at Kailua, Hawaii, the old residence of the kings of the islands. There they resided for more than forty years, until disabled by paralysis, when they removed to Honolulu. Here he spent the few closing years of an eventful life, respected and esteemed, honored and beloved.

TOD, DAVID, an Ohio statesman, diplomatist, and former Governor of Ohio, born at Youngstown, Mahoning County, February 21, 1805; died at Youngstown, November 13, 1868. He was the son of George Tod, for many years Judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio. He received a careful and thorough early training from his father, and in 1827 was admitted to the Ohio bar. For fifteen years he practised his profession at Warren. In 1838 he defeated his Whig competitor for the State Senate. In 1840 he took the stump for Van Buren, with whom he had previously become personally acquainted. In 1844 he received the nomination for Governor, and was beaten by only one thousand votes. In 1847, President Polk, unsolicited, offered him the appointment of minister to Brazil, which he accepted. He represented the United States at that court until 1852. On his return he took part in the campaign which resulted in the election of Mr. Pierce. In 1860 he was chosen a delegate to the Charleston Convention, and elected first vice-president of that body. When the Southern wing of the Democratic party withdrew at Baltimore, Mr. Tod became presiding officer. He warmly advocated the "peace measures," before and after the meeting of the Congress at Washington, which is known in history as the "Peace Congress." In the Republican State nominating convention of 1862 the choice fell on Mr. Tod as the nominee for Governor of Ohio. He was elected by over 55,000 majority, and gave a firm, unflinching support to the war.

TURKEY. An empire in Eastern Europe, Western Asia, and Northern Africa. Present ruler, Sultan Abdul-Aziz-Khan, born February 9, 1830; succeeded his brother, June 25, 1857. Heir-apparent, Abdul-Medjid-Khan, nephew of the Sultan. The area and population of the empire are estimated as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Area in square miles.	Population.
Possessions in Europe.....	200,932	18,487,000
" Asia.....	667,326	16,463,000
" Africa.....	1,049,214	5,050,000
Total.....	1,917,472	40,000,000

The highest officer of administration, or Grand-Vizier, in 1868, was Midhat Pacha; the

Sheik-ul-Islam (chief of the Ulema, or Judicial and Ecclesiastical Supreme Council), Refik Effendi, was dismissed in April, 1868, and the Sultan's own professor, Hassan Effendi, appointed in his place. In 1868, a Council of State was established, which was to prepare the draft of laws, discuss the budget, etc., and is divided into five sections, administration, finance, justice, instruction, and commerce. It is composed of fifty members, Christians and Mohammedans, elected by the Sultan. A Supreme Court, consisting of two sections, one for civil and the other for criminal causes, was also instituted in 1868.

Of the Christian churches of Turkey, the Greek Church is by far the most numerous, embracing a population of about 13,300,000; the other Eastern Churches together have a population of about 3,000,000; the Roman Catholic Church, including the churches of the Oriental rites which have acknowledged the Pope, number about 700,000 in European Turkey, 260,000 in the Asiatic possessions, 50,000 in Egypt, and 10,000 in Tunis and Tripoli. The total Protestant population of the empire is estimated at about 70,000.

The revenue for the year 1865-'66 was 3,171,880 purses; expenditures, 3,266,931: deficit, 95,051. (A purse is a little over \$24.00.) The public debt, in 1867, amounted to £69,142,270 sterling. The regular army (Nizam) consists of 100,496 men, divided into six army corps. Not included in this number were the detached divisions (in Crete, Tunis, Tripoli, etc.), about 30,000 men. The reserve (Redif, landwehr) has the same numerical strength as the regular army (100,496 men), as well as the same organization. The auxiliary troops of the semi-independent states, and of several provinces not subjected to the Nizam, number together about 100,000. The number of irregular troops (Bashi-Bazouks, Tartars, etc.) is estimated at 90,000. The number of war-vessels, in 1867, was 185, together of 2,370 cannon. Of these vessels, 18, together of 498 cannon, were iron-clads. The number of vessels entering the port of Constantinople, in 1866, was 22,300, together of 3,952,540 tons.

Some of the countries subject to Turkey have almost achieved their independence, and only pay an annual tribute. They are—I. EGYPT, which has been treated in a separate article. II. RUMANIA (embracing the two principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia). Hospodar, Prince Charles (Prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen), elected by the people, on April 20, 1866, recognized by the Turkish Government, October 24, 1866. Population in 1860, 3,864,848, nearly all of whom belong to the Greek Church. III. SERBIA. Prince, Milan IV., proclaimed July 2, 1868. As the prince is not yet of age, a regency was instituted, consisting of P. Blasnovac, J. Ristic, and J. Gavrianovic. A new ministry was appointed on the 3d of July, 1868, of which Zemtsh is the president. Population in 1859, 1,078,-

281, nearly all of whom belong to the Greek Church. IV. MONTENEGRO. Prince, Nicholas I., born 1840; proclaimed prince in 1860. Population in 1864, 196,238, nearly all of whom belong to the Greek Church.

On the 11th of May, an important reform was introduced into the administration of the Turkish empire by the establishment of a Council of State (Shurai Devlet). The Sultan opened the Council in person, and delivered an opening address, of which the following are the principal passages:

The duty of the state is to protect the rights and liberty of every one. Its action ought not to be manifested by violence and arbitrary power, but by justice. Every one may seek the satisfaction of his private interests in the common interest, according to the laws based upon equity and justice. In order to defend the rights of its subjects, the state must be strong. It will obtain strength from the wealth of the people and the prosperity derived from a regular and honest administration, opposed to abuses. Had Turkey been able to utilize what has been done for the welfare of the country at previous periods, she would rank among the best administered states. But disagreements and antagonism, as well as the absence of confidence and security, cause the ruins of states by preventing the development of commerce and public wealth. To make all these difficulties disappear, to guarantee the rights of every subject, to institute Councils of State, the members of which shall be taken from all classes; to institute also a high court of justice, establishing the separation of the executive, judicial, and religious powers, such are the reforms to be accomplished. The members of those councils are to consider the empire as one body formed by the union of all classes, and to act for the welfare of all. As regards religious belief, every one must be the master of his own convictions. This point cannot be called in question. The different religions must renounce all feeling of contempt and hatred toward each other.

The preamble of the decree states that "the Sultan, ardently desiring to surround the conduct of his government and the interests of his subjects with every guarantee of order and regularity, by the successive introduction of such improvements as are felt to be needed in the administration generally and in its different branches, has decreed the creation of a Council of State as one of the most powerful means for realizing that lofty idea, and has sanctioned the following *règlement* :

ARTICLE 1. The Council of State is the central institution of the empire deliberating on the affairs of administration.

ARR. 2. Its functions are—1, to examine and prepare all projects of law and of *règlement*; 2, to pronounce upon all matters of public administration comprised in the limits of its attributes; 3, to decide in matters of administrative disputes; 4, to take cognizance of conflicts between the administrative and judicial authorities as to their respective attributes; 5, to give its advice on the reports and other documents emanating from the administrative departments relative to laws and regulations which are in force; 6, to try functionaries whose conduct is submitted to it for investigation by special imperial order, or in virtue of the laws of the empire; 7, to give its advice on all questions with respect to which it shall be consulted by the sovereign or by ministers, and to decree the improvements proposed by the councils-general of the *vilayets*, and recorded in the minutes, in concert with the committees, which, composed of three or

four delegatés chosen from those councils, will be charged to present the minutes to the Porte. All these matters will be referred by the Grand-Vizier to the Council of State, which will address to him the reports containing its decisions. The presidents of the sections of the Council of State and a councillor from each section shall meet every year to examine the budget of receipts and expenditure.

ART. 8. The Council of State will be divided into five sections, namely:

1. *Section of the Interior and of War*, which will be charged with the examination of projects of law, and regulations elaborated by the proper administrative departments concerning general administration, the police, and the army and navy, and to determine on the matters submitted to it in regard to the application of such laws and regulations.

2. *Section of Finances and Evcaf*, charged to examine every thing relating to the laws and regulations as to the collection of taxes, the good management of the state revenues, and the general administration of *vakoufs*.

3. *Section of Legislation*, whose functions shall be the elaboration of civil, commercial, and criminal law, as well as of regulations for the tribunals by which those laws are administered, and to decide in cases of conflict between administrative and judicial authorities.

4. *Section of Public Works, Commerce, and Agriculture*, which will consider questions concerning the development of the interests of those services, as well as concessions and conventions connected therewith.

5. *Section of Public Instruction*, which, in conformity with its special attributes, will take charge of questions in which the educational institutions of the state are concerned.

All matters in dispute shall, according to their nature, be settled by the section to which they relate.

ART. 4. The Council of State shall not interfere with the attributes of the Executive, its mission being to deliberate only on the matters prescribed in the present *règlement*. It shall only have authority to watch over the execution of the laws and regulations, and, in case of their imperfect execution, to notify the same to the proper quarter.

ART. 5. Each section shall record the result of its deliberations on the questions within its special province in a report which shall be submitted to the Grand-Vizier. This report of the section shall bear also the seal of the Council, even in cases where the decision rests with the section itself. The president of the Council will put his own seal on the reports of deliberations which take place in his presence. Matters relating to organic laws and regulations, which will in the first instance be examined by a section, will not be the subject of a report to the Grand-Vizier until after they have been submitted to the assembly of the whole Council.

ART. 6. The Council will be presided over by a minister, who will be assisted by five presidents of sections and a secretary-general. Each section will consist of from five to ten members, so that the number of Councillors of State shall not exceed fifty. The members of the Council of State shall not exceed fifty. The members of the Council will be distributed among the different sections, according to the relative importance of the sections, but no section shall consist of less than five members.

ART. 7. The president of the Council, the presidents of the sections, the secretary-general, and the members of the Council, shall be appointed by the Sultan by imperial firman.

ART. 8. Each section shall have five *maîtres de requêtes* and five auditors taken from capable persons in the bureaux of the Council, which will be so formed as to answer the requirements of the different sections.

ART. 9. The Presidents and the Councillors will have deliberative votes. It will be the duty of the assistant to summarize the subjects of deliberations,

and of the auditors to draw up minutes of the proceedings. An assistant to each section will discharge the functions of first secretary to the section.

ART. 10. The deliberations of the Council, whether in general assembly or in sections, shall be decided by the majority of votes. The president and the members shall have each one vote. The votes shall be taken by ballot whenever required by the majority.

ART. 11. The president of the Council, or, in his absence, one of the presidents of sections, will preside over the general assembly of the Council.

ART. 12. The members of the Council shall all have the same rights and prerogatives, whatever may be their individual ranks or grades.

ART. 13. The mode of deliberation and every thing concerning the working of the bureaux of the Council will be the subject of a special *règlement* to be elaborated by all the sections of the Council conjointly.

ART. 14. The present organic *règlement* may be modified by imperial ordinance, should the Government deem it useful and necessary to do so.

The first list of members of the new Council contained 40 names, of which 27 belonged to Mussulmans and 13 to non-Mussulmans. Of the latter, 4 are members of the Greek communion, 4 Armenian Catholics, 1 a Gregorian Catholic, 2 Israelites, 1 a Bulgarian, and 1 a Syrian Catholic. Among the additional members who were subsequently appointed, was the Emir Mehemed Ruslan, a descendant of one of the oldest families of Chouf in the Lebanon, as representative of the Druses. The measures deliberated upon and adopted by the Council of State, and sanctioned by the Sultan, are to be published regularly by the *Takvimi Vakâi*, the official journal of the empire in the Turkish language.

The Supreme Court of Justice, which was established in 1868, contained also some Christian members, consisting of 8 Turks, 3 Armenians, and 2 Greeks.

Another Christian (a Catholic), Daud Pacha, heretofore governor-general of the Lebanon, was appointed Minister of Public Works, Telegraph, and Postal Departments. In his place, Franco Nassi Pacha, also a Catholic, was nominated by the Porte to be governor-general of the Lebanon. After three conferences between the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs and the representatives of the guaranteeing powers (Russia, France, England, Austria, and Prussia), this nomination was conformed by the latter. The protest of the Italian Government, against exclusion from a voice in Syrian affairs, at length availed to admit its minister to a share in this common act of the great powers.

In the spring the Government claimed to have discovered a wide-spread conspiracy of the "Young Turkey" party. It condemned twenty of them to exile for having, in the words of the accusation, formed part of a secret society. Zia Bey, the leader of the Young Turkey party, indignantly repudiated any connection of his party with an attempt against the life of the Sultan and his ministers. In a letter to the Paris *Etendard*, Zia Bey says: "The efforts of the Young Turkey party

are principally directed to the substitution of the will of the nation, that is to say, of the population of the empire, without distinction of race or religion, for the arbitrary power of a few individuals. Assassination is a means unworthy of the great cause we serve. We think less of changing men than institutions, and if the present ministers were to accede to the desire of the country in advising the Sultan to create a National Assembly, we should be the first to support them; we should bless the sovereign hand that had granted that inestimable benefit to the Ottoman empire. I repeat, sir, the Young Turkey party has no share in the conspiracy in question; but artifice and imposture must have had something to do with it. Requesting you to insert this letter, I have, etc."

The Young Turkey party, in 1868, started a second organ in London. The new journal, which is called the *Hurriyeté*, was edited by Zia Bey, ex-secretary to the Sultan, and was printed on thin paper to enable its subscribers to receive it in closed envelopes through the post. The *Mukhbir* also reduced its sheet with the same view, and thus largely defeated the prohibition against its entry into the empire. One of the editors of the latter journal, Osman Bey (F. Millingen), published a severe review of Turkish administrative history during the past six years, under the title of "*La Turquie sous le Règne d'Abdul-Aziz*."

In September, the Turkish Government issued a circular to all the legations, announcing the decision of the Sultan that, in future, the straits shall remain closed to all foreign men-of-war—while peace continues in Turkey—excepting only those which have on board sovereigns or chiefs of independent states. No allusion is made in the circular to the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi, of 26th June, 1833, whereby, in case of need, to be estimated by the Russian ambassador, Turkey bound herself to close the Dardanelles against the French and English fleets, while the Bosphorus was to be left open for the free entrance of the Russians.

The insurrection of the Christians in Candia against the Turkish rule continued throughout the year, and it was not until the last days of December that the leaders abandoned open resistance as being for the present useless (see CANDIA). Early in the year the Turkish Government published a so-called "Red Book" (the first book of the kind ever published by it), containing the diplomatic history of the Cretan War. Most of the documents contained in this book refer to the years 1866 and 1867, and an abstract of them has already been given in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

There are only two dispatches published which were written in the present year. The first, from Fuad Pacha to Hayder Effendi, minister at Vienna, dated January 3, 1868, on the subject of the Austrian recommendation, sup-

ported by England, to accept the inquiry in Crete proposed by Russia, France, Prussia, and Italy, with the saving clause that it should not involve any thing affecting the integrity of the empire, may be said to close, for the present, at all events, the diplomatic discussion of the Cretan question which was carried on so actively during a considerable part of the past year. It will be remembered that, after the identical note of the four powers, the policy of the French Government toward Turkey underwent a sudden and very striking change, and that France interpreted its adhesion to the note in a sense very different from that intended by its Russian framer, and which it was originally supposed to mean. With fresh support from so unexpected a quarter, the Porte was less inclined than ever to accede to any proposition bearing the aspect of an interference in favor of the Cretans, and Fuad Pacha begins his dispatch by referring to the passage in the Emperor Napoleon's speech in opening the Chambers, which intimated his desire for the maintenance of the integrity of the Ottoman empire. Therefore, it being no longer a question of the cession of Crete, as when M. Bourée made the proposition, in March, 1867 (this reminiscence is merely hinted at by Fuad Pacha), the only objects of an inquiry could be: 1. Into the causes of the insurrection; 2. Into its disastrous effects; and, 3. The means of repairing those effects; and Fuad Pacha contends that for those purposes an inquiry such as is proposed is entirely unnecessary. As to the causes of the insurrection, they are notorious:

"Who does not know that foreign excitations and the privilege accorded to a neighboring country, in spite of international law and treaty stipulations, to introduce munitions of war and armed bands into the island, produced, and have sustained, the insurrection? Its disastrous results are, unfortunately, too real, but their extent is fully known to the Government, which has made every effort to repair them by introducing a new and liberal administration, and by other measures, which have been received as a real benefaction by all the inhabitants who have been freed from the pressure of the foreign bands. To institute an inquiry by a mixed commission on the spot would upset all this work, embolden the disaffected, confuse the minds of all, and inculcate the idea that their safety did not depend upon the authority and initiative of the Imperial Government."

The last document in the collection is a dispatch to Photiades Bey, dated February 19th, forwarding for presentation to the Greek Cabinet a memorial signed by more than 500 Cretans, praying that their families, who had been removed to Greece, might be brought back again to Crete. Fuad Pacha says that the Porte will defray the expense of the reconveyance, and that, if any fresh difficulties are put in the way by the Greek Government

—which had hitherto denied that the families in question wished to return to Crete—"we shall be under the painful necessity of believing that the Hellenic Government wishes to put a sequestration on our own subjects." A copy of this dispatch and of the petition was also forwarded at the same time to the Turkish representatives at the different courts, accompanied, in the case of the English, French, and Russian courts, with a brief allusion to the distressed situation of the refugees who had been removed to Greece in foreign vessels.

The relations of Turkey with Greece were, on account of the open sympathy shown by Greece to the Cretan cause, of the most unfriendly character. (*See GREECE.*) The grievances against Greece, and the demands which the Turkish Government believed it had a right to make upon Greece, are summed up in an ultimatum, which the Turkish minister in Athens, Photiades Bey, addressed to the Greek Minister of Foreign Affairs, to which he demanded an answer within five days. The ultimatum closed as follows:

Consequently, in case the Government of King George should not take the formal engagement within five days—1, to disperse immediately the bands of Volunteers recently organized in different parts of the kingdom, and to prevent the formation of others; 2, to disarm the corsairs Enosis, Crete, and Panhellenion, or in any case to close the Greek ports to them; 3, to grant to the Cretan emigrants the authorization to return to their homes, and also to give them efficacious aid and protection; 4, to punish, in conformity with the laws, those men who have been guilty of aggressions on Ottoman soldiers and subjects, and to accord a just indemnity to the families of victims from these outrages; 5, to follow henceforth a line of conduct in conformity with existing treaties and international law—

The undersigned, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of the Sublime Porte, by order of his Majesty the Sultan, his august sovereign, regrets to inform the Minister of Foreign Affairs to his Hellenic Majesty, that the Ottoman legation at Athens and the consuls residing in Greece will immediately leave the territory of the kingdoms.

As a natural consequence of this declaration, the diplomatic and commercial relations between Turkey and Greece being interrupted, the Minister and members of the Hellenic legation and chancellery at Constantinople, and the Greek consuls in the Ottoman empire, will receive their passports.

The respective subjects of the two states must quit the country in which they are residing within a period of a fortnight from the day in which the rupture of relations has been notified, and entrance to the Ottoman ports will be forbidden to vessels bearing the Greek flag, from the same date.

I have the honor, etc., PHOTIADES BEY.

As the Greek Government refused to accept this ultimatum (*see GREECE*), war between the two countries seemed imminent. The Turkish Government ordered all its subjects, residing in Greece, to leave Turkey. A war-fleet was sent to the Archipelago, and a strong army to the southern frontier.

On the 10th of June, the reigning prince of Servia, Michael Obrenovitch, was assassinated in the park of Topschider, a valley near Belgrade. The prince, while walking leisurely, about 5 o'clock, was suddenly attacked by three assassins, who were armed with revolvers. He was

accompanied in his ramblings by his cousin and a daughter of the latter, together with his usual attendants. The assassins directed their fire promiscuously at the royal party. At the first shot the prince fell and expired immediately. The cousin of the prince was also hit and died in a few minutes afterward. The daughter received a severe flesh wound, but was not dangerously injured. One or two of the valets were also slightly wounded. The assassins were recognized as three brothers Radovanovitch. One was at once taken, while the others were captured on the following days, together with a number of other persons involved in the conspiracy. The chief instigator of the crime was supposed to be the former Prince of Servia, Alexander Karageorgevitch, at that time living in Hungary. The trial of the assassins took place on the 27th of June. On the 28th of June, one of the conspirators, Captain Marjailovitch, in whose house the copy of a proclamation was found calling on the youth of Belgrade to proclaim a republic, was shot. On the 6th of July, Captain Nenadovitch, brother-in-law of Prince Alexander Karageorgevitch, was executed for complicity in the murder. On the 27th of July, with the exception of one Jose Jeremich, who was sentenced to five years' imprisonment, and against whom no proof of complicity in the assassination was discovered at the trial, all the other accused persons who had been arrested, to the number of fourteen, were condemned to death. Prince Alexander Karageorgevitch, his secretary, and another, who had not been captured, were sentenced in default to twenty years' imprisonment, when apprehended. The execution of the condemned prisoners took place on the next day, the 28th of June. Among them were four brothers Radovanovitch (the three assassins and their brother Paul, who, at first, had in vain attempted to dissuade them from their design). Immediately after the death of Prince Michael, on the 11th of June, the Senate, in accordance with law, appointed a provisional regency, consisting of the president of the Senate, Parinovitch, the Minister of Justice and Keeper of the Seal, Leschianine, and the president of the Court of Cassation, Petrovitch. The regency addressed a manifesto to the Servian nation, recommending respect for law and order, and announcing the immediate election and convocation of a *Skuptschina*, or National Assembly. According to the law of August 17, 1867, this extraordinary assembly should consist of 542 deputies, sent by the thirteen circles or districts of the principality. The election for the *Skuptschina* was ordered to take place on the 22d of June, and the meeting on the 3d of July. Public opinion soon began to declare itself in favor of the young Prince Milan, a nephew of the late Prince Michael, who was studying in Paris. The result of the election, at which a

large vote was cast, and the greatest order and tranquillity prevailed, was favorable to Prince Milan. When the Skuptschina met according to appointment on the 2d of July, the election of Milan was proposed by the chief of the Provisional Government, and ratified by the Skuptschina by acclamation. The Skuptschina then elected a regency consisting of Colonel Molivoi Petrovich Blasnavatz, the Minister of War, Ristic, formerly agent of Servia at Constantinople, and a representative of the National Servian party, and Gavvilovich, who in 1861 was Minister of Finance, and now senator and head of a literary institution. The Skuptschina held altogether three sessions, and adopted the following resolutions: 1. At least one Skuptschina yearly shall be convoked until the coming of age of Prince Milan. 2. The authorities and officials appointed by Prince Michael shall continue to hold their posts. 3. A monument to the late Prince Michael shall be erected in the Topschider Park by popular contribution. 4. Efforts shall be made to develop the defensive strength of the country as speedily as possible, according to the plan proposed by the deceased prince. 5. Investigations shall be made into the state of the police in Belgrade, on account of its deficiency. 6. Every Servian shall be responsible for the life of Prince Milan. 7. The Government shall strictly observe the friendly relations with foreign powers cultivated by Prince Michael. 8. Prince Alexander Karageorgevitch and his descendants shall never be permitted to occupy the Servian throne.

The Skuptschina was closed on the 4th of July. On the same day the Council of Regency issued a proclamation declaring that it will observe the dictum of the late Prince Michael, "the law is the supreme will in Servia." The Council promises to develop the national military force in a manner conformable to the exigencies of the present time, to advance the material interests, and to improve the institutions of the country. It also promises that Skuptschinas shall be more frequently convoked, and every thing done to insure that prosperity to the country which is the result of peace and order. On the 5th of July, the solemn unction of Prince Milan, as sovereign of Servia, took place at the cathedral. On the 30th of July, the imperial firman of investiture for Prince Milan was delivered and promulgated. It referred to the firman of the year 1830, by which hereditary rights had been granted to the Obrenovitch family, and also to the law on primogeniture as established in favor of the younger as well as the elder branch of the national dynasty. After the firman had been read, the presiding member of the regency addressed Midhat Pacha, the bearer of the firman, and adverted to the reply given by the late Prince Michael on a similar occasion, adding, in the name of the young Prince Milan, that he would, like his predecessor, be constant in his

loyalty and devotion to his suzerain, and would zealously watch over the safety of the national institutions. The members of the regency desired Midhat Pacha to express their lively gratitude to the Sultan for his gracious compliance with the wishes of the Servian nation.

A constitutional change of importance took place in the semi-independent principality of Montenegro. On the 10th of April, Prince Nicholas convoked a sort of Constituent Assembly, charged to create a definitive organization, and to determine the position of the prince toward the country. After an ardent speech from the young Nicholas I., the Assembly constituted itself in the open air, and commenced its labors, the results of which were as follows: a special administration is charged with the care of the public treasures; it will pay the prince like all the other functionaries, for hitherto no distinction had been made between the public funds and the sovereign's privy purse. The civil list of the sovereign will be fixed by this national body. The administration of the Church will be entirely confided to the metropolitan, who will, also, exercise a certain influence over public instruction.

In the semi-independent principality of Rumania several gross excesses took place against the Jews. Diplomatic notes from several of the great powers urged the Government to adopt efficient measures for the protection of the Jews. Party spirit in this principality ran very high, and twice a new ministry was formed, in May, under the presidency of Nicholas Golesco, and, in November, under the presidency of Demetrius Ghika. On the 27th of August, in accordance with the new law on the organization of the army, Prince Charles issued a decree ordering the formation of an eighth regiment of infantry. Every regiment is in future to consist of three battalions. As a provisional arrangement, thirty battalions of militia were to be constituted. A large quantity of needle-guns, with which weapon the forces of the Principalities will in future be armed, were introduced from Prussia.

Several insurrectionary attempts were made in the province of Bulgaria. The most important was in July, when several armed bands, coming from Rumania, crossed the Danube at points between the Dobrudsha and Widdin. The chief leaders of the insurrection were Kutshuk Stefan, Hadji Demetri, and Kiatib Alexan. The Rumanian Government emphatically denied the charge of sympathizing with the insurrection, and its official organ, the *Official Journal Romanul*, of Bucharest, exhorted the inhabitants of Bulgaria to preserve tranquillity. The Turkish Government acted with great promptness. Medhat Pacha, formerly governor-general of the province, and now Grand Vizier, hastened to the seat of the disturbances at the head of a thousand picked troops, all armed with the Schneider rifle. Even before his arrival the insurgents had been

defeated in several engagements, and order was soon restored. The Government of Rumania was charged by the Government of both Turkey and Austria with fomenting disturbances within their territories, in particular in Bulgaria and among the Rumanians of Hungary and Transylvania. The Rumanian Government denied these charges. Referring to the Austrian Red Book, and the statements of

Count Beust and Count Andrassy, who accused Rumania of aiming at the annexation of Transylvania, one of the Rumanian ministers, in the Chamber of Deputies, declared that Rumania could not be indifferent to the sight of the oppression of the Rumanian inhabitants of Transylvania, and that if the Hungarian army was to be materially increased, the Rumanians were justified in adopting a similar measure.

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UNITARIANS. The *Year-book of the Unitarian Congregational Churches* for 1869 gives lists of 315 societies in the United States, and 383 ministers. In 1868, 1 bi-monthly, 2 monthly, 1 semi-monthly (Sunday-school), and 2 weekly periodicals were published in the United States, in the interest of Unitarianism. The number of "Associations of Liberal Christians," which chiefly consist of Unitarians and Universalists, increased, in 1868, from three to six (for further statistics, see *ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPEDIA* for 1867).

The receipts of the "American Unitarian Association" in Boston, the object of which is "to diffuse the knowledge and promote the interests of pure Christianity," for the year 1868, were \$91,765.21. Overtures of coöperation from the African Methodist Episcopal Church have been accepted by the Association. The points to which the coöperation is to be confined are: the circulation of reading-matter of various kinds, and the training of young men as teachers and preachers in the theological institutions of the African M. E. Church. The special direction of expenditure is to be in the hands of a joint committee, in which the two bodies will be equally represented.

The National Conference of the Unitarian Churches met in New York on the 7th of October. The following amendment was adopted as article ninth of the constitution:

To secure the largest unity of the Spirit and the widest practical coöperation, it is hereby understood that all the declarations of this Conference, including the preamble and constitution, are expressions only of its majority, committing in no degree those who object to them, and depend wholly for their effect upon the consent they command on their own merits from the churches here represented, or belonging within the circle of our fellowship.

The results of free preaching in theatres were reported upon favorably, and an extension of the plan of theatre meetings was recommended, with the hope expressed that they would culminate in new religious organizations and labors on a basis more broad than any now known. The action of the American Unitarian Association, in appropriating \$5,000 to aid the African Methodist Episcopal Church in the South, was commended. A committee was appointed to consult upon the establishment of a literary, scientific, and theological review. The churches in England were rep-

resented as not in as high social standing as was desirable, though they contained a few, but not enough, able and educated men. Resolutions were adopted of felicitation on the increasing intercourse between English and American churches and ministers, and in favor of establishing a permanent missionary church in Paris. Among the committee reports was one by the Committee on Denominational Literature, recommending the publication of an introduction to the Holy Scriptures, and a Commentary, a History of the Christian Church, and a Family Bible by competent scholars. The increase of churches (83, or about 30 per cent., since 1865) was noted as gratifying; but it was claimed that this did not adequately represent the growth of Unitarianism. \$27,591.70, \$3,136.70 above the pledges made at the preceding Conference, have been received for the endowment of the Theological School at Meadville, Pa., and \$22,150 for Antioch College. There were represented in the Conference 21 associations and conferences, and 175 churches.

The Sixth Annual Convention of the German Protestant League, an organization of German-American Unitarians, was held in Hamilton, Ohio, on June 3d. Resolutions were adopted to create a beneficiary fund for able students who are willing to take a thorough theological course in the Liberal University of Heidelberg, Germany; also pronouncing the publication of a Liberal Hymn-Book "an absolute necessity," and to publish a German Almanac and tracts. Five ministers were admitted to the League. This organization has a weekly organ, called *Protestantische Zeitblätter*.

In Great Britain and Ireland there are 332 Unitarian places of worship, and 337 ministers, of whom 274 are settled, and 63 not settled. The institutions for ministerial education are 5 in number. The societies publish 7 periodicals. The British and Foreign Unitarian Association has a capital of £5,539. The local societies are 12 in number. There are Sunday-schools with 3,467 teachers, and 21,917 scholars.

The Unitarian churches in Transylvania celebrated in August, 1868, their three hundredth anniversary, which was an occasion of great interest. They number 106 congregations, with 50,000 worshippers. They have

also a college and theological seminary at Causenburg, which is the seat of the Consistory. They have also two preparatory high-schools, and there are day-schools connected with each of the congregations. In these schools there are 5,000 students.

The Unitarians sustain a flourishing mission in British India. It was stated at the meeting of the National American Unitarian Conference by Rev. Mr. Dall, the founder of the mission, that the eleven years of his missionary labors among the Hindoos have produced encouraging results. Through preaching, schools, and the circulation of religious tracts and books, a broad and solid foundation has been laid upon which to build still greater success. The field over which he has travelled, and made himself acquainted with the condition and needs of the people, extends about 2,000 miles north and south, by 1,500 east and west. The calls for the writings of Channing, Clarke, and others, is constant; and the opportunities for access to the native mind call for increased exertions in strengthening the mission. Great reliance is placed upon the educational agency, for releasing the people from the bondage of ignorance and superstition. When he left Calcutta, ten schools and three chapels were established there. A collection of over \$2,500 for the benefit of this mission was taken up by the National Conference. The statistics of the Indian missions were, in 1868, reported as follows: *Calcutta*—schools and missions conducted by Rev. C. H. A. Dall, missionary of the American Unitarian Association; assisted by Dwarkanauth Singh. *Madras*—mission conducted by Rev. William Roberts; supported in part by the American Unitarian Association. *Salem*—school and mission under Joshua Anthony Paul; supported in part by the American Unitarian Association. *Secunderabad*—school and mission under V. Elisha; supported in part by the American Unitarian Association.

UNITED BRETHREN IN CHRIST. The church has five bishops. It supports 3 laborers in the foreign field (Africa), 99 in the frontier, and 140 in the home field; total, 242—an increase of 31. The missionaries receive \$67,389.94, an average salary of \$316.

The following periodicals are published in the interest of the church: *The Religious Telescope*, the *Children's Friend*, the *Missionary Visitor*, and the *Fraliche Botschafter* (German). The following are the names of the literary institutions: Otterbein University, Westerville, Ohio; Hartsville University, Hartsville, Ind.; Westfield College, Westfield, Ill.; Lebanon Valley College, Annville, Pa.; Lane University, Lecompton, Kansas; Western College, Western, Iowa. The church has also four seminaries.

A "United Brethren Historical Society" was organized, in 1868, in Lebanon, Pennsylvania. The second article of the constitution states the object of the society to be "to collect and

preserve information, manuscripts, documents, relics, paintings, portraits, books, pamphlets, medals, objects of curiosity, and any thing, whether ancient or modern, that relates to the origin of the aforesaid church, or any portion of its history."

The *Almanac of the United Brethren in Christ*, for the year 1869, publishes the following statistics of the denomination:

CONFERENCES.	Societies.	Members.	Itinerant Preachers.	Local Preachers.
East Pennsylvania.....	176	5,129	37	39
Pennsylvania.....	136	5,378	32	29
Alleghany.....	156	4,649	25	12
Virginia.....	172	4,043	23	16
Parkersburg.....	99	3,387	20	7
Western Reserve.....	112	2,662	25	32
Erie.....	98	1,849	33	16
Canada.....	44	1,101	11	7
Muskingum.....	82	3,119	20	13
Scioto.....	212	7,768	42	43
Sandusky.....	200	6,970	48	49
Auglaize.....	156	4,177	24	35
Miami.....	89	4,057	25	30
White River.....	182	5,407	32	41
Indiana.....	137	5,334	21	41
St. Joseph.....	155	4,064	38	34
Michigan.....	123	3,026	24	20
North Michigan.....	24	2,257	23	29
Upper Wabash.....	104	4,185	25	28
Lower Wabash.....	140	4,255	36	35
Central Illinois.....	195	2,568	31	13
Illinois.....	101	2,951	24	27
Rock River.....	76	1,943	27	21
Wisconsin.....	58	1,325	15	12
Fox River.....	27	461	8	7
Minnesota.....	27	635	8	12
North Iowa.....	66	1,381	20	13
Iowa.....	62	1,529	17	17
East Des Moines.....	90	1,900	22	20
West Des Moines.....	75	1,796	19	18
Ohio German.....	58	1,322	19	13
Tennessee.....	8	315	5	2
Kentucky.....	16	419	4	8
California.....	23	340	9	8
Oregon.....	44	982	12	10
Cascade.....	11	225	5	3
Missouri.....	125	2,625	22	24
Kansas.....	114	2,427	33	16
Total for 1868.....	3,663	108,122	864	783
Total for 1867.....	3,445	98,983	837	770
Increase.....	218	10,139	27	13

There are 2,268 Sunday-schools, with 16,057 teachers, and 106,002 scholars. The number of meeting-houses is 1,334, and of parsonages 25. The collections, etc., were as follows: Preachers' salaries, \$262,093; missions, \$29,150.73; conference collections, \$4,383.67; Sunday-school purposes, \$27,125.36; Bible cause, \$3,916.42; church expenses, \$191,284.43; publication fund, \$1,344.70; college fund, \$6,683.64; total for all purposes, \$525,681, an increase of \$106,961.88 from previous year.

UNITED STATES. The fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, which removed all distinction of color in citizenship, was fully adopted during the year. The number of States was thirty-seven, of which twenty-nine voted for the amendment. The Legislatures of Ohio and New Jersey passed resolutions respectively withdrawing their consent to the amendment. Without deciding the effect of these proceedings, the Secretary of State, as required by an act of Congress, announced, on July 28th, that if the resolutions

of Ohio and New Jersey were regarded as remaining in full force, the amendment had been adopted by three-fourths of the States, although the Constitution required only two-thirds to approve the same. (For the amendment and a list of the States ratifying the same, *see* p. 197.)

At the commencement of the session of Congress which began on December 7, 1867, the President sent to the Senate a statement of the reasons for his suspension of the Secretary of War (Stanton) from the duties of his office. This statement was required by the act of the previous Congress, to regulate removals from office, known as the "Tenure-of-Office" Act (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA, 1867, pp. 187 and 733). The Senate, after consideration of the message, refused to approve of the suspension, and it thereby became void. General Grant, who was discharging the duties of Secretary of War, immediately surrendered the office to Mr. Stanton, and he was thus fully reinstated on January 13th. At the same time General Grant addressed the following note to the President:

HEADQUARTERS ARMIES UNITED STATES, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., January 14, 1868. }

SIR: I have the honor to enclose herewith copy of official notice received by me last evening of the action of the Senate of the United States in the case of the suspension of Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War. According to the provisions of section 2, of "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," my functions as Secretary of War *ad interim* ceased from the moment of the receipt of the within notice. I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,
U. S. GRANT, General.
His Excellency A. JOHNSON, President of the United States.

A warm correspondence now ensued between President Johnson and General Grant, for which *see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

Subsequently, on February 21st, the President appointed Major-General Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General of the Army, to be Secretary of War *ad interim*, as follows:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 21, 1868. }

SIR: The Honorable Edwin M. Stanton having been removed from office as Secretary of the Department of War, you are hereby authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, and will immediately enter upon the discharge of the duties pertaining to that office. Mr. Stanton has been instructed to transfer to you all records, books, papers, and other public property intrusted to his charge.

Respectfully yours,

[Signed]

ANDREW JOHNSON.

To Brevet Major-General LORENZO THOMAS, Adjutant-General U. S. A.

At the same time that he ordered General Thomas to assume this position, he furnished him with an order to the following effect, of which, it seems, a copy was handed to the individual thereby affected:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 21, 1868. }

SIR: By virtue of power and authority vested in me as President by the Constitution and laws of the United States, you are hereby removed from office as Secretary of the Department of War, and your func-

tions as such will terminate upon the receipt of this communication.

You will transfer to Brevet Major-General Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General of the Army, who has this day been authorized and empowered to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, all records, books, papers, and other public property now in your custody and charge.

Respectfully, yours,

ANDREW JOHNSON, President.

To Hon. EDWIN M. STANTON, Washington, D. C.

General Thomas, on receiving his appointment, proceeded at once to the discharge of his duties. He went to the room occupied by Mr. Stanton, and exhibited to him his own letter of appointment, and the order dismissing Mr. Stanton from office. The latter, upon reading these documents, asked for time to remove his private papers, which was courteously granted to him by General Thomas.

During the morning the President sent a written message to the Senate, informing that body that, under the Constitution and laws, he had removed Edwin M. Stanton from the office of Secretary of War, and had appointed General Thomas to fill the position. The Senate very soon after the receipt of this message laid aside its regular order of business, viz., a bill to modify the reconstruction laws, and went into executive session, to consider the subject mentioned in the President's message. After a very excited debate, which lasted until a late hour in the evening, and after many different propositions had been presented, the following resolution was passed by very nearly a party vote, being a substitute offered by Mr. Wilson for a resolution proposed by Mr. Edmunds:

Whereas, the Senate have received and considered the communication of the President, stating that he had removed Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, and had designated the Adjutant-General of the Army to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*; therefore,

Resolved by the Senate of the United States, That, under the Constitution and laws of the United States, the President has no power to remove the Secretary of War and designate any other officer to perform the duties of that office.

At the same time that the Senate was thus engaged, Mr. Stanton addressed the following letter to the Speaker of the House, enclosing a copy of the order by which he was dismissed from office:

WAR DEPARTMENT, }
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 21, 1868. }

SIR: General Thomas has just delivered to me a copy of the enclosed order, which you will please communicate to the House of Representatives.

Your obedient servant,

EDWIN M. STANTON, Secretary of War.

Hon. SCHUYLER COLFAX, Speaker of the House of Representatives.

On the next day the President sent a communication to the Senate in explanation of his action (*see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS).

Meantime Mr. Stanton refused to vacate the office on the application of General Thomas, but made his arrangements to occupy night and day until the further action of Congress. He also made application to the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the District of Colum-

bia for the issue of a writ commanding the arrest of General Thomas for the following reasons:

And the said E. M. Stanton, on oath, further states that on the said 21st of February, 1868, in the city of Washington aforesaid, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, made and issued an order in writing, under his hand, with the intent and purpose of removing him, the said Edwin M. Stanton, from said office of Secretary for the Department of War, and authorizing and empowering Lorenzo Thomas, Adjutant-General of the Army of the United States, to act as Secretary of War *ad interim*, and directing him, the said Thomas, to immediately enter upon the discharge of the duties pertaining to that office; and your affiant further states that said pretended order of removal of him from the said office of Secretary for the Department of War is wholly illegal and void, and contrary to the express provisions of an act duly passed by the Congress of the United States on the 22d of March, 1867, entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices;" and your affiant, on oath, further states that the said Lorenzo Thomas did, on the said 21st day of February, 1868, in said city of Washington, accept the said pretended appointment of Secretary of War *ad interim*, and on the same day left with your affiant a copy of said pretended order of the President removing your affiant as Secretary of War and appointing the said Lorenzo Thomas Secretary of War *ad interim*, certified by the said Lorenzo Thomas, under his own hand, as Secretary of War *ad interim*; and on the same 21st day of February, in 1868, in the city of Washington aforesaid, the said Lorenzo Thomas delivered to your affiant the said pretended order of Andrew Johnson, with intent to cause your affiant to deliver to him, the said Thomas, all the records, books, papers, and other public property now in his, the affiant's, custody as Secretary of War; and your affiant further states, on oath, that he is informed and believes that the said Thomas has, in said city of Washington, exercised and attempted to exercise the duties of Secretary of War, and to issue orders as such; and your affiant is also informed and believes that the said Lorenzo Thomas gives out and threatens that he will forcibly remove your complainant from the building and apartments of Secretary of War in the War Department and forcibly take possession and control thereof, under his said pretended appointment, by the President of the United States, as Secretary of War *ad interim*; and your affiant alleges that the appointment under which the said Thomas claims to act and to hold and perform the duties of Secretary of War is wholly unauthorized and illegal, and that the said Thomas, by accepting such appointment and thereunder exercising and attempting to exercise the duties of Secretary of War, has violated the provisions of the fifth section of the act above referred to, and thereby has been guilty of a high misdemeanor and subjected himself to the pains and penalties prescribed in said fifth section against any person committing such offence. Thereupon your affiant prays that a warrant be issued against the said Lorenzo Thomas, and that he may be thereupon arrested and brought before your Honor, whereupon he may be dealt as to law and justice in such case appertains.

[Signed]

EDWIN M. STANTON.

Sworn and subscribed before me, the 21st day of February, A. D. 1868.

D. K. CARTER, Chief Justice.

General Thomas was arrested on the 22d, and was released on his own recognizance. On the same day, a resolution, impeaching the President for high crimes and misdemeanors, was offered in the House of Representatives and adopted (*see* page 138, and also IMPEACHMENT). The knowledge of these proceedings

created an unusual excitement throughout the country. The following dispatch from the Governor of Illinois was addressed to a member of the House, during the debate on the 22d of February:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL., February 22, 1868.

The usurpations of Andrew Johnson have created a profound sensation in the State. His last act is the act of a traitor. His treason must be checked. The duty of Congress seems plain. The people of Illinois attached to the Union, I firmly believe, will demand his impeachment, and will heartily sustain such action by our Congress. The peace of the country is not to be trifled with by that presumptuous demagogue. We know the national Congress will proceed wisely and cautiously, but let it proceed. Millions of loyal hearts are panting to stand by the stars and stripes. Have no fear; all will be well. Liberty and order will again triumph.

B. J. OGLESBY, Governor.

The following was sent on the same day from the Governor of Pennsylvania:

Hon. Simon Cameron, United States Senate, Washington, D. C.:

The news to-day has created a profound sensation in Pennsylvania. The spirit of 1861 seems again to pervade the Keystone State. Troops are rapidly tendering their services to sustain the laws. Let Congress stand firm.

JOHN W. GEARY.

Public meetings to sustain the President in his action were held in New York and Philadelphia, but were of little importance.

Upon the acquittal of the President, Mr. Stanton immediately addressed the following note to him:

WAR DEPARTMENT,
WASHINGTON CITY, May 26, 1868.

SIR: The resolution of the Senate of the United States of the 21st of February last, declaring that the President has no power to remove the Secretary of War and designate another officer to perform the duties of that office *ad interim*, having this day failed to be supported by two-thirds of the Senate present and voting upon the articles of impeachment preferred against you by the House of Representatives, I have relinquished charge of the War Department, and have left the same, and the books, archives, papers, and property in my custody, as Secretary of War, in care of Brevet Major-General Townsend, the senior Assistant Adjutant-General, subject to your direction.

EDWIN M. STANTON,
Secretary of War.

To the President,

Major-General John M. Schofield succeeded to the position of Secretary of War. His name was sent into the Senate by the President as in the place of "E. M. Stanton, removed." The following preamble and resolution were therefore adopted by the Senate:

Whereas, The order of the President removing Secretary Stanton from office was unconstitutional and illegal, but on account of Mr. Stanton having on Tuesday relinquished said office; therefore

Resolved, That the Senate do advise and consent to the appointment of General Schofield.

The act for the reconstruction of the Southern States, first passed by Congress, provided that the constitutions to be submitted to the people should be adopted by a majority of the voters as registered. It soon became evident that in no case would such a majority be given, and, in the session of 1867-'68, a supplemental

act was passed by Congress, that a majority of the votes cast should be sufficient for the adoption of such constitutions. Under this act, the States of Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina, ratified the constitutions respectively recommended by their conventions. Further acts were then passed recognizing these States as members of the Union. The States of Mississippi, Texas, and Virginia, failed to complete their reorganization during the year. A joint resolution was also passed by Congress, which excluded these three States from a vote in the presidential election which took place during the year.

The preparations for this election were early commenced. The National Committee of the Republican party issued their call for a convention to nominate candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency in February, and designated Chicago as the place and May 20th as the date for such convention. Each State in the United States was authorized to be represented in said convention by a number of delegates equal to twice the number of Senators and Representatives to which such State is entitled in Congress.

A call was also issued from an adjourned conference of Union soldiers and sailors for a convention of the same at Chicago on May 19th. Each State and each congressional district was entitled to twenty delegates in the convention.

The National Democratic Committee, on February 22d, issued a call for a National Democratic Convention to be held in New York on July 4th. The basis of representation was made the same as that for the Republican Convention. At the same time, a call was issued for a Soldiers and Sailors' Convention, to be held at the same place and time, "to advise and cooperate with the Democratic party in presenting to the nation a candidate for President."

On May 19th, the soldiers and sailors, after an imposing march through the streets, assembled in convention in Chicago, and organized by the appointment of John A. Logan, of Illinois, as president, who declined in favor of Governor Fairchild, of Wisconsin. The States of Rhode Island, New York, Massachusetts, Tennessee, New Hampshire, Delaware, Connecticut, New Jersey, Louisiana, California, Georgia, Vermont, Kentucky, West Virginia, Ohio, Arkansas, Mississippi, Maine, Nebraska, Missouri, Dakota, Alabama, and Illinois, were represented by large delegations.

The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the soldiers and sailors, steadfast as ever to the Union and its flag, fully recognize the claims of General U. S. Grant to the confidence of the American people, and, believing that the victories achieved under his guidance in war will be now illustrated by him in times of peace by such measures as shall secure the fruits of our exertions and a restoration of the Union upon a loyal basis, we declare it as our deliberate conviction that he is the choice of the soldiers and sailors of the Union for the office of President of the United States.

Resolved, That in the maintenance of those princi-

ples which underlie our Government, and for which we fought during four years of war, we pledge our earnest and active support to the Republican party as the only political organization which, in our judgment, is true to the principles of loyalty, liberty, and equality before the law.

Resolved, That, speaking for ourselves, and the soldiers and sailors who imperilled their lives to preserve the Union, we believe that the impeachment of Andrew Johnson by the House of Representatives for high crimes and misdemeanors in office, and his trial before the United States Senate, have presented no mistakable proofs of his guilt, and that, whatever may be the judgment of the tribunal before which he is arraigned, the verdict of the people is "guilty;" and we regard any Senator who has voted for acquittal as falling short of the proper discharge of his duty in this hour of the nation's trial, and unworthy of the confidence of a brave and loyal people.

Resolved, That the soldiers and sailors recognize no difference between native and adopted citizens, and they demand that the Government protect naturalized citizens abroad, as well as those of native birth.

The National Republican Convention assembled on the next day, May 20th, and organized by the appointment of Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut, as permanent president. On the next day the following declaration of principles was adopted:

1. We congratulate the country on the assured success of the reconstruction project of Congress, as evinced by the adoption in a majority of the States, lately in rebellion, of constitutions securing equal civil and political rights to all, and regard it as the duty of the Government to sustain those institutions, and to prevent the people of such States from being remitted to a state of anarchy.

2. The guarantee by Congress of equal suffrage to all loyal men at the South was demanded by every consideration of public safety, of gratitude, and of justice, and must be maintained, while the question of suffrage in all the loyal States properly belongs to the people of these States.

3. We denounce all forms of repudiation as a national crime, and the national honor requires the payment of the public indebtedness in the utmost good faith to all creditors at home and abroad; not only according to the letter, but the spirit of the law under which it was contracted.

4. It is due to the labor of the nation that taxation should be equalized and reduced as rapidly as national facility will admit.

5. The national debt, contracted as it has been for the preservation of the Union for all time to come, should be extended over a fair period for redemption, and it is the duty of Congress to reduce the rate of interest thereon whenever it can honestly be done.

6. That the best policy to diminish our burden of debt is to so improve our credit that capitalists will seek to loan us money at lower rates of interest than we now pay, and must continue to pay so long as repudiation, partial or total, open or covert, is threatened or suspected.

7. The Government of the United States should be administered with the strictest economy, and the corruptions which have been so shamefully nursed and fostered by Andrew Johnson call loudly for a radical reform.

8. We profoundly deplore the untimely and tragic death of Abraham Lincoln, and regret the accession of Andrew Johnson to the presidency, who has acted treacherously to the people who elected him and the cause he was pledged to support; has usurped high legislative and judicial functions; has refused to execute the laws; has used his high office to induce other officers to ignore and violate the laws; has employed his executive power to render insecure the

property, peace, liberty, and life of the citizens; has abused the pardoning power; has denounced the national Legislature as unconstitutional; has persistently and corruptly resisted, by every measure in his power, every proper attempt at the reconstruction of the States lately in rebellion; has perverted the public patronage into an engine of wholesale corruption, and has been justly impeached for high crimes and misdemeanors, and properly pronounced guilty thereof by the vote of thirty-five Senators.

9. The doctrine of Great Britain and other European powers, that because a man is once a subject he is always so, must be resisted at every hazard by the United States, as a relic of the feudal times not authorized by the law of nations, and at war with our national honor and independence. Naturalized citizens are entitled to be protected in all their rights of citizenship as though they were native-born, and no citizen of the United States, native or naturalized, must be liable to arrest and imprisonment by any foreign power for acts done or words spoken in this country, and if so arrested and imprisoned it is the duty of the Government to interfere in his behalf.

10. Of all who were faithful in the trials of the late war, there were none entitled to more special honor than the brave soldiers and seamen who endured the hardships of campaign and cruise, and imperilled their lives in the service of the country; the bounties and pensions provided by law for the brave defenders of the nation are obligations never to be forgotten; the widows and orphans of the gallant dead are the wards of the people—a sacred legacy bequeathed to the nation's protecting care.

11. Foreign emigration, which in the past has added so much to the wealth, development of resources, and increase of power to this nation, the asylum of the oppressed of all nations, should be fostered and encouraged by a liberal and just policy.

12. This Convention declares its sympathy with all oppressed people who are struggling for their rights.

Each State was then called, and General Ulysses S. Grant was unanimously nominated as the candidate for the presidency, having received 650 votes.

The nominations for candidate for the vice-presidency were: Benjamin Wade, of Ohio; Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana; Reuben E. Fenton, of New York; ex-Attorney-General Speed, of Kentucky; J. A. J. Creswell, of Maryland; A. G. Curtin, of Pennsylvania; James Harlan, of Iowa; W. D. Kelley, of Pennsylvania; Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine; and Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts. The ballots were as follows:

1. Wade, 149; Fenton, 132; Wilson, 119; Colfax, 118; Curtin, 52; Hamlin, 30; Speed, 22; Harlan, 16; Creswell, 14; Kelley, 6.

2. Wade, 170; Colfax, 149; Fenton, 140; Wilson, 113; Hamlin, 30; Curtin, 45.

3. Wade, 178; Colfax, 164; Fenton, 139; Wilson, 101; Curtin, 40; Hamlin, 25.

4. Wade, 204; Colfax, 186; Fenton, 144; Wilson, 87; Hamlin, 25.

5. Colfax, 224; Wade, 196; Fenton, 137; Wilson, 61; Hamlin, 19.

6. Colfax, 522; Fenton, 75; Wade, 42; Wilson, 11; by which Mr. Colfax was nominated.

On May 29th, General Grant wrote the following letter accepting the nomination:

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 29, 1868.

To General Joseph R. Hawley, President National Union Republican Convention:

In formally accepting the nomination of the "National Union Republican Convention" of the 21st of

May last, it seems proper that some statement of views, beyond the mere acceptance of the nomination, should be expressed.

The proceedings of the Convention were marked with wisdom, moderation, and patriotism, and, I believe, expressed the feelings of the great mass of those who sustained the country through its recent trials. I indorse their resolutions.

If elected to the office of President of the United States, it will be my endeavor to administer all the laws in good faith, with economy, and with the view of giving peace, quiet, and protection everywhere. In times like the present, it is impossible, or at least eminently improper, to lay down a policy to be adhered to, right or wrong. Through an administration of four years, new political issues, not foreseen, are constantly arising, the views of the public on old ones are constantly changing, and a purely administrative officer should always be left free to execute the will of the people. I always have respected that will, and always shall. Peace, and universal prosperity, its sequence, with economy of administration, will lighten the burden of taxation, while it constantly reduces the national debt. Let us have peace.

With great respect, your obedient servant,

U. S. GRANT.

Mr. Colfax also accepted his nomination in the following letter:

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 30, 1868.

Hon. J. R. Hawley, President National Union Republican Convention:

DEAR SIR: The platform adopted by the patriotic convention over which you presided, and the resolutions which so happily supplement it, so entirely agree with my views as to a just national policy, that my thanks are due to the delegates as much for this clear and auspicious declaration of principles as for the nomination with which I have been honored, and which I gratefully accept.

When a great rebellion, which imperilled the national existence, was at last overthrown, the duty, of all others, devolving on those intrusted with the responsibilities of legislation evidently was to require that the revolted States should be readmitted to participation in the Government against which they had warred only on such a basis as to increase and fortify, not to weaken or endanger, the strength and power of the nation. Certainly no one ought to have claimed that they should be readmitted under such rule that their organization as States could ever again be used, as at the opening of the war, to defy the national authority, or to destroy the national unity. This principle has been the pole-star of those who have inflexibly insisted on the congressional policy your convention has so cordially indorsed.

Baffled by Executive opposition, and by persistent refusals to accept any plan of reconstruction proffered by Congress, justice and public safety at last combined to teach us that only by an enlargement of suffrage in those States could the desired end be attained, and that it was even more safe to give the ballot to those who saved the Union than to those who had sought ineffectually to destroy it. The assured success of this legislation is being written on the adamant of history, and will be our triumphant vindication. More clearly, too, than ever before does the nation now recognize that the greatest glory of a republic is that it throws the shield of its protection over the humblest and weakest of its people, and vindicates the rights of the poor and the powerless as faithfully as those of the rich and the powerful.

I rejoice, too, in this connection, to find in your platform the frank and fearless avowal that naturalized citizens must be protected abroad at every hazard, as though they were native-born. Our whole people are foreigners, or descendants of foreigners. Our fathers established by arms their right to be called a nation. It remains for us to establish the right to welcome to our shores all who are willing,

by oath of allegiance, to become American citizens. Perpetual allegiance, as claimed abroad, is only another name for perpetual bondage, and would make all slaves to the soil where first they saw the light. Our national cemeteries prove how faithfully these oaths of fidelity to their adopted land have been sealed in the life-blood of thousands upon thousands.

Should we not, then, be faithless to the dead if we did not protect their living brethren in the full enjoyment of that nationality for which, side by side with the native-born, our soldiers of foreign birth laid down their lives?

It was fitting, too, that the representatives of a party which had proved so true to national duty in time of war should speak so clearly in time of peace for the maintenance, untarnished, of national honor, national credit, and good faith as regards its debt, the cost of our national existence.

I do not need to extend this reply by further comment on a platform which has elicited such hearty approval throughout the land.

The debt of gratitude it acknowledges to the brave men who saved the Union from destruction—the frank approval of amnesty based on repentance and loyalty—the demand for the most thorough economy and honesty in the Government—the sympathy of the party of liberty with all throughout the world who long for the liberty we here enjoy, and the recognition of the sublime principles of the Declaration of Independence, are worthy of the organization on whose banners they are to be written in the coming contest. Its past record cannot be blotted out or forgotten. If there had been no Republican party, slavery would to-day cast its baleful shadow over the republic. If there had been no Republican party, a free press and free speech would be as unknown, from the Potomac to the Rio Grande, as ten years ago. If the Republican party could have been stricken from existence when the banner of rebellion was unfurled, and when the response of “no coercion” was heard at the North, we would have had no nation to-day. But for the Republican party daring to risk the odium of tax and draft laws, our flag could not have been kept flying in the field till the long-hoped-for victory came. Without a Republican party, the civil rights bill, the guarantee of equality under the law to the humble and defenceless, as well as to the strong, would not be to-day upon our national statute-book.

With such inspirations from the past, and following the example of the founders of the Republic who called the victorious General of the Revolution to preside over the land his triumphs had saved from its enemies, I cannot doubt that our labors will be crowned with success; and, it will be a success that shall bring restored hopes, confidence, prosperity, and progress, South as well as North, West as well as East; and, above all, the blessings, under Providence, of national concord and peace.

Very truly, yours, SCHUYLER COLFAX.

On June 24th, a number of eminent gentlemen of New York addressed a letter to President Johnson, asking if he would allow his name to be presented to the Democratic Convention as a candidate for the office of President. On July 2d the President replied at some length, and in conclusion said:

I am now, however, as I have ever been, in the hands of the people, and at their disposal. My struggle for the Union and the integrity of the Government began long ago. Conscious of having honestly discharged my duty, and satisfied that the contest in which I have been compelled to engage will in the end, at least, inure to the benefit, and, indeed, safety of constitutional liberty and human rights, I can well afford, I think, to look calmly on the present, and await patiently the verdict of the future.

While I know that the struggle for the rights of the people and for deference to the Constitution is not yet over, yet believing that, with the late palpable failure to do violence to that great instrument and the Executive Office, the worst that faction can for the present do has been accomplished, I would only, in concluding this brief statement of my views and feelings, express the hope that, in the selection by the convention of a candidate for the presidency, whose duty it will be, if elected, to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution, and to execute the laws made in pursuance of its provisions, the public good, and leading and well-defined principles, will not be sacrificed to the mere purpose of party ascendancy.

The following letter also attracted considerable attention and brought the writer prominently forward as a candidate for the vice-presidency by a nomination of the Democratic Convention:

WASHINGTON, Tuesday, June 30, 1868.

Colonel James O. Broadhead:

DEAR COLONEL: In reply to your inquiries, I beg leave to say that I leave to you to determine, on consultation with my friends from Missouri, whether my name shall be presented to the Democratic Convention, and to submit the following, as what I consider the real and only issue in this contest.

The reconstruction policy of the radicals will be complete before the next election; the States, so long excluded, will have been admitted; negro suffrage established, and the carpet-baggers installed in their seats in both branches of Congress. There is no possibility of changing the political character of the Senate, even if the Democrats should elect their President and a majority of the popular branch of Congress. We cannot, therefore, undo the Radical plan of reconstruction by congressional action; the Senate will continue a bar to its repeal. Must we submit to it? How can it be overthrown? It can only be overthrown by the authority of the Executive, who is sworn to maintain the Constitution, and who will fail to do his duty if he allows the Constitution to perish under a series of congressional enactments, which are in palpable violation of its fundamental principles.

If the President, elected by the Democracy, enforces or permits others to enforce these reconstruction acts, the radicals, by the accession of twenty spurious Senators and fifty Representatives, will control both branches of Congress, and his administration will be as powerless as the present one of Mr. Johnson.

There is but one way to restore the Government and the Constitution, and that is for the President-elect to declare these acts null and void, compel the army to undo its usurpations at the South, disperse the carpet-bag State Governments, allow the white people to recognize their own governments and elect Senators and Representatives. The House of Representatives will contain a majority of Democrats from the North, and they will admit the Representatives elected by the white people of the South, and with the cooperation of the President it will not be difficult to compel the Senate to submit once more to the obligations of the Constitution. It will not be able to withstand the public judgment, if distinctly invoked and clearly expressed, on this fundamental issue, and it is the sure way to avoid all future strife to put this issue plainly to the country.

I repeat that this is the real and only question which we should allow to control us: Shall we submit to the usurpations by which the Government has been overthrown, or shall we exert ourselves for its full and complete restoration? It is idle to talk of bonds, greenbacks, gold, the public faith and the public credit. What can a Democratic President do in regard to any of these, with a Congress in both branches controlled by the carpet-baggers and their

allies? He will be powerless to stop the supplies by which idle negroes are organized into political clubs —by which an army is maintained to protect these vagabonds in their outrages upon the ballot. These, and all things like these, eat up the revenues and resources of the Government and destroy its credit, make the difference between gold and greenbacks. We must restore the Constitution before we can restore the finances, and to do this we must have a President who will execute the will of the people by trampling into dust the usurpations of Congress, known as the Reconstruction Acts. I wish to stand before the convention upon this issue, but it is one which embraces every thing else that is of value in its large and comprehensive results. It is the one thing that includes all that is worth a contest, and without it there is nothing that gives dignity, honor, and value to the struggle.

Your friend, FRANK P. BLAIR.

The National Democratic Convention assembled in New York on Saturday, July 4th, and organized temporarily by the appointment of Henry S. Palmer, of Wisconsin, chairman. The respective committees on credentials, organization, and platform were appointed, and the convention adjourned to Monday, the 6th. Every State was represented by a full list of Delegates.

On the 4th, the Soldiers and Sailors' Convention also assembled in New York, and organized by the appointment of Major-General William B. Franklin as president. At the meeting on the 6th the following were adopted:

Whereas, A mutual interchange of views between the members of this convention and delegates to the National Democratic Convention has fully confirmed us in our previously entertained opinion of the purity and the patriotism of that body, and fully justifies the belief that, in the election of candidates and in the construction of a platform, the convention will be governed by the spirit of the address adopted by this body on the 6th inst.; therefore, relying upon this belief,

Resolved, That we will support its nominees for President and Vice-President of the United States, and that on our return home we will induce our late comrades in arms to unite with us in yielding to them an earnest support.

After which, through a committee, the preamble and resolution, with an address, were laid before the Democratic convention and ordered to be spread on its minutes.

The National Democratic Convention again assembled on Monday, the 6th, and organized by the selection of Horatio Seymour, of New York, as permanent president, and one vice-president and secretary from each State in the Union.

At the session on the third day, the following resolutions were reported, and adopted as the platform of the convention:

The Democratic party, in National Convention assembled, reposing its trust in the intelligence, patriotism, and discriminating justice of the people, standing upon the Constitution as the foundation and limitation of the powers of the Government and the guarantee of the liberties of the citizen, and recognizing the questions of slavery and secession as having been settled for all time to come by the war or the voluntary action of the Southern States in constitutional conventions assembled, and never to be renewed or reargued, do with the return of peace demand—

1. Immediate restoration of all the States to their rights in the Union under the Constitution, and of civil government to the American people.

2. Amnesty for all past political offences, and the regulation of the elective franchise in their States by their citizens.

3. Payment of the public debt of the United States as rapidly as practicable, all money drawn from the people by taxation, except so much as is requisite for the necessities of the government economically administered, being honestly applied to such payment; and, where the obligations of the Government do not expressly state upon their face or the law under which they were issued does not provide that they shall be paid in coin, they ought in right and in justice be paid in the lawful money of the United States.

4. Equal taxation of every species of property, according to its real value, including Government bonds and other public securities.

5. One currency for the Government and the people, the laborer and the officeholder, the pensioner and the soldier, the producer and the bondholder.

6. Economy in the administration of the Government, the reduction of the standing army and navy, the abolition of the Freedmen's Bureau, and all political instrumentalities designed to secure negro supremacy, simplification of the system and discontinuance of inquisitorial modes of assessing and collecting internal revenue, so that the burden of taxation may be equalized and lessened, the credit of the Government increased, and the currency made good. The repeal of all enactments for calling the State militia into the national forces in time of peace, and a tariff for revenue upon foreign imports and such equal taxation under the internal revenue laws as will afford incidental protection to domestic manufactures, and as will, without impairing the revenue, impose the least burden upon and best promote and encourage the great industrial interests of the country.

7. Reform of abuses in administration, the expulsion of corrupt men from office, the abrogation of useless offices, the restoration of rightful authority to and the independence of the executive and judicial departments of the Government, and the subordination of the military to the civil power, to the end that the usurpations of Congress and the despotism of the sword may cease.

8. Equal rights and protection for naturalized and native-born citizens at home and abroad, the association of American nationality which shall command the respect of foreign powers and furnish an example and encouragement to people struggling for national integrity, constitutional liberty, and individual rights, and the maintenance of the rights of naturalized citizens against the absolute doctrine of immutable allegiance, and the claims of foreign powers to punish them for alleged crimes committed beyond their jurisdiction.

In demanding these measures and reforms we arraign the radical party for its disregard of right and the unparalleled oppression and tyranny which have marked its career. After the most solemn and unanimous pledge of both Houses of Congress to prosecute the war exclusively for the maintenance of the government and the preservation of the Union under the Constitution, it has repeatedly violated that most sacred pledge, under which alone was rallied that noble volunteer army which carried our flag to victory. Instead of restoring the Union, it has, so far as lay in its power, dissolved it, and subjected ten States in time of profound peace to military despotism and negro supremacy; it has nullified there the right of trial by jury; it has abolished the *habeas corpus*—the most sacred writ of liberty; it has overthrown the freedom of speech and of the press; it has substituted arbitrary seizures and arrests and military trials and secret star-chamber inquisitions for the constitutional tribunals; it has disregarded, in times of peace, the right of the people to be free from searches and seizures; it has entered the post and

telegraph offices, and even the private rooms of individuals, and seized their private papers and letters, without any specific charge or notice of affidavit, as required by the organic law; it has converted the American capital into a bastille; it has established a system of spies and official espionage to which no constitutional monarchies of Europe would dare to resort; it has abolished the right of appeal, on important constitutional questions, to the supreme judicial tribunal, and threatens to curtail or destroy its original jurisdiction which is irrevocably vested by the Constitution, while the learned Chief Justice has been subjected to the most atrocious calumnies merely because he would not prostitute his high office to the support of the false and partisan charges preferred against the President. Its corruption and extravagance have exceeded any thing known in history, and by its frauds and monopolies it has nearly doubled the burden of the debt created by the war. It has stripped the President of his constitutional power of appointment even of his own Cabinet. Under its repeated assaults, the pillars of the Government are rocking on their base, and, should it succeed in November next and inaugurate its President, we will meet as a subject and conquered people amid the ruins of liberty, and the scattered fragments of the Constitution.

And we do declare and resolve that, ever since the people of the United States threw off all subjection to the British crown, the privilege and trust of suffrage have belonged to the several States and have been granted, regulated, and controlled exclusively by the political power of each State respectively, and that any attempt by Congress, on any pretext whatever, to deprive any State of this right, or interfere with its exercise, is a flagrant usurpation of power which can find no warrant in the Constitution, and, if sanctioned by the people, will subvert our form of Government, and can only end in a single, centralized, and consolidated Government, in which the separate existence of the States will be entirely absorbed and an unqualified despotism be established, in place of federal union of coequal States, and that we regard the reconstruction acts, so called, of Congress as such a usurpation and unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void. That our soldiers and sailors who carried the flag of our country to victory against a most gallant and determined foe must ever be gratefully remembered, and all the guarantees given in their favor must be faithfully carried into execution.

That the public lands should be distributed as widely as possible among the people, and should be disposed of either under the preemption or homestead law, or sold in reasonable quantities, and to none but actual occupants, at the minimum price established by the Government. When grants of the public lands may be deemed necessary for the encouragement of important public improvements, the proceeds of the sale of such lands, and not the lands themselves, should be so applied.

That the President of the United States, Andrew Johnson, in exercising the powers of his high office in resisting the aggressions of Congress upon the constitutional rights of the States and the people, is entitled to the gratitude of the whole American people, and in behalf of the Democratic party we tender him our thanks for his patriotic efforts in that regard.

Upon this platform the Democratic party appeals to every patriot, including all the conservative element and all who desire to support the Constitution, and restore the Union, forgetting all past difference of opinion, to unite with us in the present great struggle for the liberties of the people; and to all such, to whatever party they may have heretofore belonged, we extend the right hand of fellowship, and hail all such cooperating with us as friends and brethren.

The following persons were then put in nomination for the presidency, before the convention: James E. English, of Connecticut;

George H. Pendleton, of Ohio; Winfield Scott Hancock, of Pennsylvania; Joel Parker, of New Jersey; Sanford E. Church, of New York; Asa Packer, of Pennsylvania; Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee; James R. Doolittle, of Wisconsin; Frank P. Blair, of Missouri; Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana; Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland; and votes were given for General Ewing, of Ohio, and John Q. Adams, of Massachusetts. Subsequently, other names were proposed, and votes cast, as will be seen by reference to the balloting. During the fourth ballot, the name of Mr. Seymour, the chairman, was proposed, when he said: "I trust I may be permitted now to make a single remark. Very much to my surprise, my name has been mentioned. I must not be nominated by this convention, as I could not accept its nomination if tendered, which I do not expect. My own inclinations prompted me to decline at the outset; my honor compels me to do so now. I am grateful for any expression of kindness. It must be distinctly understood, it is impossible, consistently with my position, to allow my name to be mentioned in this convention against my protest. The clerk will proceed with the call."

On the fifth day of the session the twenty-first ballot was taken, and thus far the ballots were as follows:

CANDIDATES.	1st	2d	3d	4th	5th	6th	7th
Pendleton.....	105	104	119½	118½	122	122½	137½
Andrew Johnson.	65	52	34½	32	24	21	12½
Hancock.....	33½	40½	45½	43½	46	47	42½
Church.....	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Packer.....	26	26	26	26	27	27	26
Joel Parker.....	13	15½	13	13	13	13	7
English.....	16	12½	7½	7½	7	6	6
Doolittle.....	13	12½	12	12	15	12	17
Reverdy Johnson.	8½	8	11	8	9½
Hendricks.....	2½	2	9½	11½	19½	30	34½
F. P. Blair Jr....	½	10½	4½	2	..	5	½
Ewing.....	..	½	1	1
Horatio Seymour.	9
J. Q. Adams.....	1
	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	13th	14th
Pendleton.....	156½	144	147½	144½	145½	134½	130
Andrew Johnson.	6	5½	6	5½	4½	4½	..
Hancock.....	28	34½	34	33½	30	48½	56
Packer.....	26	26½	27½	26	26	26	26
Joel Parker.....	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
English.....	6	6
Doolittle.....	12	12	12	12½	12½	13	13
Reverdy Johnson.
Hendricks.....	75	80½	82½	88	89	81	84½
F. P. Blair, Jr....	½	½	½	½	½	½	..
McClellan.....	1
Chase.....	½	½	..
Franklin Pierce..	1	..
	15th	16th	17th	18th	19th	20th	21st
Pendleton.....	129½	107½	56½
Andrew Johnson.	5½	5½	6	10	5
Hancock.....	79½	113½	137½	144½	135½	142½	135½
Packer.....	22
Parker.....	7	7	7	3½
English.....	6	16	19	..
Doolittle.....	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Hendricks.....	82½	70½	80	87	107½	121	132
F. P. Blair, Jr....	13½	13
McClellan.....	½
Chase.....	½	..	½	..	4
Hoffman.....	3	3
S. J. Field.....	15	9	8
T. H. Seymour....	4	2
Horatio Seymour.	317

On taking the twenty-second ballot, when the State of Ohio was called, General McCook rose and said :

I rise at the unanimous request and demand of the delegation from Ohio and with the assent and approval of every public man in that State, including the Hon. George H. Pendleton, to again put into nomination against his inclination, but no longer against his honor, the name of Horatio Seymour, of New York. (Great and continued cheering, many of the delegates rising and standing on the seats and waving their hats in a most enthusiastic and frantic manner.) Let us vote, Mr. Chairman and gentlemen of the convention, for that man whom the presidency has sought and who has not sought the presidency. I believe in my heart that it is the solution of the problem which has been taxing the mind of the democratic and conservative men of this nation for the last six months. I believe it will be a solution which will drive from power the vandals who now possess the capital of the nation. I believe it will receive unanimous assent and approval from the great belt of States from the Atlantic—New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, and west of the Pacific Ocean. I say he has not sought the presidency, and I ask, not demand, but ask that the convention shall demand of him that, burying his own inclinations and the well-known desires of his heart, he shall yield to what we believe to be almost the unanimous wish and desire of the delegates of this convention.

A report of the proceedings at this time is as follows: "The wildest enthusiasm prevailed throughout the building as the Ohio delegate closed his remarks, casting the vote of his State for Mr. Seymour. All business was for a time suspended, and cheer after cheer arose from the body of the hall, caught up and echoed and reëchoed by the crowded gallery. Delegates rose in their seats, stood upon the benches, and waved hats, fans, and handkerchiefs. This demonstration also was imitated by the galleries, the whole mass of spectators standing up and joining in the enthusiasm which greeted Mr. McCook's nomination of Horatio Seymour. The noise and uproar, occasioned by this demonstration, only ceased when the object of it came forward to the rostrum and signified, by a wave of his hand and a silent appeal, that he desired to be heard." Order being thus restored, Mr. Seymour said :

Gentlemen of the convention, the motion just made by the gentleman from Ohio excites in my mind the most mingled emotions, so that I have no terms in which to express my gratitude for the magnanimity of his State and the generosity of the convention. I have no terms in which to tell of my regret that my name has been brought before this convention a second time. God knows that my life and all that is mine I would give for the good of my country, which I believe to be identical with its greatness. I do not stand here as a man proud in his position or obstinate in his purposes; but this is a question of duty and honor, and I must stand upon my own convictions against the world. When I said here, at an early day, that honor forbade my acceptance of that nomination, I meant it. When, in the course of my intercourse with those of my own delegation and friends, I said that I could not be a candidate, I meant it. Permit me to say that now, after all that has taken place, I could not be nominated without placing myself and the great Democratic party of the nation in a false position; but more than that, we have had to-day an exhibition from a distin-

guished citizen of Ohio that has touched my heart as it has touched yours. I thank God and I congratulate this country that there is in the great State of Ohio—whose magnificent position gives it so great a control over the action of the country—a young man rising fast into fame, whose future is all-glorious, who has told the world that he can trample under foot every other consideration than that of his duty, and when he expressed to his delegation, expressed in the most direct terms that he was willing I should be nominated—when he stood in such a position, when he entered upon such an honorable pathway, I should feel myself a dishonored man if I could not tread in a feeble way the honorable pathway he has marked out. Gentlemen of the convention, I thank you, and may God bless you for your kindness to me, but your candidate I cannot be.

The delegates from Ohio insisted on their nomination; those from New York acceded to it, and the entire vote of the convention, 317 votes, was cast for Horatio Seymour, of New York. Frank P. Blair of Missouri was nominated for vice-president.

There is one event, connected with this convention, so singular—the single event of the kind in American politics—as to claim special notice. It will be seen that, on several ballotings, votes were cast for Chief-Justice Chase. Except for a short time when the Democratic party, in Ohio, took ground on the slavery question substantially the same as his own, Mr. Chase had been for many years prominent in leadership of opposing organizations. The Democratic party, as is well known from its history, is usually very tenacious in requiring a record of unswerving party allegiance from those whom they select as candidates. Yet these votes for Mr. Chase, when cast, not only did not excite any unfavorable comment in the convention, but, on the contrary, drew from the audience enthusiastic demonstrations of applause and approval. The few votes thus cast are no indication of the real strength of Mr. Chase in the convention. A very large proportion of the delegates were ready to cast their ballots for him, awaiting with anxiety to see his name formally presented, first, by some one of the Northern Democratic States. The movement in favor of Mr. Chase's nomination had been going on for some months, growing rapidly in strength, until, at the time of the meeting of the convention, the sentiment of the party in New York City and Brooklyn had become almost unanimous in his favor. Upon a test vote in the delegation of the State of New York, all the delegates from New York City save one, and all the Brooklyn delegates save one, voted for the selection of Mr. Chase as New York's candidate. The movement did not originate with Mr. Chase or with his personal friends in either party; it developed itself strongly in the ranks of the Democratic party shortly after the impeachment trial. Under the pressure of this popular sentiment it became the duty of party leaders to seek Mr. Chase and ascertain how far an agreement in political sentiment existed between him and

the Democratic party. It was well known that, of old, he had agreed with that party on nearly all, if not all, important questions save those connected with slavery, and was Democratic in his principles and general sympathies. He had favored the independent treasury. He had, as Governor of Ohio, been a warm defender of constitutional State rights.

In reply to verbal overtures Mr. Chase was explicit that he could not, for the sake of nomination, sacrifice any of the political doctrines to which he had hitherto adhered. The growing importance of the movement at last induced the chairman of the Democratic National Committee to address to the Chief Justice a formal letter, asking from him an expression of views on the prominent questions of the day, and this with express reference to his possible nomination by the party. To this Mr. Chase replied, on the 30th of May, by a letter, from which the following are extracts:

For more than a quarter of a century I have been in my political views and sentiments a Democrat, and I still think that, upon questions of finance, commerce, and administration generally, the old Democratic principles afford the best guidance. What separated me, in former times, from both parties was the depth and positiveness of my convictions on the slavery question. On that question I thought the Democratic party failed to make a just application of Democratic principles, and regarded myself as more Democratic than the Democrats.

In 1849 I was elected to the Senate by the united votes of the old-line Democrats and the independent Democrats, and subsequently made earnest efforts to bring about a union of all Democrats on the ground of the limitation of slavery to the States in which it then existed and non-intervention in those States by Congress. Had that union been effected, it is my firm belief that the country would have escaped the late civil war and all its evils. I never favored interference by Congress with slavery in the States, but, as a war measure, Mr. Lincoln's proclamation of emancipation had my hearty assent, and I united, as a member of his administration, in the pledge made to maintain the freedom of the enfranchised people. I have been, and am, in favor of so much of the reconstruction policy of Congress as based the reorganization of the State governments in the South upon universal suffrage. I think that President Johnson was right in regarding the Southern States, except Virginia and Tennessee, as being, at the close of the war, without governments which the United States Government could properly recognize—without governors, judges, legislators, or other State functionaries—but wrong in limiting, by his reconstruction proclamations, the right of suffrage to whites, and only such whites as had the qualifications he required. On the other hand, it seemed to me, Congress was right in not limiting, by its reconstruction acts, the right of suffrage to the whites; but wrong in the exclusion from suffrage of certain classes of citizens, and of all unable to take a prescribed retrospective oath, and wrong also in the establishment of arbitrary military governments for the States, and in authorizing military commissions for the trial of civilians in time of peace. There should have been as little military government as possible; no military commissions; no classes excluded from suffrage; and no oath except one of faithful obedience and support to the Constitution and laws, and sincere attachment to the constitutional Government of the United States. I am glad to know that many intelligent Southern Democrats agree with me in these views, and are willing to accept universal suffrage

and universal amnesty as the basis of reconstruction and restoration. They see that the shortest way to revived prosperity, possible only with contented industry, is universal suffrage now, and universal amnesty, with removal of all disabilities as speedily as possible through the action of the State and national Governments. I have long been a believer in the wisdom and justice of securing the right of suffrage to all citizens by State constitutions and legislation. It is the best guaranty of the stability of institutions and the prosperity of communities. My views on this subject were well known when the Democrats elected me to the Senate in 1849. I have now answered your letter as I think I ought to answer it. I beg you to believe me—for I say it in all sincerity—that I do not desire the office of President nor a nomination for it. Nor do I know that, with my views and convictions, I am a suitable candidate for any party. Of that my countrymen must judge.

This letter was of course shown to several influential Democrats, and there is little doubt that its outspoken expressions in some points lessened the chances of Mr. Chase's nomination. A few days before the assembling of the convention, at an interview sought for the purpose, by and in behalf of Democrats who desired his nomination, the subject of the possible agreement of the party and himself in a declaration of principles was discussed, and the Chief Justice expressed his willingness to accept a nomination upon the following platform, which was found to be acceptable to many of the delegates and to other prominent men in the party:

1. The American Democracy, reposing their trust, under God, in the intelligence, the patriotism, and the discriminating justice of the American people, declare their fixed adhesion to the great principles of equal rights and exact justice for all men and all States, and their purpose to apply them, within constitutional limits, to all questions which, in the varying exigencies of public affairs, may demand consideration and solution.

2. We congratulate each other and the whole people upon the auspicious return of peace after protracted civil war, and, offering our most earnest thanks to the brave soldiers of the Union, whose heroic courage, patient endurance, and self-sacrificing patriotism have preserved for us an undivided country, we discard from our hearts every sentiment, save good-will, toward those who, having been brave enemies in war, now return to their duties as citizens of the United States. We welcome them to a noble rivalry in earnest efforts to surpass each other in mutual affection and common devotion to that Union whose symbol once more floats in glory and honor over all our land.

3. That slavery, having perished by the war, and being now prohibited by an amendment of the National Constitution, neither can nor ought to be restored; while a wise regard to the altered circumstances of the country, and impartial justice to the millions who have been enfranchised, demand the adoption of proper constitutional measures for the protection, improvement, and elevation of this portion of the American people.

4. That, in a land of democratic institutions, all public and private interests repose most securely on the broadest basis of suffrage; but, under the system of distinct, though united, States, which distinguishes our American Government from the consolidated governments of the Old World, both wisdom and duty require that the application of this principle be left in the several States, under the Constitution of the United States, to the people of

each State, without interference by the national Government.

5. That public security is endangered, and the public prosperity arrested, by the unwise and unjust disfranchisement imposed on the people of the Southern States by recent legislation; the best guarantees of perfect peace, increasing wealth, and beneficent government in those States will be found in complete and universal amnesty, and the speediest possible removal of all civil and political disabilities.

6. That we have observed with alarm the growing tendency to the centralization and consolidation of all the powers of the national Government in the Legislative department, and are constrained to oppose to it a determined resistance. It is of the first importance that every department of the Government, whether legislative, judicial, or executive, be maintained in its full constitutional authority, without encroachment by either upon the other. Unconstitutional and usurped control of the other departments by the Legislature must result not only in the destruction of the checks and balances of the Constitution, but ultimately in the subjugation of the Senate, in the subversion of the States, and in the overthrow of the Union.

7. That we earnestly condemn the establishment and continuance of military government in the States, and especially the trial of citizens by military commissions, as unnecessary, unwise, and inconsistent with the fundamental principles of civil liberty. Neither military governments, nor military commissions for the trial of civilians in time of peace, can be tolerated by a free people resolved to maintain free institutions.

8. That the maintenance of great armies and navies in time of peace imposes heavy burdens on industry, and is dangerous to liberty. We insist, therefore, on the reduction of our army and navy to the smallest numbers consistent with due efficiency, and upon the withdrawal from the Southern States of all military force not absolutely necessary for the support of the civil authority.

9. That no fears need be entertained of evil consequences from the extension of the area of the United States; while, therefore, we have neither the purpose nor the wish to impose our institutions by force upon any people, we shall welcome the accession to the American Union of neighbor States whenever they are willing to come in and can be received without breach of international obligations.

10. That the full weight of American assertion and influence should be given to the doctrine that the citizens and subjects of all civilized States have the right to choose in what country and under what government they will live; and we especially insist that all American citizens, whether native or naturalized, shall be promptly and efficiently protected by the National Government, in every part of the world, against the oppression and injustice of all governments whatever.

11. That in our judgment the conduct of our Indian affairs has been marked by great corruption, and needs to be thoroughly reformed. To protect the remnants of the powerful tribes, which once possessed this broad land, in their decay and weakness, is the plain duty of the powerful nation which has succeeded them.

12. That labor is the true source of all wealth, and the men of labor are not only the real authors of the material well being, but the best defenders of the honor and interests of the country; it is, therefore, not less the dictate of wise policy than of sound principles that the rights of labor be fully maintained, and every possible opportunity of individual improvement secured, by just laws, to the workingmen of the country.

13. That honor and duty alike require the honest payment of the public debt and the faithful performance of all public obligations; but we do not admit that creditors, more than other men, are entitled to

special favor in the interpretation of the laws by which their rights and the public duties are determined. The interpretation of laws, in cases of conflicting interests, belongs to the courts.

14. That it is the duty of Congress to arrest all wasteful expenditures; to alleviate the burdens of taxation by wise distribution; to reduce and remove, as far as practicable, those which bear especially upon labor, and to prevent, by wise laws, mismanagement, fraud, and corruption, in the collection of the revenue; and it is equally the duty of every branch of the Government to enforce and practice the most rigid economy in the conduct of our public affairs.

15. That we invite and welcome the coöperation of all patriotic citizens who are willing to unite with us in our determination to maintain the union of the States, the rights of the States, and the rights of citizens; to arrest the progress of consolidation and the arbitrary exercise of military power; and to bring back to the Government economical, vigorous, and beneficial administration, and to the States and to the people peace, progress, and prosperity.

This platform, as will be seen, was not adopted by the convention; one was accepted by that body which differed from this in some important points. Nevertheless, the movement in favor of Mr. Chase's nomination went on, and the very morning of the actual nomination of Mr. Seymour a private caucus of the New York delegation was held, at which, on motion of Mr. Seymour, it was resolved that the delegation should present the name of Mr. Chase. This resolution was carried by a vote of thirty-seven yeas to twenty-four nays. Before an opportunity occurred to present his name formally in obedience to this resolution, the unanimous nomination of Mr. Seymour was carried at the instance of the Ohio delegates. If Mr. Seymour had not been nominated, there might still have been serious differences as to Mr. Chase, arising from the platform; for a Democratic friend of his in New York had received from the Chief Justice a letter, written for the information of members of the convention, after the platform had been telegraphed to Washington, which letter expressed dissent from the declarations concerning reconstruction, and declined commitment on any questions of constitutional law not already settled by the Supreme Court.

On August 4th, Mr. Seymour addressed a long letter to the committee of the convention, accepting the nomination. On this subject he said:

GENTLEMEN: When in the city of New York, on the 11th of July, in the presence of a vast multitude, on behalf of the National Democratic Convention, you tendered to me its unanimous nomination as their candidate for the office of President of the United States, I stated I had no words adequate to express my gratitude for the good-will and kindness which that body had shown to me. Its nomination was unsought and unexpected. It was my ambition to take an active part—from which I am now excluded—in the great struggle going on for the restoration of good government, of peace and prosperity to our country. But I have been caught up by the overwhelming tide which is bearing the country on to a great political change, and I find myself unable to resist its pressure.

You have also given me a copy of the resolutions

put forth by the convention, showing its position upon all the great questions which now agitate the country. As the presiding officer of that convention, I am familiar with their scope and import. As one of its members, I am a party to their terms. They are in accord with my views, and I stand upon them in the canvass upon which we are now entering, and I shall strive to carry them out in the future, wherever I may be placed, in political or private life.

I have stated that I would send you these words of acceptance in a letter, as is the customary form. I see no reason, upon reflection, to change or qualify the terms of my approval of the resolutions of the convention. I have delayed the mere formal act of committing to you in writing what I thus publicly said, for the purpose of seeing what light the action of Congress would throw upon the interests of the country. Its acts since the adjournment of the convention show an alarm lest a change of political power will give to the people what they ought to have—a clear statement of what has been done with the money drawn from them during the past eight years.

The remainder of the letter presented forcible objections to the measures and policy of the Republican party.

Mr. Frank P. Blair, the nominee for the vice-presidency, in a letter dated July 13th, accepted the nomination. He said:

I accept without hesitation the nomination tendered in a manner so gratifying, and give you and the committee my thanks for the very kind and complimentary language in which you have conveyed to me the decision of the convention.

I have carefully read the resolutions adopted by the convention, and most cordially concur in every principle and sentiment they announce.

My opinions upon all of the questions which discriminate the great contending parties have been freely expressed on all suitable occasions, and I do not deem it necessary at this time to reiterate them.

The issues upon which the contest turns are clear, and cannot be obscured or distorted by the sophistries of our adversaries. They all resolve themselves into the old and ever-renewing struggle of a few men to absorb the political power of the nation. This effort, under every conceivable name and disguise, has always characterized the opponents of the Democratic party, but at no time has the attempt assumed a shape so open and daring as in this contest. The adversaries of free and constitutional government, in defiance of the express language of the Constitution, have erected a military despotism in ten of the States of the Union, have taken from the President the powers vested in him by the supreme law, and have deprived the Supreme Court of its jurisdiction. The right of trial by jury, and the great writ of right, the *habeas corpus*—shields of safety for every citizen, and which have descended to us from the earliest traditions of our ancestors, and which our Revolutionary fathers sought to secure to their posterity forever in the fundamental charter of our liberties—have been ruthlessly trampled under foot by the fragment of a Congress. Whole States and communities of people of our own race have been attainted, convicted, condemned, and deprived of their rights as citizens, without presentment, or trial, or witnesses, but by congressional enactment of *ex post facto* laws, and in defiance of the constitutional prohibition denying even to a full and legal Congress the authority to pass any bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law. The same usurping authority has substituted as electors in place of the men of our own race, thus illegally attainted and disfranchised, a host of ignorant negroes, who are supported in idleness with the public money, and combined together to strip the white race of their birthright, through the management of Freedmen's Bureaus and the emissaries of conspirators in other States; and, to

complete the oppression, the military power of the nation has been placed at their disposal, in order to make this barbarism supreme.

The military leader under whose prestige this usurping Congress has taken refuge since the condemnation of their schemes by the free people of the North in the elections of the last year, and whom they have selected as their candidate to shield themselves from the result of their own wickedness and crime, has announced his acceptance of the nomination, and his willingness to maintain their usurpations over eight millions of white people at the South, fixed to the earth with his bayonets. He exclaims: "Let us have peace." "Peace reigns in Warsaw," was the announcement which heralded the doom of the liberties of a nation. "The empire is peace," exclaimed Bonaparte, when freedom and its defenders expired under the sharp edge of his sword. The peace to which Grant invites us is the peace of despotism and death. * * * * *

A convention of colored men of the States of Maryland, New Jersey, Missouri, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Virginia, assembled in Baltimore, on August 5th, and passed resolutions approving of the nomination at Chicago, and insisting that the colored men should be enfranchised in all the States.

The result of the elections for State officers, held in the months of September and October, especially in the States of Maine, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, were so unfavorable to the Democratic party, that it was openly demanded, in one of their important newspapers in New York City, that Mr. Seymour should withdraw and the committee of the convention designate another candidate. This proposition was met by such a storm of indignation as to arouse the party to extreme efforts. Addresses of encouragement were made by the National Democratic Committee, and by the New York State Committee. Mr. Seymour came forward to address the people in Buffalo, Detroit, Chicago, Indianapolis, Columbus, O., and elsewhere. The following dispatch from President Johnson was also made public:

EXECUTIVE MANSION, }
WASHINGTON, October 22, 1868. }

Hon. Horatio Seymour:

I see it announced in the papers of this morning, that you will enter the presidential canvass in person. I trust this may be so, as the present position of public affairs justifies and demands it. It is hoped and believed by your friends that all enemies to constitutional government, whether secret or avowed, will not be spared, and that their arbitrament and unjust usurpation, together with their wasteful, profligate, and corrupt use of the people's treasure, will be signally exposed and rebuked. The masses of the people should be aroused and warned against the encroachments of despotic power, now ready to enter the citadel of liberty. I trust that you may speak with an inspired tongue, and that your voice may penetrate every just and patriotic breast throughout the land. Let the living principles of the violated Constitution be proclaimed and restored, that peace, prosperity, and fraternal feeling may return to our divided and oppressed nation.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

The election took place on the Tuesday after the first Monday of November, which was November 3.

The result was as follows:

STATES.	1868.			1864.			1860.			
	Republican Grant.	Democrat. Seymour.	Republic. Majority.	Republican Lincoln.	Democrat. McClellan.	Republic. Majority.	Republican Lincoln.	Democrat. Douglas.	Democrat. Breck.	Union. Bell.
Alabama.....	76,366	72,098	4,280	13,651	48,831	27,825
Arkansas.....	23,152	19,078	3,074	5,237	28,732	20,094
California.....	54,592	54,078	514	58,698	42,255	16,443	39,173	38,516	34,334	6,817
Connecticut.....	50,641	47,600	3,041	44,691	42,285	2,406	43,692	15,522	14,641	3,291
Delaware.....	7,623	10,980	*3,357	8,155	8,767	*612	3,815	1,023	7,347	3,864
Florida (by Legislature)	367	8,543	5,437
Georgia.....	57,134	102,822	*45,688	11,590	51,889	42,886
Illinois.....	250,293	199,143	51,150	189,496	158,730	30,766	172,161	160,215	2,404	3,913
Indiana.....	176,552	166,980	9,572	150,238	130,233	20,005	139,033	115,509	12,295	5,306
Iowa.....	120,399	74,040	46,359	89,075	49,596	39,479	70,409	55,111	1,048	1,763
Kansas.....	31,049	14,019	17,030	16,441	3,691	12,750
Kentucky.....	39,566	115,889	*76,323	26,592	61,478	*34,866	1,364	25,651	53,143	66,058
Louisiana.....	33,263	80,225	*46,962	7,625	22,681	20,204
Maine.....	70,426	42,396	28,030	61,803	44,211	17,592	62,811	26,693	6,368	2,046
Maryland.....	30,438	62,357	*31,919	40,153	32,739	7,414	2,294	5,966	42,482	41,760
Massachusetts.....	136,477	59,408	77,069	126,742	48,745	77,997	106,533	34,372	5,399	22,331
Michigan.....	128,550	97,069	31,418	85,352	67,370	17,982	88,480	65,057	805	405
Minnesota.....	43,542	28,072	15,470	25,060	17,375	7,685	22,069	11,920	748	62
Mississippi (no vote)...	3,283	40,797	25,040
Missouri.....	85,671	59,788	25,883	71,676	31,626	40,050	17,028	58,801	31,317	58,372
Nebraska.....	9,729	5,439	4,290
Nevada.....	6,480	5,218	1,262	9,826	6,594	3,232
New Hampshire.....	38,191	31,224	6,967	36,400	32,871	3,529	37,519	25,881	2,112	441
New Jersey.....	80,121	83,001	*2,880	60,723	68,024	*7,301	58,324	62,801
New York.....	419,883	429,883	*10,000	368,735	361,986	6,749	362,646	312,510
North Carolina.....	96,226	84,000	12,136	2,701	48,529	44,990
Ohio.....	280,128	238,700	41,428	264,975	205,557	59,418	231,610	187,232	11,405	12,194
Oregon.....	10,961	11,125	*164	9,888	8,457	1,431	5,270	3,951	3,006	188
Pennsylvania.....	342,280	313,352	28,928	296,391	276,316	20,075	268,030	16,765	178,871	12,776
Rhode Island.....	12,993	6,548	6,444	13,692	8,470	5,222	12,244	7,707
South Carolina.....	62,301	45,237	17,064	Electors	chosen	by Leg- islate
Tennessee.....	56,757	26,311	30,446	11,350	64,709	69,274
Texas (no vote).....	47,548	15,438
Vermont.....	44,167	12,045	32,122	42,419	13,321	29,098	33,808	6,849	218	1,969
Virginia (no vote).....	1,929	16,290	74,323	74,681
West Virginia.....	29,025	20,306	8,719	23,152	10,438	12,714
Wisconsin.....	108,857	84,710	24,147	83,458	65,884	17,574	86,110	65,021	888	161
Total.....	3,012,833	2,703,249	309,684	2,263,831	1,797,019	406,812	1,866,452	1,375,157	847,953	590,630

Three States, Mississippi, Virginia, and Texas, gave no vote for President. The whole number of votes given was 5,716,082, and the majority of General U. S. Grant, 309,684.

Two amnesty proclamations were issued by President Johnson during the year. By the first, all persons were pardoned except those under presentment or indictment in any court of the United States having competent jurisdiction. It was as follows:

Whereas, in the month of July, A. D. 1861, in accepting the condition of civil war, which was brought about by insurrection and rebellion in several of the States which constitute the United States, the two Houses of Congress did solemnly declare that the war was not waged on the part of the Government in any spirit of oppression, nor for any purpose of conquest or subjugation, nor for any purpose of overthrowing or interfering with the rights or established institutions of the States, but only to defend and maintain the supremacy of the Constitution of the United States, and to preserve the Union with all the dignity, equality, and rights of the several States unimpaired; and that, so soon as these objects should be accomplished, the war on the part of the Government should cease;

And *whereas* the President of the United States has heretofore, in the spirit of that declaration, and with the view of securing for it ultimate and complete effect, set forth several proclamations, offering amnesty and pardon to persons who had been or were concerned in the aforesaid rebellion, which proclamations, however, were attended with prudential reservations and exceptions then deemed necessary and proper, and which proclamations were respectively issued on the 8th day of December, 1863, on the 26th day of March, 1864, on the 29th day of May, 1865, and on the 7th day of September, 1867;

And *whereas* the said lamentable civil war has long since altogether ceased, with an acknowledged guarantee to all the States of the supremacy of the Federal Constitution and the Government thereunder; and there no longer exists any reasonable ground to apprehend a renewal of the said civil war, or any foreign interference, or any unlawful resistance by any portion of the people of any of the States to the Constitution and laws of the United States;

And *whereas*, it is desirable to reduce the standing army, and to bring to a speedy termination military occupation, martial law, military tribunals, abridgment of freedom of speech and of the press, and suspension of the privilege of *habeas corpus*, and the right of trial by jury—such encroachments upon our free institutions in times of peace being dangerous to public liberty, incompatible with the individual rights of the citizens, contrary to the genius and spirit of our republican form of government, and exhaustive of the national resources;

And *whereas*, it is believed that amnesty and pardon will tend to secure a complete and universal establishment and prevalence of municipal law and order, in conformity with the Constitution of the United States, and to remove all appearances or presumptions of a retaliatory or vindictive policy on the part of the Government, attended by unnecessary disqualifications, pains, penalties, confiscations, and disfranchisements; and, on the contrary, to promote and procure complete fraternal reconciliation among the whole people, with due submission to the Constitution and laws;

Now, therefore, be it known that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, do, by virtue of the Constitution and in the name of the people of the United States, hereby proclaim and declare, unconditionally and without reservation, to all and to every person who directly or indirectly participated in the late insurrection or rebellion, excepting such person or persons as may be under presentment or indictment in any court of the United States having com-

petent jurisdiction, upon a charge of treason or other felony, a full pardon and amnesty for the offence of treason against the United States, or of adhering to their enemies during the late civil war, with restoration of all rights of property, except as to slaves, and except also as to any property of which any person may have been legally divested under the laws of the United States.

In testimony whereof I have signed these presents with my hand, and have caused the seal of the United States to be hereunto affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, the fourth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight, and of the Independence of the United States of America the ninety-third. ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

WILLIAM H. SEWARD, Secretary of State.

The second proclamation, issued on December 25th, declared, unconditionally and without reservation, a full pardon and amnesty to all and every person who participated in the late insurrection, etc. It was as follows:

Whereas, The President of the United States has heretofore set forth several proclamations offering amnesty and pardon to persons who had been or were concerned in the late rebellion against the lawful authority of the Government of the United States, which proclamations were severally issued on the 8th day of December, 1863, on the 6th day of March, 1864, on the 29th day of May, 1865, on the 7th day of September, 1867, and on the 4th day of July in the present year; and,

Whereas, The authority of the Federal Government having been reestablished in all the States and Territories within the jurisdiction of the United States, it is believed that such prudential reservations and exceptions, as at the dates of said several proclamations were deemed necessary and proper, may now be wisely and justly relinquished, and that a universal amnesty and pardon, for participation in said rebellion, extended to all who have borne any part therein, will tend to secure permanent peace, order, and prosperity throughout the land, and to renew and fully restore confidence and fraternal feeling among the whole people, and their respect for and attachment to the national Government, designed by its patriotic founders for the general good:

Now, therefore, be it known, that I, Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, by virtue of the power and authority in me vested by the Constitution, and in the name of the sovereign people of the United States, do hereby proclaim and declare unconditionally and without reservation, to all and to every person who directly or indirectly participated in the late insurrection or rebellion, a full pardon and amnesty for the offence of treason against the United States, or of adhering to their enemies during the late civil war, with restoration of all rights, privileges, and immunities under the Constitution and the laws which have been made in pursuance thereof.

In testimony whereof I have signed these presents with my hand, and have caused the seal of the United States to be hereunto affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, the twenty-fifth day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight, and of the Independence of the United States of America the ninety-third. ANDREW JOHNSON.

By the President:

F. W. SEWARD, Acting Secretary of State.

At the approach of the trial of the impeachment of the President, Mr. Stanbery resigned his position as Attorney-General, and was succeeded by William M. Evarts, of New York.

For the financial condition of the United States, see the article FINANCES, etc. Some re-

duction was made in the revenue of the Government by an act of Congress passed March 31st, which repealed sections ninety-four and ninety-five of the internal revenue act of 1864. The effect of this was to exempt certain manufactures from taxation. A proposition to issue Government notes (greenbacks), in payment of a large amount of the outstanding bonds, was extensively discussed, but without any decisive result.

Certain further amendments to the Constitution were proposed by President Johnson in a message to Congress, for which see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

The foreign relations of the country are presented under the title of DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE, and in the President's Message of December, 1868, for which see PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. For the Military and Naval affairs of the country, see ARMY and NAVY, respectively; and for the progress of reconstruction of the Southern States, see CONGRESS, and those States, respectively.

UNIVERSALISTS. The following statistics of Universalism in the United States have been collected from the *Universalist Register* for 1869:

SYNODS.	Associations.	Societies.	Ministers.
Maine	6	94	40
New Hampshire	3	35	16
Vermont	5	57	37
Massachusetts	6	115	115
Rhode Island	6	6
Connecticut	3	15	14
New York	16	168	112
New Jersey	6	2
Pennsylvania	6	19	19
Maryland	2	2
District of Columbia	1	2
Delaware	1	1
Virginia	2	1
Georgia	6	5
Alabama	2	2
North Carolina	3	1
South Carolina	2	2
Florida	1	..
Mississippi	1	1
Louisiana	1
Texas	7
Colorado	1
Missouri	1	..	11
West Virginia	1
Tennessee	1	1
Kentucky	1	..	10
Ohio	14	112	47
Michigan	4	22	16
Indiana	6	25	18
Illinois	6	33	42
Wisconsin	3	19	19
Minnesota	11	6
Iowa	3	27	22
Kansas	5
Nebraska	1
California	2
Total	83	792	568

Thirty new societies were organized in 1868. Missionary societies are connected with several of the State conventions. There are also several Sunday-school unions, and the New York Convention has a relief fund of \$30,000.

The Canton Theological School, at Canton, St. Lawrence county, N. Y., has assets amounting to \$67,000, and is in successful operation.

There are three colleges and universities

(Tufts College, Worcester, Mass.; St. Lawrence University, Canton, N. Y., and Lombard University, Galesburg, Ill.), and eight academies and seminaries, under Universalist control.

The number of Universalist periodicals was twelve, of which one was quarterly, two monthlies, and two juveniles.

The Annual General Convention of Universalists of the United States met at Providence, Rhode Island, on the 15th of September. The Board for the Northwestern Conference reported progress in missionary work, in aid of needy societies, the support of students of the Theological School, the publication of tracts, and the prospective establishment of a Theological and of a Denominational School. The aggregate general contribution of the churches, aside from those for ordinary local purposes, were, so far as reported, \$255,774.54. The reports, however, were very incomplete. Resolutions recognizing a call for a general spiritual awakening, and recommending conference and prayer meetings wherever practicable, were adopted. An expression was made of warning against receiving ministers in any of the churches from other sections of the country, without satisfactory guarantees of character and worthiness. As the year 1870 will be the centenary year of the establishment of the first Universalist Society in the United States, by the Rev. John Murray, at Gloucester, Mass., it was decided to hold the session of the convention at that place; also to honor the last Sunday of November of that year with services appropriate to the anniversary; and to raise a fund, to be called the Murray Centenary

Fund, to be invested for missionary purposes. The convention arranged for the more complete and accurate collection of statistics.

Two societies and two meeting-houses are reported in Nova Scotia, two societies in New Brunswick, an association with three societies and two pastors in Canada West, and one minister in Canada East.

URUGUAY ("The Oriental Republic of Uruguay"), a republic in South America.* Provisional President, since March, 1868, Colonel Lorenzo Battle. Area, 66,716 square miles; population, in 1860, according to an official census, 240,965; in 1864, according to a circular from the Minister of the Interior, 350,000, among whom were 150,000 foreigners. The army was composed, in 1864, as follows: garrison of the capital, 1,800; garrison in the provinces, 1,500; national guard, 20,000.

On the 9th of February a revolution broke out against the administration of President Venancio Flores. It was headed by the President's own sons, Fortunato, Eduardo, and Segnado Flores. The President, with the aid of the foreign vessels at Montevideo, succeeded in suppressing the revolt, but a few days later, on the 15th of February, resigned his office. New disturbances broke out on the 19th of February, during which Venancio Flores was assassinated. The disturbances were, however, promptly suppressed, and the murderers of Flores executed. On the 1st of March, the General Assembly, by a unanimous vote, elected Colonel Lorenzo Battle, Minister of War, President for four years, with a dotation of \$18,000 per annum.

V

VASSAR, MATTHEW, the founder of Vassar College, born in East Dereham, Tuddenham Parish, county of Norfolk, England, April 29, 1792; died, June 23, 1868, at the college, near Poughkeepsie, N. Y. He emigrated with his family to the United States, in 1796, and made his home at Wappinger's Creek, near Poughkeepsie. His father engaged in the brewing business and was, for a time, successful. But misfortunes soon came upon the family, the brewery was burned, and his elder and only brother accidentally killed; and, after some ineffectual efforts to recover himself, the father subsided into a small farmer in the outskirts of Poughkeepsie. Young Vassar now commenced business to aid his father's family, and beginning on a small scale the manufacture of ale, and delivering it in person to his customers, he soon found his business increase to such an extent as to warrant his going into the manufacture on a large scale. He continued in this business till 1866, more than fifty years. As his fortune began to assume great proportions, he was solicitous (having no children) to do some good with it, and finally decided upon

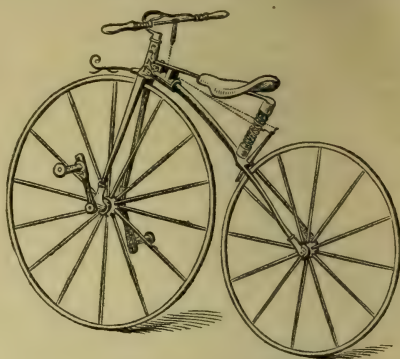
founding a college for women, where they could have advantages for education fully equal to those offered to the other sex. He spent some years in perfecting his plans, and obtained in January, 1861, a charter for the Vassar College, and, in February of the same year, conveyed to a Board of Trustees bonds and securities of the cash value of \$408,000 for the purposes of the college. He expressed at the same time his views and plans for its growth and development. The grounds on which it was to be built were an additional gift, and the buildings erected form a most magnificent monument to his liberality and desire for the promotion of education. He subsequently made further gifts to the college, which was opened in 1865, and after his death it was found that he had made bequests for its endowment, repair, and furnishing, which increased his previous donations to an aggregate of more than \$800,000. He died very suddenly, while addressing the Trustees at the anniversary of its opening.

* For the latest commercial and shipping statistics, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1867.

VAUGHAN, REV. ROBERT, D. D., an English clergyman, editor, and historian, born in 1795; died in London, June 20, 1868. He was educated for the ministry at Bristol College, was for six years pastor at Worcester, and was subsequently settled as minister of the Independent chapel, at Kensington. Soon after the organization of the London University, he was appointed Professor of Ancient and Modern History in that institution. In 1843, on the removal of the Independent College from Blackburn to Manchester, he was elected its president, and for fifteen years also filled the chair of Professor of Theology. In 1857 he resigned on account of failing health. In 1844 he founded the *British Quarterly Review*, of which he continued to be the editor until 1867, when he retired from it, and a purse was made up for him in testimony of his great services to literature and religion in its management. During all this period he was a diligent student and a careful and laborious writer on historical subjects. His principal works are: "Life and Opinions of John de Wycliffe, D. D.," 2 vols., 1828; "John de Wycliffe, a Monograph, with some Account of the Wycliffe MSS.," 1853, a revision of the preceding; "Memorials of the Stuart Dynasty," 2 vols., 8vo, 1831; "Causes of the Corruption of Christianity," 8vo, 1834; "Thoughts on the Past and Present Religious Parties in England," 12mo, 1838; "The Protectorate of Oliver Cromwell," 2 vols., 8vo, 1838; "History of England under the House of Stuart," 2 vols., 8vo, 1840; "History of Revolutions in England," in 3 vols., 1859-1861-1863; "Memorial of English Non-Conformity: a Treatise on Ritualism and Family Prayers," 1865; besides several smaller works. His "History of Revolutions" was his most elaborate work, and he had devoted many years to its preparation. At the time of his death, he was pastor at Torquay, to which place he had removed in 1867.

VELOCIPEDE, THE. Within the last few months, the velocipede, introduced from Paris, has in this country attracted much attention. The original French machine has been improved in design and detail. Patent upon patent has been issued, and there is hardly now a city in which there are not schools to teach velocipede riding, and courses and races for prizes. There are velocipedes of one, two, three, and four wheels, driven by foot-cranks, hand-cranks, by gears, by straps, or, like the Rantoonne of three wheels, a sort of spike arrangement of wheels, with cranks on the double-wheeled axle actuated by either hands or feet, or by both—the steering being done by a gear arrangement in one of the handles, and turning the leading wheel. But the velocipede *par excellence*, or the French one, is a two-wheeled machine, a bicycle, as shown in the cut, in which motion is given by the feet working cranks on the forward axle, and guidance and stability secured by the handle controlling the front wheel. Few, however old,

but can recollect velocipedes, as machines or playthings of their childhood, and even two-wheeled velocipedes similar in general appearance to the present machines. The propulsion



THE "PICKERING."

was not by a crank, but by the toes touching the ground. The wheels supported the weight of the body, and with very little fatigue the legs were able to accomplish the work of propelling the machine. In the *Engineer and Architect's Journal*, some twenty-five years ago, appeared a design for a horse-velocipede for railroads, in which the animal could be supported in slings attached to a car, with his legs just touching the ground. These two-wheeled man-velocipedes were sometimes made very light, some eighteen to twenty pounds, and on good flat roads as many as thirteen miles have been run in an hour; but these machines have been briefly popular, and only the three-wheeled plaything for children has kept a permanent position. In 1830, M. Dreuze, a public postal functionary in France, got up a two-wheeled machine, in which the feet did not touch the ground, but communicated the motion directly to the axles of the wheels, and stability and direction were given by the arms. M. Dreuze distributed these machines among the postmen of the rural districts, and it was expected that they would be able to go their rounds with greater dispatch, and much less fatigue, but the winter came with its snow and ice, and the velocipedes were laid up, and made no further public appearance until about the time of the last Paris Exposition, when they were again resuscitated, became a fashion, and spread through the provinces. Courses were set up, with the usual accompaniments of horse-racing, purses and betting.

The average length of the courses are one thousand eight hundred metres, nearly a mile and a furlong. At Enghein this distance was traversed in four minutes and twenty-five seconds by a velocipede with two wheels, and six minutes and twenty-eight seconds by a three-wheeled velocipede.

Greater speed was attained at St. Cloud, when the course of two thousand four hundred metres, almost equivalent to a mile and a half,

was traversed in four minutes and fifty seconds; whereas the final race at Vincennes over a level course of three thousand six hundred mètres—twenty yards short of two miles—was accomplished in nine minutes and ten seconds. But at these races prizes are not given for speed alone; they are also accorded to those who occupy the longest time in traversing a specified distance, a far more difficult performance than accomplishing a mile in a few minutes, because, when going at a snail's pace, it is almost impossible to preserve the proper balance, and horse and rider are usually both capsize. In a contest of this character at Vincennes, over a course of some one hundred and sixty yards in length, out of six experienced amateurs who started, only one succeeded in reaching the goal.

There are match races for all distances from one mile to one hundred. A couple of amateurs, making a tour through a part of France, challenged each other as to which could perform the greatest distance within four-and-twenty hours. One went eighty-seven miles, and then gave out, and the other one hundred and twenty-five miles. Also a party of nine left Ronen in the morning and arrived in Paris in time for dinner the same evening, having traversed the distance of eighty-five miles at a rate of speed averaging between ten and eleven miles an hour.

In this country, owing to the lateness of the season at which velocipedes were introduced, there was no out-door racing during the year.

VENEZUELA, a republic in South America. President, at the beginning of the year, Marshal Juan Crisostomo Falcon (since March 18, 1865); after the successful revolution of August, 1863, General José Tadeo Monagas, who died November 18, 1868. Area, 368,235 square miles; population, in 1858, about 1,565,000. Insurrectionary movements against the administration of President Falcon were going on at the beginning of the year 1868. General M. A. Rojas, at the head of the revolutionary troops, approached Carácas and threatened an attack. He was induced to accept the treaty of Antimano, May 10th, which gave him the command-in-chief of the army, and retained General Bruzual at the head of the government until such time as Congress should meet for an election of President. Bruzual collected troops at Carácas, and committing such acts as forfeited the treaty of Antimano, the army abandoned M. A. Rojas, and recognized General Rufo Rojas as their chief.

General Monagas, late President of the republic, and one of the heroes of its independence, formed an army in the eastern States about 2,500 strong, and issued a proclamation declaring that he had no other personal aspiration than that the last days of his life should be spent in behalf of the liberty of his country and its institutions, in upholding the rights of its citizens, and the constitution such as it is, and to free them from the power of despotic and

arbitrary chiefs. Carácas was taken after a fearful battle, June 26th, and a new ministry created by General Monagas, one of their number, elected by themselves, acting as President until the next meeting of Congress. The adherents of Falcon concentrated at Puerto Cabello, which surrendered to Monagas on the 15th of August. The only place of importance which still held out against Monagas was Maracaibo, which did not surrender until October. On the 4th of October the election of a President took place, which resulted in the election of General José Tadeo Monagas. The new President died on the 18th of November. A new provisional President would be elected by Congress; in the mean while, General Pulgar acted as President.

A large grant of land has been made to Dr. H. M. Price, and others, as representatives of the chartered American, English, and Venezuela Trading and Commercial Company, with a view to secure the colonization of all vacant lands in the State of Guayana, and the district of Amazonas. The terms of the concession, which are set forth in a volume issued by the company, are highly favorable—the company is to enjoy the exclusive right to all mineral and vegetable products found on the land, and various privileges in the shape of exemption from import and export duties, by which salt, iron, machinery, etc., can be taken in free, and cotton and tobacco exported; the company will likewise have the right to establish factories, and construct the necessary railroads, telegraphs, and canals, while the immigrants are to be secured perfect freedom of religion, of press, and of speech, and to possess the right of being represented in Congress, according to the census, which is to be taken every five years.

VERMONT. This State has well sustained its character for enterprise and general good order during the past year. The amount of money spent in carrying on the government was \$682,993.95, while \$709,548.96 were received into the public Treasury. The State set out at the beginning of the fiscal year, in September, 1867, with a balance in the Treasury of \$44,813.48, and closed the year in September, 1868, with a balance of \$71,368.48. The balance still unadjusted on the war claim of the State against the Federal Government amounts to \$207,222.23. The present funded indebtedness of Vermont is \$1,168,000, which shows a reduction during the year of \$230,000. The aggregate indebtedness of all the towns and cities in the State is \$1,999,198, nearly one-half of which exists in the two counties of Bennington and Windsor.

The State expends about \$500,000 for the support of her free public schools, which are attended by fifty thousand children, while the whole number of children in the State, of school age, is 76,000. At the University of Vermont, and State Agricultural College, not more than 175 students have been in attendance during the past year, and the number of

graduates has not exceeded 40. The number of convicts in the State Prison, during the year, was 72 males and 4 females, who were supported at an expense of \$13,219. This exceeded the income of the prison by \$6,413. This state of things is expected to continue so long as the present contract for labor lasts, which expires in 1871. The buildings of the Reform School have been enlarged and improved at a cost of \$2,000, and the current expenses of the institution have amounted to \$10,513, while the earnings of the boys in the shops have been \$1,779. The produce of the farm reached the value of \$2,965, and was principally used in support of the school. At the close of the year, this institution had sixty-nine boys under its charge, twelve of whom were placed out in good situations, to remain during good behavior.

The Republicans of Vermont held a convention at Rutland, on the 18th of March, to choose delegates to the National Convention at Chicago, and published the principles which formed the basis of the policy of the party. The platform was as follows:

Resolved, That we still believe in the self-evident truth that all men are created equal, and that this truth only finds its just interpretation and its perfect expression in constitutions and laws which guarantee to every person equal civil and political rights.

Resolved, That we recognize in General Ulysses S. Grant a soldier whose brilliant record in war has received additional lustre by his firm, steady, frank love of justice, freedom and truth in his administration of military affairs, and his obedience to the laws in time of peace; and a statesman whose wisdom, moderation, sound judgment, and steadfast adherence to the principles of constitutional liberty, have stood as a rock upon which the blandishments and buffets of traitors, whether in power or not, have poured in vain. We best give expression to what is in the heart of every Republican in Vermont in joining our voice to the common acclaim which names this soldier and statesman as our leader in the next presidential campaign. With him as Chief Magistrate, the Republic will once more triumph over its enemies, and order and peace will bring their blessings to this disturbed land.

Resolved, That we approve the action of Congress in respect to impeachment, and earnestly call upon the Senate of the United States, sitting as a court of impeachment, to proceed without fear, favor, or affection, and we assure them that the people of Vermont will stand by and maintain the just judgment of the law.

Resolved, That we hail the result of the labors of our Republican brethren in New Hampshire in their late political contest as the harbinger of the overwhelming defeat which awaits our enemies in the coming presidential campaign.

The nominations for State officers were: for Governor, John P. Page; for Lieutenant-Governor, Stephen Thomas; for Treasurer, John A. Page; for Representatives in Congress: 1st District, Charles W. Willard; 2d District, Luke P. Poland; 3d District, Worthington C. Smith.

The Democratic Convention met at Montpelier on the 17th of July, and nominated John L. Edwards for Governor. Resolutions were adopted approving the nominations and platform of the National Convention at New York.

The election took place on the 1st of September, and resulted in the choice of the Republican ticket by a large majority. The entire vote for Governor numbered 57,904, of which Page received 42,615, and Edwards 15,289, by which the former had a majority of 27,326. At the presidential election in November the whole vote cast was 56,212, of which 44,167 were in favor of Grant, and 12,045 in favor of Seymour; Grant's majority being 32,122.

The Legislature met on the 8th of October, and continued in session until the 19th of November. This body consisted of 30 Senators, all of whom were Republicans, and 249 Representatives, of whom 224 were Republicans and 15 Democrats: 12 of the Senators were farmers, 10 attorneys, 3 physicians, 3 merchants, and 3 engaged in other pursuits: 151 members of the House were farmers; 20 attorneys; 19 merchants; 17 manufacturers; and 42 of other occupations. No laws of general interest were passed at this session.

VIRGINIA. The convention which assembled at Richmond, on the 3d of December, 1867, to frame a constitution for the State of Virginia, reassembled after a recess of two weeks, on the 2d of January, 1868. It continued its deliberations until the 17th of April, and during the session gave considerable time to the discussion of subjects not immediately connected with the duties assigned to it. Resolutions were adopted approving the course of the Federal Congress in impeaching President Johnson, and a stay law for the relief of debtors occupied a good deal of consideration. The question of petitioning Congress for a removal of political disabilities was discussed, but nothing was done in the matter.

The constitution provides, in the Bill of Rights, that—

"This State shall ever remain a member of the United States of America, and the people thereof a part of the American nation, and all attempts, from whatever source, and upon whatever pretext, to dissolve said union, or to sever said nation, are unauthorized and ought to be resisted with the whole power of the State.

"The Constitution of the United States, and the laws of Congress passed in pursuance thereof, constitute the Supreme law of the land, to which permanent allegiance and obedience are due from every citizen, any thing in the constitution, ordinances, or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

"Slavery is prohibited, and all citizens of the State are declared to possess equal civil and political rights and public privileges. Duelling and lotteries are forbidden. Only persons qualified to hold office are permitted to sit on juries."

The subject which excited the warmest debate in the convention was that relating to the elective franchise. A majority of the committee, to whom the duty of framing the article of the constitution touching this matter was intrusted, reported provisions which would bestow the suffrage upon all negroes without dis-

crimination, while a large part of the most intelligent of the white citizens would be deprived of that privilege. A minority of the committee made a separate report, embodying an earnest protest against the adoption of such provisions. The article, as finally adopted after a protracted debate, provides that every male citizen of the United States, twenty-one years of age and upward, who shall have been a resident of the State twelve months, and of the county, city, or town in which he shall offer to vote, three months next preceding any election, shall be entitled to vote upon all questions submitted to the people at such election, with the exceptions designated in the following section:

Every person who has been a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or who held any office, civil or military, under the United States or under any State, previously having taken oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer, or who shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. This clause shall include the following officers: Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor of Public Accounts, Second Auditor, Register of the Land-Office, State Treasurer, Attorney-General, Sheriffs, Mayor of a city, or Clerk of a town, Commissioner of Revenue, County Surveyor, Constables, Overseers of the Poor, Commissioner of the Board of Public Works, Judge of the Supreme Court, Judges of Circuit Courts, Judge of the Court of Hustings, Justices of the County Courts, Recorder, Aldermen, Council of a city or town, Coroners, Escheators, Inspectors, of tobacco, flour, etc., Clerks of the Supreme, District, Circuit and County Courts, and of the Court of Hustings, and Attorneys for the Commonwealth: *Provided*, the Legislature may, by a vote of three-fifths of both Houses, remove the disabilities incurred by this clause from any person included therein, by a separate vote in each case.

All persons, before entering upon the discharge of any function as officers of the State, are required to take and subscribe the following oath:

I, ———, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support and maintain the Constitution and laws of the United States, and the constitution and laws of the State of Virginia; that I recognize and accept the civil and political equality of all men before the law; and that I will faithfully perform the duty of ——— to the best of my ability. So help me God.

In addition to this, all State, city, and county officers must take the test-oath prescribed by the act of Congress of July 2, 1862, which is in these words:

I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have never voluntarily borne arms against the United States since I have been a citizen thereof; that I have voluntarily given no aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in armed hostility thereto; that I have never sought, nor accepted, nor attempted to exercise the functions of any office whatever, under any authority or pretended authority in hostility to the United States; that I have not yielded a voluntary support to any pretended government, authority, power, or constitution, within the United States, hostile or inimical thereto; and I do further swear (or affirm) that, to the best of my knowledge and ability, I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegi-

ance to the same; that I will take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion, and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter. So help me God.

This not only met with strong opposition from the conservative delegates in the convention and a large portion of the influential citizens of the State, but General Schofield himself, in a speech to the convention in April, declared that it would be "practically impossible to carry on a government predicated upon that basis." "I have been now for more than a year," he said, "administering the laws in accordance with the reconstruction acts of Congress in this State. I have had to select and appoint registering officers as well as civil officers in the different counties throughout the State. In some of the counties I have been able to find one, and only one, in some two, and in some three, men of either race, who could read and write, and who could, at the same time, take the oath of office. There are, I believe, in Virginia, some counties which will require to carry on the government thirty or more civil officers such as magistrates, sheriffs, constables, overseers of the poor, etc. You cannot find in these counties a sufficient number of men who are capable of filling the offices, and who can take the oath you have prescribed here. They pay a very limited salary, and even common laborers could not afford to come from abroad for the purpose of filling them. I have no hesitation in saying that I believe it impossible to inaugurate a government upon that basis. That provision, if left in the constitution, will, I believe, be not only opposed to the wishes of your friends, but will be fatal to the constitution, and, perhaps, fatal to yourselves. I say, then, that whether your government, organized under this constitution, will be a good one or a bad one is to be determined by the qualifications of the men elected to carry it on. In this view of the case, you should have left open the widest field from which to choose these men, and I have no doubt that both parties will exert their utmost strength, and put forward their best and ablest men to inaugurate the new government."

This provision was not, however, modified, and it was made the duty of the Legislature to frame a registry law, under which every person, before being allowed to register his name as a voter, must take the following oath:

I, ———, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I am not disqualified from exercising the right of suffrage by the constitution framed by the convention which assembled in the city of Richmond on the 3d day of December, 1867, and that I will support and defend the same to the best of my ability.

Provision was made for the organization of the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments of government, on a basis not materially different from that adopted in other States. A system of public schools is to be established in all the counties by the year 1876. The constitution was not signed by the dele-

gates, but was adopted as a whole on the day of adjournment (April 17th), by a vote of 51 to 36. Several Republican delegates voted against the instrument, including in their number one negro. An ordinance was passed by the convention providing for the submission of the constitution to a vote of the people, on the 2d of June. State officers and representatives of the State in Congress were to be elected at the same time, and the Assembly was to meet on the 24th of June.

On the 24th of April the following order was issued by General Schofield:

HEADQUARTERS FIRST MILITARY DISTRICT, }
RICHMOND, VIRGINIA, April 24, 1868. }

To the People of Virginia:

No appropriation having yet been made by Congress to defray the expenses of an election in Virginia for ratification or rejection of a constitution, and the revision of registration preceding such election, I am not now authorized to order the Boards of Registration to carry into effect the ordinance of the convention providing for such election.

If congressional action on the subject be so long delayed that the election cannot properly be held at the time appointed by the convention, June 2d, Congress will doubtless substitute a later day, of which due notice will be given.

J. M. SCHOFIELD, Major-General.

No provision for the election was made during the rest of the year, and Virginia remained "unreconstructed," and under the government of the military authority of the United States.

Conventions were, however, held by both political parties, and nominations made in the expectation that an election would be ordered some time in the course of the year. The Republican Convention assembled in Richmond on the 6th of May, and nominated Henry H. Wells for Governor, J. H. Clements for Lieutenant-Governor, and G. W. Booker for Attorney-General. The following, among other resolutions, were adopted:

2. That the sublime declaration of the fathers of the country, that all men are created equal, has become not only a theory, but a great living eternal fact, established by one of the chief fruits of the bloody war through which we have just passed, by the amendments to the Constitution, it has been made perpetual, part of the organic law of the whole country, and canonized in the hearts of all good men everywhere, for the noble homage which it pays to the decrees of the Almighty Ruler of the universe, and to the rights of universal humanity. All men in this Commonwealth are, indeed, free and equal. All persons born in the United States and subject to its jurisdiction are, "and of right ought to be," citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State ought or lawfully can deny to any citizen within its jurisdiction, the equal protection of the laws, or the possession or enjoyment of the rights and privileges which it grants, on account of race, color, prior condition, or religious faith.

4. That no republican form of government can permanently exist or be wisely administered without a general education of the people; we therefore favor, and will cordially support, the establishment of a system of free schools for the education of all, and supported by general taxation.

5. That the Republican party of the State of Virginia pledges its influence and efforts to secure the removal of all disabilities, for participation in the late rebellion, from those citizens of this State who, by their acts and influence, shall heartily cooperate in

the complete restoration of the State in accordance with the principles of the reconstruction laws and the changed condition and necessities of our country.

7. That the thanks of the loyal people of this State are due to the Republican members of Congress, who, by their earnest labors in behalf of human liberty, have seen the land redeemed from the curse of slavery, and has nationalized the principles of liberty and equality. That we hail the arraignment and trial of Andrew Johnson before the bar of the United States Senate for his many high crimes and misdemeanors as the crowning triumph of the principles of free institutions, and a warning to traitors in all coming time; that a free people will always guard the temples of their liberties with the flaming sword of justice—turning every way—a terror to foreign foes and domestic traitors.

The Conservative Convention met on the 10th of May. No platform of principles was adopted, but nominations were made in accordance with the following resolutions, reported by the business committee of the convention:

Resolved, That in the opinion of the convention it is expedient that the convention nominate candidates in the approaching election for the offices of Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Attorney-General of the State, and a candidate for the United States House of Representatives for the State at large.

Resolved, That in submitting said nominations, it is expedient, in the opinion of the committee, that the convention should select acceptable, competent, and sound men, who are true to the Constitution of the United States, and to the ancient renown and honor of Virginia, without reference to the ability of said candidates to take disqualifying test-oaths.

Resolved, That it is expedient that this convention do nominate delegates to represent the State in the convention to be held in the city of New York on the 4th of July next to nominate candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency of the United States, the said delegates to consist of two delegates from each congressional district and two delegates from the State at large.

The nominations made were: Colonel R. E. Withers, for Governor; General James A. Walker, for Lieutenant-Governor; John L. Mayne, Jr., for Attorney-General.

It was the policy of General Schofield to interfere as little as possible with the regular operation of government in the State, and we accordingly find but few removals from office under his administration. Whenever vacancies occurred it became his duty to make appointments, and, in this way, more than five hundred officers were designated for various positions while he had command of the First Military District. In making these appointments, he found it very difficult to find competent persons who could take the test-oath prescribed by the act of July 2, 1862.

Among the military orders issued by General Schofield in the early part of the year, was one dated March 12th, suspending sales of property under deeds of trust, when every civil remedy has been exhausted, "in all cases where such sale would result in a ruinous and unnecessary sacrifice of property, or where the payment of interest, when due, and of the principal in a reasonable time, can be secured without such sacrifice; and, also, in cases where such sale would leave a family, or persons *non compos* or infirm, without means of

support." The course to be pursued in accepting the benefit of this order is marked out, and, at the close of the order, the commander declares that "it is the purpose of the commanding general hereafter, as heretofore, not to interfere with the operation of the State laws as administered by the civil tribunals, except where the remedies thereby afforded are inadequate to secure to individuals substantial justice. It is expected that, in general, cases of the class referred to in this order will be settled by mutual concession and compromise between the parties, in accordance with the principles herein set forth, and that the orders of the commanding general will be required only in exceptional cases."

The following order was issued on the 30th of March:

General Orders, No. 33.

HEADQUARTERS FIRST MILITARY DISTRICT, }
STATE OF VIRGINIA, }
RICHMOND, VA., March 30, 1863. }

1. By an order issued from these headquarters on the 2d day of April, 1867, all elections for State, county, and municipal officers in Virginia having been suspended until the registration prescribed by act of Congress should be completed, and it having been found expedient to continue said suspension of elections, whereby certain elective offices have become vacant by expiration of terms of service, and some of the officers whose terms have expired being ineligible for reelection, appointments will be made by the commanding general, as soon as suitable persons can be selected, to fill all such vacancies.

2. Military commissioners will report, without unnecessary delay, the names of all elective officers whose legal terms have expired, stating whether such officers are eligible for reelection; and, if ineligible, they will also forward the names of suitable persons to fill the vacancies, accompanied with satisfactory evidence of character and qualifications. Petitions from citizens (registered voters) for the appointment of any person to office will in like manner be forwarded by the military commissioners, with indorsement as to character and qualifications.

3. All officers will continue to act, after the expiration of their official terms, as required by existing laws, until their successors are qualified.

By command of Bvt. Maj.-Gen. SCHOFIELD.
S. F. CHALFIN, Assistant Adjutant-General.

On the 4th of April the official term of Governor Peirpont expired, and, he being ineligible for another term, the place became vacant. Henry H. Wells was thereupon appointed by the military authority to act as Governor of Virginia. A few days later John S. Calvert, the Treasurer of the State, was suspended from office by General Schofield on the recommendation of Governor Wells. Mr. Calvert was accused of having retained in his possession a portion of the State funds unaccounted for, since August, 1865. George Rye, who had been the secretary of the Constitutional Convention, was appointed Treasurer *ad interim*. At about the same time the Superintendent of the State Prison was removed, and Burnham Wardwell appointed to the position. On the 8th of May Hon. Joseph Mayo, who had been mayor of Richmond for fifteen years, with the exception of a short period after the evacuation by the Confederate forces in 1865, was

removed from office, and Mr. George Chahoon appointed as his successor. On the general subject of appointments to office, the military commander wrote to General Grant, under date of May 15th, in the following terms:

HEADQUARTERS FIRST MILITARY DISTRICT, }
RICHMOND, VA., May 15, 1868. }

General U. S. Grant:

GENERAL: I have the honor to invite your attention to a matter which I understand to be of great importance, and which, if I am correct, will demand the early attention of Congress. I suppose the amendment to the Constitution of the United States, proposed by the Thirty-ninth Congress, and known as article fourteen, will soon be declared to have been ratified and become a part of the Constitution, and I understand the effect will be to at once remove from office all persons who are disqualified by that amendment. If I am right in the above supposition, and in my understanding of the effect of the proposed amendment, it becomes a matter of great importance to determine what is to be done in those States whose governments are still "provisional only." In the States which shall have been readmitted to representation in Congress, no serious difficulty will exist, for the reason that in those States the only disqualification for office will be that contained in the constitutional amendment, and hence an ample field will be left for the selection of persons to fill all the vacant offices, except, perhaps, the higher judgeships; but, in the States not readmitted to representation, the oath prescribed by the act of Congress of July 2, 1862, will still be required of all persons elected or appointed to any office. I have called for reports which will give the number of officers of the various grades in Virginia who will be displaced by operation of the constitutional amendment, and will forward the specific information when obtained. For the present I can only state that the number will probably be several thousand, and that only a small proportion of the vacancies thus created can possibly be filled by persons possessing the necessary qualifications, including ability to take the present test-oath. In the judiciary department, to dispense with the test-oath would probably be insufficient, for nearly all lawyers of sufficient experience to fit them for the bench held some office before the war, and hence are disqualified by the constitutional amendment. I have already appointed in Virginia nearly five hundred officers, and would have appointed more if qualified persons could be found. It is important to observe that the large majority of city, town, and county officers receive little or no compensation for their services. Hence, men who possess the necessary qualifications cannot be induced to accept such offices except in the places where they reside and own property or have substantial interests. Reports have been received from several portions of the State that no persons can be found even to fill vacancies that now exist. When the constitutional amendment takes effect a large number of important offices must become vacant, and remain so until restoration is completed, unless some relief is afforded by Congress.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

J. M. SCHOFIELD.

General Schofield, having been appointed Secretary of War, was relieved from the command of the First Military District on the 1st of June, and Brevet Major-General George Stoneman was assigned to the command in his place. General Stoneman assumed the position by a military order dated June 2d, in which he declared that all officers and appointees, military and civil, in the district, would continue to perform their respective

duties, and all orders theretofore issued would be strictly observed.

General Stoneman found little occasion for any extraordinary exercise of the authority vested in him, during the remainder of the year. The Randolph-Macon College, located at Boydton, was removed to Ashland with the authority of the commander, subject to future legislation and the decision of the courts. The stay law, which was limited in its operation to the 1st of January, 1869, was extended by military order to July 1, 1869, and the general order of March 12th, relating to sale of property under deeds of trust, was continued in force.

The interest of the State debt of Virginia, which fell due in July last, remains unpaid for want of funds. The present condition of the State indebtedness is exhibited in the following schedule:

OLD REGISTERED DEBT, NOVEMBER 1, 1868.

Registered debt October 1, 1866, as per report.....	\$22,004,293 38
<i>Increased since.</i>	
Converted into bonds of the State —act 23d March, 1860, to date...\$83,930 00	
Advertised to be redeemed by sinking fund, and not called for to date, but by act April 1, 1867, directed to be placed to credit of the parties.....	15,879 00
Issued to J. Neeson, attorney, etc.	500 00
	100,359 00
	\$22,104,657 38
<i>Deductions since October 1, 1866.</i>	
Purchased from sale of the Dismal Swamp Canal Company stock...\$24,839 93	
Transferred to Commonwealth by Winchester and Potomac Rail- road Company (5 per cent.) and cancelled.....	45,000 00
Surrendered by the Norfolk and Petersburg Railroad in part payment of loan of \$300,000.....	60,500 00
Surrendered by the Richmond and Danville Railroad Company, un- der General Stoneman's order, in part payment of interest due by said company.....	16,969 00
	147,308 93
	\$21,957,348 40

Brought forward.....	\$21,957,348 40
The sinking fund was.....	\$1,729,315 46
Literary fund was.....	248,000 00
	1,977,315 46

Outstanding.....\$19,980,032 94

OLD COUPON DEBT.

Five per cent. sterling, pay- able in London, £373,000, estimated at \$5 per £.....	\$1,865,000 00
Six per cent. bonds, payable in New York.....	\$11,108,000 00
Lost at sea, steamer Arctic...	145,000 00
	10,963,000 00
Total coupon debt.....	\$12,828,000 00
Total old registered and coupon debt..	\$32,808,032 94

INTEREST FUNDED NOVEMBER 1, 1868.

Dated January 1, 1866:	
Coupons.....	\$1,301,500 00
Registered.....	1,686,305 77
	\$2,987,805 77
Dated January 1, 1867:	
Coupons.....	\$2,144,500 00
Sterling.....	466,250 00
	\$2,610,750 00
Registered.....	1,194,495 41
	3,805,245 41
	\$6,793,051 18

NOVEMBER 1, 1868.

Amount of coupons to be funded.....	\$263,320 00
Registered debt to be funded,	615,238 91
	\$878,548 91
James River and Kanawha Company guarantees yet to be converted.....	230,880 00
	\$1,109,428 91

BONDS GUARANTEED BY THE STATE, NOVEMBER 1, 1868.

James River and Kanawha Canal Com- pany.....	\$230,880 00
Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.....	500,000 00
City of Petersburg.....	323,500 00
Virginia Central Railroad.....	100,000 00
Richmond and Danville Railroad.....	200,000 00
City of Wheeling.....	266,000 00
Alexandria Canal.....	15,000 00
	\$1,735,380 00

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WALDECK, a principality belonging to the North-German Confederation. Prince, Georg, born January 14, 1831; succeeded his father, May 15, 1845. Area, — square miles. Population, in 1867, 56,803 (in 1864, 59,143; decrease, 4.12 per cent.). The budget for 1868 estimates the revenue at 514,255 thalers, and the expenditures at 6,003 thalers. Public debt, in 1861, 1,500,000 thalers. In consequence of a treaty with Prussia, concluded July 17, 1867, and approved by the Diet, October 22, 1867, the administration of the principality was, on January 1st, transferred to Prussia.

WALEWSKI, FLORIAN ALEXANDRE JOSEPH COLONA, COMTE DE, a French statesman and diplomatist, born at the Castle of Walewiec, in Poland, May 4, 1810; died at Strasburg, France,

September 26, 1868. He was the natural son of Napoleon I., by the Countess Walewski, a Polish lady of high rank and great beauty, whom the Emperor met at a fête in Warsaw, and whose charms captivated him. Count Walewski received his education at Geneva, and began at an early age to manifest a lively interest in the affairs of Poland. Before he had attained his majority, he went to London, with a view of enlisting the sympathies of eminent English statesmen on behalf of his country. After the Revolution of July, 1830, he became naturalized in France, served for some time in the French army as an officer in the 4th Regiment of Hussars, and, resigning that position, afterward fought at the battle of Grochow, gaining the military cross of Poland for his bravery. He subsequently de-

voted himself to literature and politics in Paris, writing pamphlets, on public questions of the day, among which two—"Un mot sur la Question d'Afrique," and "L'Alliance Anglaise"—are still remembered, becoming part proprietor and one of the editors of the *Messager*, and writing a comedy, *L'École du Monde; ou, la Coquette sans le Savoir*, which had some success on the stage in 1840. He also assisted Alexandre Dumas in the composition of several dramatic pieces. Having acquired distinction as a writer and politician, he entered, in 1840, upon the diplomatic career, receiving from M. Thiers a mission to Egypt. Under the ministry of Guizot he was appointed to several missions. In 1849 he was sent, with the title of plenipotentiary and envoy extraordinary, to Florence; thence he went, in the same capacity, to Naples, and in 1854 became ambassador of France to Great Britain. In 1855 he was recalled, and took the place of M. Dronyn de Lhuys as Minister of Foreign Affairs. This was during the Crimean War, and it fell to Count Walewski's lot to conduct the important negotiations following on the proclamation of peace, to preside at the Congress of Paris as the plenipotentiary of France, and to sign the treaty of the 30th of April, 1856. He was appointed a member of the French Senate in 1855, resigned the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1860, succeeded M. Fould as Minister of State in November of the same year, holding office till June, 1863; was elected a member of the Corps Législatif in August, 1865, and on the 1st of September following was appointed president of that body, after having resigned as Senator. This office he held until 1867. Count Walewski was made a member of the Privy Council in 1856, and decorated with the grand cross of the Legion of Honor in 1852. He was twice married; the first time in 1830, to an English lady.

WELCKER, FRIEDRICH GOTTLIEB, a German philologist and archæologist, born at Grunberg, Hesse-Darmstadt, November 4, 1784; died at Bonn, in December, 1868. He was educated at the University of Giessen, and in 1803 was appointed one of the masters of the Gymnasium there. In 1806 he went to Rome, where he remained engaged in archæological studies till 1808. His works on philology and archæology have been numerous. He was one of the founders of the excellent Art Museum of Bonn, and for more than thirty years one of the editors of the *Rheinisches Museum für Philologie*.

WELLS, SAMUEL, born in Durham, N. H., August 15, 1801; died in Boston, Mass., July 15, 1868, aged 67 years. His mother was a niece of General John Sullivan, of the Revolution, President of New Hampshire, and of Governor James Sullivan, of Massachusetts. Compelled from childhood to rely upon his own efforts for the means of living, at the age of fourteen he apprenticed himself to Daniel Coolidge, bookseller, in Concord, N. H. Though his

later years gave ample evidence of an accumulation of historical and classical knowledge rarely met with in those who have obtained collegiate honors, the only regular instruction of which he had the benefit, after childhood, was embraced within a few weeks during his engagement with Mr. Coolidge. At the expiration of his apprenticeship he began the study of law with Samuel Kimball, Esq., of Concord, N. H., and, in 1824, became a student in the office of Hon. Thomas Rice, of Winslow, Me. Admitted to the bar in 1826, he commenced practice in the adjoining town of Waterville, and was soon recognized as a safe counsellor and an able advocate. In 1833 he removed to Hallowell, and from this time was retained in all the important causes tried in the counties of Somerset and Kennebec. He was twice elected by the citizens of Hallowell to the House of Representatives of the State, and was one of the most influential and useful members of that body. In 1844 he removed to Portland, and continued the practice of his profession until 1848, when he was appointed to the Supreme Bench, which position he filled to the entire acceptance of the bar and the public until 1854, when he resigned. In 1855 he was the Democratic candidate for Governor, and, there being no election by the people, was chosen to that office by the two branches of the Legislature. When his term ended he removed to Boston, where he resided till the close of his life. As a lawyer, he was distinguished for his memory of precedents, his great industry, and thorough understanding of his cases; as an advocate, for his eloquence, his courteous treatment of his opponents, and his clearness of statement; as a judge, for his patience and impartiality; and as Governor, for his integrity and fearless independence in a time of great public excitement. His private life bore witness to extraordinary strength of will, united to a most genial disposition, and a serenity of temper which not even years of severe suffering could impair.

WEST VIRGINIA. The Legislature of this State assembled on the 21st of January, and continued its sessions for upward of six weeks, but no general laws of special interest were passed. The registration law was amended, and an act was passed changing the time for the election of township officers from April to the day of the general State election in October. The effect of this last act was to continue in office the incumbent township officers seven months beyond the term for which they were elected. An attempt was made to provide for the permanent location of the State capital, but nothing was done in the matter. Toward the close of the session, Judge W. L. Hindman, of the eighth judicial circuit, was impeached and removed from office for granting a motion to admit S. A. Miller to practise as an attorney-at-law without taking the test-oath, prescribed by the act of February 14, 1866, entitled "An act in relation to attorneys."

This act had been decided to be constitutional by the Court of Appeals of West Virginia, but the action of Judge Hindman was based on the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, declaring similar test-oaths to be in violation of the Federal Constitution. Judge Hindman was unwell when notified that articles of impeachment had been found against him, and asked that the trial might be postponed until the summer session. This request was not granted, but the trial proceeded in the absence of the accused, and he was removed from office without any defence having been made in his behalf.

An extra session of the Legislature was called by proclamation of the Governor, to meet on the 2d of June, for the purpose of codifying the laws of the State. One of the first subjects considered at this session is set forth in the following resolution:

Present appearances indicate that numerous petitions will be presented at the present sitting of the Legislature by persons required to take what is commonly known as the attorney's test-oath.

And, now, *Whereas*, those characters have generally been the direct cause of their calamity—and although we sincerely appreciate the Christian principle of forgiveness, we as strenuously adhere to the requirements of justice,

Therefore, Be it resolved by the Legislature of West Virginia, That we will not receive or favorably consider the petition of any person, who is disqualified by reason of participating in rebellion against the United States, to practise his profession, except such petition be accompanied by a written renunciation of former wrongs and an acknowledgment of errors—discarding and abandoning the false dogma of exclusive States rights sovereignty.

On the 11th of June the following was adopted:

Whereas, This is the anniversary of the reorganized government of Virginia which absolved us from the tyranny of the East, and gave us a liberal republican form of government in the West, and was the nucleus around which the loyal men of Virginia rallied, and was the means of bringing this State into existence: *Therefore*,

Resolved by the Legislature of West Virginia, That we congratulate the people of this State upon the auspicious results which have followed the convention of Virginia loyalists which assembled at Wheeling on the 11th day of June, 1861, and that this State owes a debt of gratitude to the brave and patriotic Union men who engaged in and worked out to a successful termination the problems involved in the reorganization of Virginia and the erection of the State of West Virginia; and that their names ought to be held in grateful and everlasting remembrance.

The following passed the Senate by a vote of 16 to 2:

Resolved, That in the trial of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, before the Senate upon the articles of impeachment exhibited against him by the House of Representatives, according to the published evidence there adduced, the said Andrew Johnson was, in our opinion, proved guilty of high crimes and misdemeanors as in said articles charged; that we believe his conviction thereof would have been a vindication of law and justice, and of great and enduring advantage to the nation, and that it is to be deplored that a Senator from West Virginia should have felt constrained to vote said Andrew Johnson innocent, thereby securing his acquittal.

The work of codifying the laws continued through the months of June and July, and at an adjourned session in November and December.

The receipts into the State Treasury, for the fiscal year ending September 30th, amounted to \$764,799.73. The disbursements for the same period were \$761,882.25. When the State of West Virginia was formed, it pledged itself to the payment of its share of the old State debt, which amounted to about \$20,000,000, but, the State of Virginia having commenced legal proceedings to recover jurisdiction over the counties of Berkeley and Jefferson, it was determined by the joint resolution of the Legislature to do nothing for the adjustment of the matter until the pending suit should be decided. A demurrer was entered in the case by West Virginia, and the Judges of the Supreme Court of the United States were equally divided on the question of sustaining or overruling this demurrer, and, according to the established rule of law in such cases, the party holding the affirmative must lose; but here again the Court was equally divided on the question as to which party held the affirmative, and the matter must stand undecided until the *personnel* of the bench is changed, or some one of the judges takes a different view of the subject. The claim of the State against the Federal Government for war expenses amounts to \$456,658.03, of which \$175,000 has been paid, and \$153,365.28 offset by direct taxes due from the State. The amount still due is \$127,692.75, which is retained until certain other claims against the State shall be adjusted.

The Lunatic Asylum, at Weston, has been so far enlarged as to accommodate 200 patients, but the "central building is still unfinished. The penitentiary building is nearly complete.

The amount expended in the support of free schools in the State during the year is \$523,057.07, of which \$194,504.60 was derived from the State fund. There were 1,769 schools in operation, at which 1,810 teachers were employed. Since the present school system went into operation, in 1864, 1,200 school-houses have been built, which are valued at \$633,817.92.

Commissioners of the States of Virginia and West Virginia, appointed for the purpose, effected a contract with the Virginia Central Railroad Company, bearing date August 31, 1868, which consolidates the Virginia Central and Covington and Ohio into the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad Company, and provides for the construction of a road from Covington to the Ohio River, to be commenced within six months and completed within six years from the date of the contract.

Conventions of both political parties were held in the early part of the year, to organize for the coming campaign, and appoint delegates to the national conventions, but the regular State nominations were made at a later period. The Republican nominating convention met at Clarksburg, on the 28th of May, and adopted resolutions indorsing the nominees of the Na-

tional Convention and approving the course of Governor Boreman. The nominations made were as follows: For Governor, William E. Stevenson; for Secretary of State, James M. Pepes; for Treasurer, James A. Macauley; Auditor, Thomas Boggess; Attorney-General, Thayer Melvin; Judge of Court of Appeals, R. L. Berkshire. The Democratic convention met at Wheeling on the 16th of July, and nominated Johnson N. Camden for Governor. The platform adopted was as follows:

Resolved, That we approve the platform of the National Democratic Convention, lately assembled in New York, as the true exponent of our political principles, and pledge our hearty and united support to the nominees of that convention, for the offices of President and Vice-President of the United States.

Resolved, That we demand of the Legislature of this State a reduction of the useless swarm of officers with which we are infested, and such other measures of economy, retrenchment, and reform, as will reduce the burden of State and local taxation, which is exhausting the substance of our people.

Resolved, That we demand the reform of the present system of registration, as unjust, oppressive upon the people, and at variance with the fundamental principles of free government.

Resolved, That we denounce the radical party of this State, because, with a view of perpetuating their own power, they have refused to permit the people to elect their own registrars, and have vested the power of appointment and removal in the Governor, so that the unscrupulous purposes of the party may be better accomplished; and because, with the same view, they have by recent legislation relieved their registrars, thus unfairly and improperly elected, from either civil or criminal responsibility, for even wilful and corrupt violation of duty.

Resolved, That while we are willing to accord to the negro the full measure of legal rights, with ample protection of person and property, we are unalterably opposed to negro suffrage, negro equality, and radical legislation looking to that end.

Resolved, That we denounce the radical party for having, through its representatives in Congress, by the passage of certain military reconstruction bills, declared null and void the government of Virginia, which formed the State of West Virginia, thereby denying the legal existence of our new State.

The State election was held on the 22d of October, and resulted in favor of the Republican ticket. The whole vote cast for Governor was 49,153, of which Stevenson received 26,935, and Camden 22,218, giving the former a majority of 4,717. Three members of Congress were chosen, all of whom were Republicans. At the presidential election, in November, 49,397 votes were cast, 29,115 of which were for Grant, and 20,282 for Seymour; Grant's majority, 8,833. The Legislature for 1869 consists of 19 Republicans and 3 Democrats in the Senate, and 41 Republicans and 15 Democrats in the House.

Some slight demonstrations in opposition to the laws were made during the year, but, in general, comparative quiet and good order have prevailed. It was found necessary on two occasions to send a military force to strengthen the arm of civil authority. The last occasion was when the registration of voters was going on, in October. The Board

of Registrars in Marion County were intimidated, by an armed mob, from performing their duties, and were unable to proceed until a company of troops was obtained from Washington. This was retained at Fairmont, the place of the disturbance, until after the presidential election, and no further trouble occurred. With regard to these disorders, the Governor of the State says: "All these local demonstrations in opposition to the rightful authority, and tending to the disturbance of the peace of the community, are manifestations of the spirit of the rebellion still lingering in our midst. From present indications, however, it is to be hoped that we will be troubled less with them in the future."

WILLIAMS, JOHN MASON, an eminent jurist of Massachusetts, late Chief Justice of the Massachusetts Court of Common Pleas, born in New Bedford, in June, 1780; died there, December 28, 1868. He was educated at Brown University, Providence, R. I., and graduated in 1801, entering immediately upon the study of the law, and being admitted to the bar in 1803. He rose rapidly in his profession, his extensive legal learning, his assiduous attention to the interests of his clients, and to all the duties of his profession, and his sterling integrity, giving him the confidence of the entire community. After a long and extensive practice at the bar, he was appointed one of the Justices of the Court of Common Pleas, and ere long promoted to be Chief Justice of it. In 1859, the Legislature abolished the Court, retiring Chief-Justice Williams and Judges Cummins, Warren, Allen, and Merrick.

WILMOT, DAVID, a Pennsylvania statesman and jurist, born at Bethany, Wayne County, Pa., January 20, 1814; died at Towanda, Pa., March 16, 1868. Educated at Bethany Academy and at Aurora, N. Y., he subsequently studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1834. In 1844 he was elected member of Congress from the Bradford district, Pennsylvania, and served three consecutive terms. His greatest celebrity was derived from his introduction, in 1848, of the proviso excluding slavery from the territory acquired from Mexico, ever since famous as the "Wilmot Proviso." In 1860, after Mr. Cameron had agreed to accept the position of Secretary of War under Mr. Lincoln, Mr. Wilmot was elected to the United States Senate, to fill the unexpired two years of Mr. Cameron's term in that body. While in the Senate he served on the Committees on Pensions, Claims, and Foreign Affairs. In 1863 he was appointed by Mr. Lincoln one of the Justices of the Court of Claims, which position he held at the time of his death.

WISCONSIN. The Legislature of this State assembled at Madison, on the 8th of January, and continued in session until about the first of March. The session was more than a month shorter than that of the preceding year, which

may be attributed in part to the law of 1867, allowing the members a yearly salary, instead of a certain sum *per diem*. The Senate was composed of 33 members, of whom 18 were Republicans and 15 Democrats: 13 Senators were lawyers, 9 farmers, and 11 devoted to other pursuits. In the Assembly there were 100 members, 59 Republicans and 41 Democrats: 45 Representatives were farmers, 18 lawyers, 7 merchants, and 30 engaged in other occupations.

The following resolutions, touching affairs of the national Government, were adopted by both branches of the Legislature:

Joint Resolution instructing our Senators and requesting our Representatives to adhere to the policy of the loyal people of the Republic as adopted by Congress.

Whereas, the events which have very recently taken place, and are now transpiring at the Federal capital, are such as distinguish times of great national peril; and *whereas*, it is the right and duty of the people of the State, when occurrences like the present are pressing upon them, to give utterance to their will and to strengthen and support those upon whom the responsibilities of the occasion directly rest:

Be it resolved by the Assembly, the Senate concurring, That our Senators in Congress are instructed, and the members of the House of Representatives from this State are requested to adhere with unflinching firmness to the policy of the loyal people of the Republic adopted by Congress; that they resist, by all constitutional, just, and efficient means, any and all attempted usurpation of power by any officer of the Government; and that in this they discharge their whole duty as guardians of the rights and liberties of the people of the country.

Resolved, That we declare our confidence in the patriotism and statesmanship of Hon. E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War; that we admire the courage and constancy with which he successfully resists the unwarranted attempts at executive encroachments; that we approve the action of the United States Senate in restoring him to the office from which he was unjustly suspended; that it is the desire of the citizens of the State of Wisconsin that he shall remain in the War Office so long as the country is in danger from the conspiracies of its enemies, whatever be their character or position, and that we honor General Grant for that obedience to law which prompted him at once to surrender the office of Secretary of War to him upon whom it was conferred by our martyred President.

Resolved, That the Governor of the State is hereby requested to transmit an attested copy of the foregoing to each of our Senators and Representatives in Congress, to the presiding officer of each House of Congress, and to Hon. Edwin M. Stanton.

N. M. THOMSON, Speaker of the Assembly.

N. M. LITTLEJOHN, Pres. of Senate *pro tem*.

Approved March 6, 1868.

LUCIUS FAIRCHILD, Governor.

Resolutions were also adopted asserting in the strongest terms the right of expatriation, and demanding protection for American citizens abroad, whether native or adopted. The constitutional amendments proposed by the Legislature of 1867 were both rejected. One of these proposed to confer the right of suffrage on women, and the other authorized the State to give its aid for the construction of railroads. The most important measure of the session was a new assessment law providing for a State Board of Assessment composed of the Senate

and the Secretary of State, who are to meet biennially on the third Wednesday of April, and, from statistics furnished by the Secretary of State, determine and assess the relative value of all property subject to taxation in each county. The Secretary of State shall then apportion the tax levied for the year, among the counties *pro rata*, according to the valuation made by the Board of Assessment. The supervisors of each county are required to assess and determine the value of property in each town and city, and determine the tax levied for county purposes. Each town is to have three assessors, and all property, real and personal, to be assessed at its actual value, the assessors determining the value, and having power to examine witnesses on the subject. The chairman of the Board of Supervisors, clerk, and assessors of each town, or mayor, clerk, and assessors of each city, constitute a Board of Review, to hear and determine any errors made in the assessment, and to make the necessary corrections. This Board of Review is to meet on the last Monday in June, following the meeting of the Board of Assessment in April.

The Democratic State Convention was held at Madison, on the 19th of February, and candidates were nominated for Chief Justice and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court. These were the only State officers to be chosen this year. Charles Dunn and E. Holmes Ellis were nominated. Presidential electors were also nominated, and delegates appointed to the National Convention which was to meet in New York on the 4th of July. A motion, that a committee of seven be appointed to report resolutions, was opposed on the ground that the only officers to be nominated were judges, and resolutions "would not help their election, or be appropriate." Mr. Ernest, who proposed the committee, thought that, if ever there was a time when the Democracy ought to speak out, it was now. There would not be another convention until after presidential candidates were nominated, and it was incumbent on the Democrats to denounce in fitting terms the outrages perpetrated upon the country. Mr. Ernest's motion was nevertheless laid upon the table, and no platform was adopted.

The Republican Convention assembled at Madison, on the 26th of February, and nominated L. S. Dixon and Byron Paine for reelection as Judges of the Supreme Court. After the nomination of electors, and the appointment of delegates to the National Convention at Chicago, a series of resolutions was adopted. These declare an unalterable devotion to the principles of the Republican party; deplore the necessity which compelled the House of Representatives to impeach President Johnson, but express thanks for the prompt action of that body, and claim that the vital interests of the Republic require that the disturbance of the public peace caused by the wanton acts of Mr. Johnson should be ended by bringing him

to trial as soon as the ends of justice will permit; they express implicit confidence that Congress, in this crisis of the nation's affairs, will maintain inviolate the Constitution and the laws, and vindicate their authority, and that a loyal people will sustain their representatives, if need be, by the sword. They furthermore express their appreciation of the inestimable value of the services of General Grant in suppressing the rebellion, and declare that he has shown a capacity for civil affairs and a statesmanlike comprehensiveness and breadth of intellect fitting him, above all others, in the present crisis, to be a President who shall restore peace and order, insure the execution of the laws, and secure economy in the administration of public affairs. They finally assert it to be the duty of the Government to protect citizens abroad, native or adopted, and to demand the instant release of any citizens detained by any foreign government who have not committed any crime in the country where they are imprisoned. The following dispatch was sent from the Convention:

E. M. Stanton: Stand by the War Department, and we will stand by you.

An election for Judges of the Supreme Court was held in April. L. S. Dixon was chosen Chief Justice for one year, and Byron Paine Associate Justice for three years. At the presidential election in November, the whole number of votes cast in the State was 193,567, of which 108,857 were in favor of Grant for President, and 84,710 for Seymour: Grant's majority, 24,147. Six Representatives to Congress were chosen, of whom five were Republicans. The State Legislature of 1869 is constituted as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans.....	19	68	87
Democrats.....	14	32	46
Republican majority....	5	36	41

The validity of the law of 1865, authorizing a tax of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the shares in national banks, was tested in the Supreme Court of the State in February, and the law was sustained by the decision of Chief-Justice Dixon.

The valuation of real and personal property as determined by the Board of Assessment for 1868 is \$244,440,774, showing an increase of \$47,589,613.03 over that of the preceding year. The receipts into the public treasury from all sources, during the fiscal year ending with September 30th, was \$982,870; the expenditures during the same period amounted to \$946,518.65, leaving a surplus of \$44,956.65. The State debt has been reduced \$27,000 during the year, and now amounts to \$2,252,057, most of which is due to the school-fund. Sixteen banks are now doing business in Wisconsin, under the State banking laws, with an aggregate capital of \$525,000, and an outstanding circulation of \$15,453. The office of Bank Comptroller has been abolished, and the duties

formerly pertaining to the position now devolve on the State Treasurer; \$60,000 were derived by the State from the taxation of national banks under the law of 1865, which was pronounced constitutional by the Supreme Court. The total productive school-fund of the State amounts to \$2,205,486.83, and yields an income of \$178,238.78. The whole amount expended for school purposes during the past year was \$1,791,940.52, or \$7.19 for each pupil registered as having attended school. The State still holds 461,461 acres of land unsold, the proceeds of which will go to increase the principal of the school-fund. The number of schools in the State was reported at 5,000, attended by 249,007 children.

The Normal Schools, at Platteville and Whitewater, are in a flourishing condition, and the erection of buildings for a new Normal School at Oshkosh has already begun. The State has a Normal school-fund amounting to \$625,294, which yields an annual income of \$67,776. There are also 810,667 acres of land for sale for the benefit of this fund. The number of pupils at these schools during the year was 316, of whom 143 were in the normal department. The State University is represented to be in a flourishing condition, and great need is felt of additional buildings. Some change has been made in the organization of the institution, and several new instructors have been appointed. Departments of "Agriculture" and "Military Tactics and Engineering" have been added, and General W. R. Pease has been detailed by the War Department to take charge of the latter. There were 316 students in attendance during the last academic year, about one-third of whom were young ladies. The following items show the financial condition of the university:

Total productive University fund.....	\$199,433 14
Total productive Agricultural College fund....	14,488 40
Dane County bonds belonging to this fund....	11,000 00
Receipts of the University fund income 1868..	27,658 38
Disbursements.....	31,129 49
Balance in this fund.....	2,148 43
Disbursements of experimental farm fund....	5,313 41
	\$291,171 25

12,755 acres of University land, valued at.....	31,885 00
219,737 acres of agricultural lands (unsold), valued at.....	274,671 00

Total valuation of these lands..... \$306,556 00

Wisconsin boasts no less than ten "colleges," two of which are exclusively for males, two for females, and six for both sexes indiscriminately.

The benevolent institutions of the State are in a very satisfactory condition. The Insane Asylum has been enlarged, and now accommodates 350 patients, but there is pressing need of still further accommodation, and the Governor has recommended the erection of a new institution of the kind. The present asylum is a fine structure, and well adapted to the purposes for which it was built; 355 patients have received treatment during the past year, at a cost to the State of

\$61,320.12. There have been sixty pupils at the Institution for the Blind during the year, at a cost for current expenses of \$13,299.95. An extension of the building is in progress. At the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, 95 pupils have been in attendance, and the attempt to teach the dumb to speak is attended with an encouraging degree of success. The buildings of this institution, with workshops, etc., are now complete. The current expenses for 1868 amounted to \$33,365.38. There is a Home for Soldiers' Orphans, which affords protection to 300 children, but many applications have been received beyond this number, and further accommodations are contemplated; \$40,000 were appropriated to the support of these wards of the Commonwealth during the past year. A bill providing for the establishment of a School for Imbecile and Idiotic Children passed both branches of the Legislature at the last session, but did not become a law, in consequence of the failure to present it to the presiding officers for their signatures.

The management of the State Prison of Wisconsin appears to be remarkably efficient. Efforts are made to introduce several reforms and improvements. The party-colored dress has been abolished, and much is done to educate the prisoners and encourage them to pursue a better course. It is an interesting fact that, although the population of the State has greatly increased during the past ten years, the commitments to the State Prison have constantly grown less, and in October, 1868, there were only 184 convicts in that institution. There is a State Reform School, which is represented to be in excellent condition. During the past year 227 children were committed to its charge.

The new State capitol will probably be completed in the course of the coming year. The entire cost of this structure will be \$528,315.60. Since 1860 the State has expended \$1,200,000 in the erection of public buildings. There are now about 1,100 miles of railroad in operation in Wisconsin, and several new lines have been projected. The construction of the Northern Pacific Railroad is strongly favored in the State. A military road from Fort Howard to the Michigan line is in progress, and seventy miles have been completed and accepted by the State. The improvement of the navigation of the Wisconsin River is earnestly recommended by the Governor, as a work "clearly national in its character, reaching out to and affecting the commercial interests of many States, binding together, by a navigable channel, the Mississippi River and the great lakes, and furnishing the much-needed naval highway which will connect nearly all the navigable waters of the Union." A complete survey of the river has been made by the United States Engineer Department, and it is thought that the proposed improvements can be made at a very moderate expense.

The population of the city of Milwaukee

has increased from 275 in 1836, 1,700 in 1840, 21,000 in 1850, 45,000 in 1860, to 80,563 in 1868. The assessed value of property in the city is \$39,262,452; \$19,000,000 are invested in manufactures, and the trade is quite large. 4,737 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 1,913,328, and crews numbering 66,317, arrived at that port during the year. There are 107 vessels, with a tonnage of 20,054, owned in the city. Building improvements in the city were made during the year of the value of \$3,493,710. The new court-house, which has just been begun, will be a magnificent structure, erected at a cost of \$600,000. The main building is to be 82½ feet front by 104½ feet deep, exclusive of projections; the two wings are to be 20½ by 52.6 feet, and the transverse wings 88½ by 43.6. This makes the total length of front 210½ feet, and the total depth, not including porticoes, 130½ feet. The height of the wings is 50½ feet, and that of the main building 69 feet. The height of the centre dome will be 180 feet. It is expected that the building will be completed in 1870.

WOOD, ISAAC, M. D., an eminent physician and philanthropist of New York City, born in Clinton Town, Nine Partners, Dutchess County, N. Y., August 21, 1793; died at Norwalk, Conn., March 25, 1868. His father removed to New York City in 1803, and established a bookstore and publishing house the following year, which is still conducted by his descendants. Isaac Wood, thus brought under the influence of city life and opportunities in his tenth year, early manifested a strong predilection for study, and soon became a pupil of the celebrated John Griscom in physical science, and of the Rev. Frederick Macfarlane in classical studies. Ambitious to enter the medical profession, he abandoned his first intention of taking a full collegiate course, and entered the office of Dr. Valentine Seaman, then one of the most eminent physicians of New York, in 1811, just before completing his eighteenth year. As a student he was indefatigable, often spending the whole night in medical and surgical investigations. He spent two years in the New York Hospital, being assistant house-surgeon from 1814 to 1815, and house-surgeon from 1815 to 1816. In 1815 he received his license from the censors of the Medical Society of the State of New York, and in 1816 his diploma from the Medical Department of Queen's (now Rutgers') College, N. J. He soon became one of the physicians of the New York Dispensary, and in 1818 a member of the Society of the New York Hospital, but did not open an office for private practice until January, 1820, when, having joined the New York County Medical Society, he commenced his life as a practitioner of medicine at his father's residence in Rose Street. He removed thence two years later to Cherry Street, and, in 1826, having been appointed resident physician of Bellevue Hospital and Almshouses, resided there till 1833, when

he resigned, and not long after again opened an office in Pearl Street, near Peck Slip. In 1840 he removed to East Broadway, and in 1857, like many of his professional brethren, migrated to town.

These more than fifty years of active professional life were years of great usefulness. From early life he had been a member of the Society of Friends, and possessed in an extraordinary degree their spirit of quiet yet earnest philanthropy. He was not content unless his time could be fully occupied in enterprises for the benefit of humanity, and on this account he took upon himself many positions of care and toil, which brought him no other remuneration than the consciousness of doing good. He was, as we have already said, one of the physicians of the New York Dispensary, and retained this position till 1825; in 1823 he accepted the office of consulting accoucheur to the Out-door Lying-in-Charity of the Second Ward, a position involving much responsibility and labor; in 1825 he became one of the active members of the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents, of which his father and elder brother had been the principal founders; in April of the same year he was appointed by the Common Council a committee, with Drs. Bailey, J. M. Smith, and Stephen Brown, to visit the penitentiary and report on the measures necessary to eradicate typhus fever, which was making fearful ravages there. In October, 1825, he was appointed consulting physician to the Bellevue Almshouse and Penitentiary; and in January, 1826, elected by the Common Council resident physician to Bellevue Hospital, Almshouse, and Penitentiary, where he remained for seven years, and was, as Dr. John W. Francis said in his "Old New York," "of signal benefit to the public interests and to humanity." He performed nearly all the important surgical operations during his residency, and in 1832-'33, during the cholera epidemic, stayed at his post, though more than six hundred fatal cases of the disease occurred among the inmates of the county institutions. He was himself attacked by the disease, and though he recovered, thanks to his temperate habits and his fine constitution, his health was so much impaired that he was obliged to resign his position, and he was not fully restored to his former vigor for five years. He was a member of the New York Eye and Ear Infirmary during this period, and for many years subsequently maintained a very high reputation as an ophthalmic surgeon, the benefits of which enured to the advantage of the New York Institution for the Blind, of which he was for twenty-five years one of the most active managers, being the consulting physician, and for several years its president. He was one of the founders of the Society for the Relief of the Widows and Orphans of Medical Men, and subsequently its treasurer and president; he was also a founder and twice president of the New York Academy of Medicine.

For many years he was president of the Bellevue Hospital Medical Board. He was also one of the managers of the New York Lying-in-Asylum, and a consulting physician of the New York City Dispensary, and from 1853 also of the New York Ophthalmic Hospital. He was president repeatedly of the County Medical Society, and of the Kappa Lambda Society of Hippocrates, and treasurer of the American Medical Association for one year. During the war he was an active member of the Sanitary Commission.

Aside from these numerous positions of trust and responsibility directly connected with his profession, Dr. Wood held many others of a purely philanthropic or literary character involving much labor, which he cheerfully undertook for the benefit of others. He was for twenty-six years a member of the Board of the American Bible Society, and during twenty-three years of the time on two of its most important committees. He was for many years also an inspector of the public schools, and performed the arduous duties of that position with great fidelity. He was also an active member of both the Historical and Geographical Societies. He wrote little, and was averse to any thing like display. His modesty, his quiet and practical piety, profound medical learning, and great ability as an organizer, together with his gentle and courteous manners, made his loss one which will be deeply felt by the profession and the public.

WORKS, PUBLIC. An English writer observes that "it is hardly more than thirty years since the prospectus of the London and Birmingham Railway Company, with the estimate of the rest of their proposed undertaking, at £1,800,000, took not only the general public but even Lombard Street by surprise. Yet with the example of success afforded by the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, capital was soon found, not only for the London and Birmingham, but for still more costly lines; and that, notwithstanding the estimate just referred to proved to have been but about one-third of the ultimate outlay, since that time nearly £500,000,000 of money have been found for English railways alone. If the capital available for engineering undertakings has increased, within the last thirty or thirty-five years, literally from millions to hundreds of millions, what may we not expect within the next thirty or forty years?" At this time it would be impossible, within any moderate limits, to enumerate even the public works undertaken and in progress, which forty years ago would have been considered chimerical and impossible both in an engineering and financial point of view. The three public works which now most especially claim public attention are the Suez Canal, the Pacific Railroad, and the Mont Cenis Tunnel. Of the first, a description will be found under its distinctive head. But attention is to be called, in an engineering point of view, to the rapidity with

which the work has been carried on by the introduction of dredging-machines. One machine is credited with 108,000 cubic metres of excavation in a single month; another with 88,889; another with 78,056 cubic metres within a like period. They have double gangs of men, and work night and day. Six dredges in November, in the Port Said division of the canal, raised 313,628 cubic metres; three other machines, at Ras-el-Ech, raised 214,042 cubic metres. The last new dredge of the contractors was put at work in December; and now their entire force, 60 machines, is being driven to its utmost capacity. Of the Pacific Railroad, there is little in the construction, of engineering science. The work itself can hardly be called at present more than a construction-track, but under a well-organized system it has been driven forward with great rapidity, and the mere laying of the track has more of novelty than any other branch of the construction. The following extracts from the report of the Secretary of the Interior will give the condition of the road, November 30, 1868:

At the date of my last annual report, you had accepted 490 miles of the road and telegraph line of the Union Pacific Railroad Company, and the commissioners were then engaged in the examination of an additional section of 20 miles. Since that date, including said 20 miles, 330 have been accepted. The commissioners have submitted reports upon 4 additional sections, amounting to 100 miles.

The commissioners' report has just been received. A description of the location of the road is given. The elevation at Omaha is 946 feet above tidewater, and at the head of Great Salt Lake 4,315 feet. The sum of the ascents going westward is 12,995 feet, and the consequent sum of the descents is 9,626 feet. They are of the opinion that the location of the road, as a whole and in its different parts, is upon the most direct, central, and practicable route, but that the line is not in all respects well adapted to the ground, as there are points where the full capabilities of the country have not been developed, and others where, in its details, the location is radically wrong. This has been occasioned by a desire to diminish the cost of work by the introduction of more and sharper curves than the circumstances require, although the saving in cost was but small in comparison to the permanent injury of the road. The commissioners are of opinion that the line, as built, should not be permanently adopted, and that economy and the best interests of the road require alterations and improvements to be made.

The road, when examined, was built 890 miles from Omaha. Its construction, so far as excavations and embankments were required, was remarkably easy. From Omaha to a point 535 miles west there are no rock excavations, and the natural surface of a great portion of the intermediate country presents nearly practicable grades. From the latter point to the end of the track the work is less than on Eastern roads of the same length, and the most difficult parts are light in comparison with roads in the Alleghany Mountains. There is but one tunnel. It is on the bank of St. Mary's creek, 230 feet in length.

The commissioners submit the following estimate of expenditure which will be required to render the first 890 miles of the road equal to a fully completed first-class railroad. No allowances are made for work in progress or materials and equipments ordered or reported to be *in transitu* for delivery, or already delivered, except so far as they are placed in position

in the structures themselves—\$6,409,550. The cost of constructing and fully equipping the road from the mouth of the Weber Cañon to the head of Great Salt Lake—\$3,515,550.

As the actual cost of this road is a matter of public interest, I deem it proper to present, in a condensed form, the estimates submitted on the 14th inst., by Jesse L. Williams. He states that the cost of the road, as shown on the books of the railroad company, is, of course, equivalent to the contract price per mile. The actual cost to the contractors, forming an association which embraces most of the larger stockholders of the company, is shown only by their private books, to which the Government directors have no access. The calculations were, therefore, made from the most accurate available data, and the estimated cost of the first 710 miles of the road was taken as the basis for computing that of the whole line. Should the road, as is expected by the company, form a junction with that of the California company, near the northern extreme of Great Salt Lake, a little west of Monument Point, its length would be 1,110 miles. The cost of locating, constructing, and completely equipping it and the telegraph line, is \$38,824,821, an average per mile of \$34,977.

The Government subsidy in bonds for that distance, at par, amounts to \$29,504,000, an average per mile of \$26,580. The company's first mortgage bonds are estimated at 92 per cent., and would yield \$27,143,680. The fund realized by the company from these two sources amounts to \$56,647,680, being an average per mile of \$51,034, exceeding by \$16,056 the actual cost of constructing and fully equipping the road, and yielding a profit exceeding \$17,750,000.

The Central Pacific Railroad Company, of California, have constructed 390 miles of their road and telegraph line, of which 296 were constructed and accepted since my last annual report. This company filed a map of the definite location of their road from Humboldt Wells, via the head of Great Salt Lake, to the mouth of Weber Cañon. On the 15th of May last, I gave my "consent and approval" to the location, as far as the head of Great Salt Lake, a distance of 140 miles. Subsequent surveys corrected and improved the unaccepted part of the line, and on the 14th ultimo they filed a map and profile from the head of Great Salt Lake to Echo Summit, to which location I gave my "consent and approval."

At the date of my last annual report the Union Pacific Railway Company, Eastern Division, had constructed 305 miles of their road and telegraph line, and 285 miles thereof had been accepted. Since that date 88 additional miles have been constructed and accepted.

Sixty-nine and a half miles of the road and telegraph line of the Sioux City and Pacific Railroad Company were completed, equipped, and accepted in March last. About 31½ miles necessary to make a connection with the Union Pacific Railroad are under contract and in process of grading.

No track has been laid by the Western Pacific Railroad Company within the past year. They, however, reported on the 15th of September last that the grading of the unfinished part of the road would be completed and ready for the track in a few months.

No portion of the Northern Pacific Railroad has been constructed. The company report that surveys have not been continued during the past season for want of a military escort to protect surveying parties.

The Southern Pacific Railroad Company report that they have surveyed only that portion of their line lying between the towns of San José and Gilroy, in the county of Santa Clara, a distance of thirty miles. The grading is rapidly progressing. The iron has been purchased and is *in transitu*. They expect to complete this thirty miles of road by the 1st of April, 1869. Their capital stock is \$1,900,000, of which \$72,000 has been actually paid in, and their indebtedness \$480,000.

At the Mont Cenis Tunnel, the engineering feature is the manner in which the drills are

driven by air compressed by water-engines, and led to the face of the headings by cast-iron pipes, in this way not only supplying the power requisite to drive the drills, but, either by the exhaust or an open jet, when the drills are not running, air for most of the ventilation.

The following table shows the monthly advance, in metres, made during 1868:

MONTHS.	Progress made at Bardonneche.	Progress made at Modane.	Total advancement made during month.
January.....	54.30	51.90	106.20
February.....	49.00	47.05	96.05
March.....	49.30	60.85	110.15
April.....	46.90	62.45	109.35
May.....	61.30	54.50	115.80
June.....	59.80	54.15	113.95
July.....	63.90	64.80	128.70
August.....	52.10	56.80	108.90
September.....	50.00	56.85	106.85
October.....	52.20	63.25	115.45
November.....	56.10	61.85	117.95
December.....	43.70	47.10	90.80
Lengths driven in 1868.	638.60	681.55	1,320.15
Lengths driven previous to 1868.....	4,724.50	3,122.15	7,846.65
Total lengths driven... Remaining to be driven.	5,363.10	3,803.70	9,166.80
Total length of tunnel.	12,220.00

This gives an average advance of 110 metres per month, or 53.20 on the Italian side, and 56.80 on the French; and at this rate of progress the time necessary for the completion of the tunnel would be 28 months, or about April, 1871, and for opening the railway about six months more, or in less than three years from the present time. The following table shows the yearly progress, in metres, that has been made with these works since their commencement in 1857:

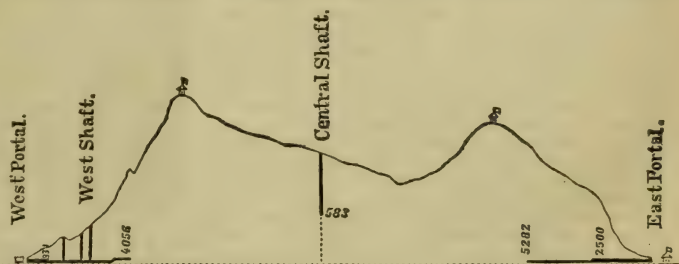
YEARS.	Bardonneche.	Modane.	Total advancement each year.	Total advancement at end of year.	Expenditure, in francs.
1857... }	294.85	212.75	497.60	497.60	3,369,000
1858... }	234.35	132.75	367.10	864.70	1,630,000
1859.....	203.80	139.50	343.30	1,210.00	3,000,000
1860.....	170.00	193.00	363.00	1,573.00	2,500,000
1861.....	380.00	243.00	623.00	2,196.00	2,000,000
1862.....	426.00	376.00	802.00	2,998.00	3,500,000
1863.....	621.20	466.65	1,087.85	4,085.85	6,552,000
1864.....	765.30	458.40	1,223.70	5,309.55	5,502,000
1865.....	812.70	212.29	1,024.99	6,334.54	5,644,000
1866.....	824.30	687.81	1,512.11	7,846.65	6,000,000
1867.....	638.60	681.55	1,320.15	9,166.80	7,500,000
.....	5,363.10	3,803.70	9,166.80	47,197,000

The work is done by contract, but at the expense of the Italian and French Governments.

In imitation, the State of Massachusetts is affording aid in the construction of a tunnel through the Hoosac Mountain. It has been prosecuted for many years, under various political and engineering difficulties, but is now fairly under contract with a fair chance of being completed some time

in 1874. The amount expended thus far has been about \$3,000,000, and contract for completion, \$4,592,000, a total of \$7,592,000. The following is the present condition of the work, as taken from the report of the engineer in charge: "At the east end the total distance penetrated is 5,282 feet, or 2 feet over a mile. Of the first half of this distance, a length of 810 feet is entirely completed, and the remaining length contains unfinished excavation only to an amount equalling the contents of less than 300 mining feet of full-size tunnel. In the succeeding half mile driven as a heading, the quantity removed constitutes about $\frac{1}{4}$ the cubic contents of the tunnel. At the central shaft, depth already sunk, 583 feet. Remaining to reach grade, 447 feet. At the west shaft and west end workings, a total continuous distance of 4,056 feet has been opened. Of this distance 821 feet had been excavated and lined with brick arching up to November 1st, and of the remainder a quantity equal to about $\frac{1}{4}$ of full-size excavation had already been removed. The whole length of tunnel, exclusive of accessory structures required at west end, is 25,031 feet." At the east end, machine drilling, in general principle similar to that at Mont Cenis, has been used for some years. During the present year, "in addition to the repairs of the old machinery, two new turbine wheels, with a four-cylinder compressor for earth, have been set up in complete working order, both of these compressors being intended to furnish air at the ordinary power pressure of 50 pounds, for driving the pneumatic drills. The apparatus for power is thus increased to nearly three-fold its former capacity." Experiments have been made with nitro-glycerine. "Its superiority over powder ordinarily used in blasting, as demonstrated by our own experience, may be briefly expressed in the following items: Less number of holes drilled in proportion to area or face carried forward. Estimated saving, 33 per cent. Greater depth of holes permissible as depth for glycerine 42", for blasting-powder 30". More complete avail of the full depth of hole drilled. The greatly superior explosive power of the nitroglycerine rarely fails to take out the rock to the full depth of the hole. Powder often comes short of this."

The above works can only be considered among the most important, but private capital and public aid have been liberally given during the last few years to almost any enterprise



that promised a fair return for the investment directly in dividends, or indirectly in extended commercial facilities or agricultural products. England and France have not only contributed to the railways of their own countries, but to the provinces dependent upon them. Schemes of irrigation have been aided in Italy, Spain, and the Indies. France has almost entirely rebuilt her capital. Paris, with its new boulevards, avenues, and sewers, is no longer the Paris of the Revolution. London, with its metropolitan railways, affords a means of distribution of its inhabitants unequalled by any large city. Immense stations, with all the facilities of steam and hydraulic lifts for loading and unloading, new bridges and viaducts, have been constructed. A large market has been built at Smithfield, into the cellar of which run the trains of four railways, and through which the trains of the Metropolitan Railway run every two minutes. Such arrangements would be of great importance to many of our cities, especially to New York; but, in a sanitary point of view, the value of which can hardly be estimated in money, the construction of the Thames embankment, with its sewer, and the general system of sewerage carried out in London, may be considered one of the most important public works of our time.

The designs for the Thames embankment, both on the north and south sides of the river, were prepared for the Metropolitan Board of Works by their engineer, Mr. J. W. Bazalgette, and approved and adopted by them. Those for the north side were completed and contracts let and the works commenced in February, 1864. The works for the south side were commenced in September, 1865.

In an engineering and architectural point of view, there has seldom been so colossal a work in granite put together with the same completeness. It literally fits with the neatness of cabinet-work, and some of the landing-stages and piers will remain as standards of what such works should be. Some idea may be formed of the magnitude and importance of the undertaking, when we say that a river-wall in granite eight feet in thickness has been built so as to dam out nearly 300 acres of the river; that this wall is nearly 7,000 feet long; that it averages more than 40 ft. high, and its foundations go from 16 to 30 ft. below the bed of the river. In the formation of this wall and the auxiliary works of drainage, subways, and filling in with earth behind it, there have been used nearly 700,000 cubic feet of granite, about 30,000,000 bricks, over 300,000 bushels of cement, nearly 1,000,000 cubic feet of concrete, 125,000 cubic yards of earth have had to be dug out, and no less than 1,200,000 cubic yards of earth filled in; the quantities of material are equal to building half a dozen structures like the Great Pyramid.

The northern embankment extends between Westminster and Blackfriars Bridges, 6,640 feet, and the cost of the works as tendered for,

£875,000. The southern embankment extends from Westminster Bridge up the river toward Vauxhall Bridge, and a portion of the works consists in widening and a part in narrowing the river. The total cost of this contract is £309,000, the length of the new roadway from Westminster Bridge to Vauxhall Bridge being 5,000 feet, and its width 60 feet.

The end of the embankment next to Westminster Bridge, and for a long way past Whitehall, is finished, with the exception of the roadway. As a steamboat-pier for arrival and departure, it is now open to the public. A noble flight of stone steps, 40 feet wide, will give entrance from Westminster Bridge to this portion. As far as it has yet been constructed, there are six piers along the face of the embankment. The landing-place at Temple Gardens will be of its kind unsurpassed. The great frontage of this pier—nearly 600 feet—the width of its stone stairways, the solidity and height of its abutments or terminals, and, above all, the carved granite arch which will give access to it from the land, will make this station one of the most conspicuous ornaments of the river.

The Metropolitan Main Drainage.—The Abbey Mills Pumping-station, at West Ham, near Stratford-at-the-Bow, has been opened. The pumping-station at Abbey Mills is a most important portion of the scheme for the main drainage of London. One prominent feature of the design is the attempt which has been made, as far as possible, to remove the sewage by gravitation, and thus to reduce the pumping to a minimum. It is, however, impossible for sewage to fall by gravitation for a distance of ten or twelve miles from districts which are lower than or near the level of the river, and yet at their outfall to be delivered at the level of high water without the aid of pumping. Thus it happens that all the sewage on the south side of the Thames, and the sewage of a portion of the north side, have to be lifted, and for this purpose there are four pumping-stations, two on each side of the river. Of those on the south side, one is situated at Deptford Creek, of 500 nominal horse-power, and the other at the Crossness Outfall, which is also of 500 nominal horse-power. Of the two on the north side, the largest and most important is that of the Abbey Mills, which is 1,140 nominal horse-power. The fourth will be the smallest station, of 240 nominal horse-power only, and situated at Pimlico. The Abbey Mills pumps will lift the sewage of Acton, Hammersmith, Fulham, Shepherd's Bush, Kensington, Brompton, Pimlico, Westminster, the City, Whitechapel, Stepney, Mile End, Wapping, Limehouse, Bow, and Poplar, being an area of twenty-five square miles and a height of thirty-six feet from the low-level to the high-level sewers.

The station covers an area of seven acres, divided into two portions by the northern outfall sewer, which passes diagonally across

it on an embankment raised about 17 feet above the surface. On the southwest side of the embankment stand the engine and boiler houses and chimney-shafts, together with the coal-stores and wharf for landing coals and other materials from Abbey Creek. On the northeast side of the embankment are the cottages for the workmen employed on the works, and a reservoir for storage of water to supply the boilers and condensing water for the engines. The engine and boiler houses form one building, the engine-house being arranged on a plan in the shape of a cross, and the boiler-houses forming two wings extending northwest and southeast of the northeastern arm of the cross. The extreme dimensions of the building, taken across two of the arms, is 142 feet 6 inches; the width of each arm being 47 feet 6 inches. Each of the two boiler-houses measures 100 feet in length by 62 feet in width; and there is a workshop situated between the two, measuring 49 feet 6 inches by 33 feet. The engine-house consists of four stories in height, two of which are below and two above the surface of the ground, the height of the two lower stories being 38 feet, and that of the two above-ground, measured from the engine-room floor to the apex of the roof, being 62 feet. At the intersection of the four arms of the cross the building is covered by a cupola of an ornamental character, rising to a height of 110 feet from the engine floor, and at each of the internal angles of the cross rises a turret in which is formed a circular staircase giving access to the several floors of the building. The boiler-houses are of one story above the finished ground level, the boilers and stoking-floor being below that level. The total height from stoke-hole floor to apex of roof is 33 feet. The chimney-shafts, of which there are two, one on each side of the engine-house, are 209 feet in height from the finished surface, and 8 feet internal diameter throughout. They are externally octagonal in plan, rising from a square battered base, and are capped at the top by an ornamental cast-iron roof, pierced with openings for the egress of the smoke. The foundations of brickwork and concrete extend to a depth of 35 feet below the finished surface.

The engines, which are about 1,200-horse power, are eight in number, non-condensing cylinders each 54" and 108", making two double-acting pumps 4 feet diameter, with a stroke of $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet direct from a strong cast-iron beam 40 feet long by 6 feet deep in the middle. To ease the working of the pumps, there is placed in the centre of the engine-house, below the floor, a large cast-iron air-vessel, 13 feet diameter and about 20 feet high, through which the sewage is pumped into a cast-iron tube or culvert, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter. There is also a fly-wheel 28 feet diameter, weighing about 40 tons, attached to each engine; and to supply them with steam there are sixteen boilers, 30 feet long by 8 feet diameter. Any

one of the engines, when in working order, is capable of pumping 1,000,000 gallons of sewage per hour.

The sewage is brought into the pump-well, which forms the lowest story of the building, from the low-level sewer, but, before admission, is strained of any extraneous matters which may have been brought down with it, and which would either not pass or be detrimental to the pump-valves, by means of cages of wrought-iron bars, which are placed in chambers in front of the engine-house, and which are capable of being lifted and emptied when full. The building containing the machinery and appliances for this purpose stands in front of the centre of the engine-house, and from the chambers beneath it are three sewers, conveying the sewage, after being strained, to the pump-wells in three of the arms of the engine-house. From the sewage-well the water is lifted through rectangular cast-iron pipes, situate at the sides of the building, into the sewage-pumps, and it is from them forced through cast-iron cylinders 6 feet in diameter, running along the centres of three of the arms of the building, and below the engine-room floor into the large cast-iron air-vessel in the centre of the building. From this vessel the sewage is lifted by the power of six engines, and forced, through the huge iron culvert above mentioned, into the outfall sewer, arrangements being made at its junction therewith for regulating the discharge.

WRIGHT, WILLIAM B., a distinguished jurist of New York, born in Sullivan County, N. Y., in 1807; died at Albany, N. Y., January 12, 1868. He was admitted to the bar in Sullivan County, about 1830, and soon obtained a good practice there, but his first appearance in public life was as a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1846, to which he had been elected from Sullivan County. During the deliberations of that body he distinguished himself by the wisdom of his suggestions, as well as by the great ability with which he presented them. In the autumn of 1846 he was elected to the State Assembly from Sullivan County, and in June, 1847, he was raised to the bench of the Supreme Court, in the Albany district, in which court he continued to preside until elected to the Court of Appeals, in 1861. Judge Wright occupied the bench in the highest courts of New York for more than twenty years, and enjoyed through the entire period the respect and esteem of the legal profession, and the affection and confidence of the people. The malady of which he died was disease of the kidneys, from which he had been some time a sufferer. His residence, when not engaged in his official duties, was at Kingston, Ulster County, N. Y.

WURTEMBERG, a kingdom in South Germany. King, Karl, born March 6, 1823; succeeded his father, June 25, 1864. Area, 7,532 square miles. The population, according to the census of 1867, was 1,778,479, against

1,748,328 in 1864, an increase of 1.72 per cent. With regard to religious profession, 1,220,199 (68.6 per. cent.) were Protestants, 543,601 (30.6 per cent.) Roman Catholics, 3,017 other Christians, and 11,662 Israelites. The largest cities had, in 1867, the following population: Stuttgart, 75,781; Ulm, 24,739; Heilbronn, 16,730; Esslingen, 16,591; Reutlingen, 13,781. The estimates of the general budget for the term from 1868 to 1870 are as follows: 1867-'68: expenditures and revenue, each, 19,957,708; for 1868-'69: expenditures and revenue, each, 21,301,667; 1869-'70: expenditures, 22,430,472; revenue, 22,395,981; deficit, 34,491. Pub-

lic debt, in May 9, 1868, 126,860,470 florins. The army of Wurtemberg, in 1868, consisted of 34,405, of which 14,150 were in active service.

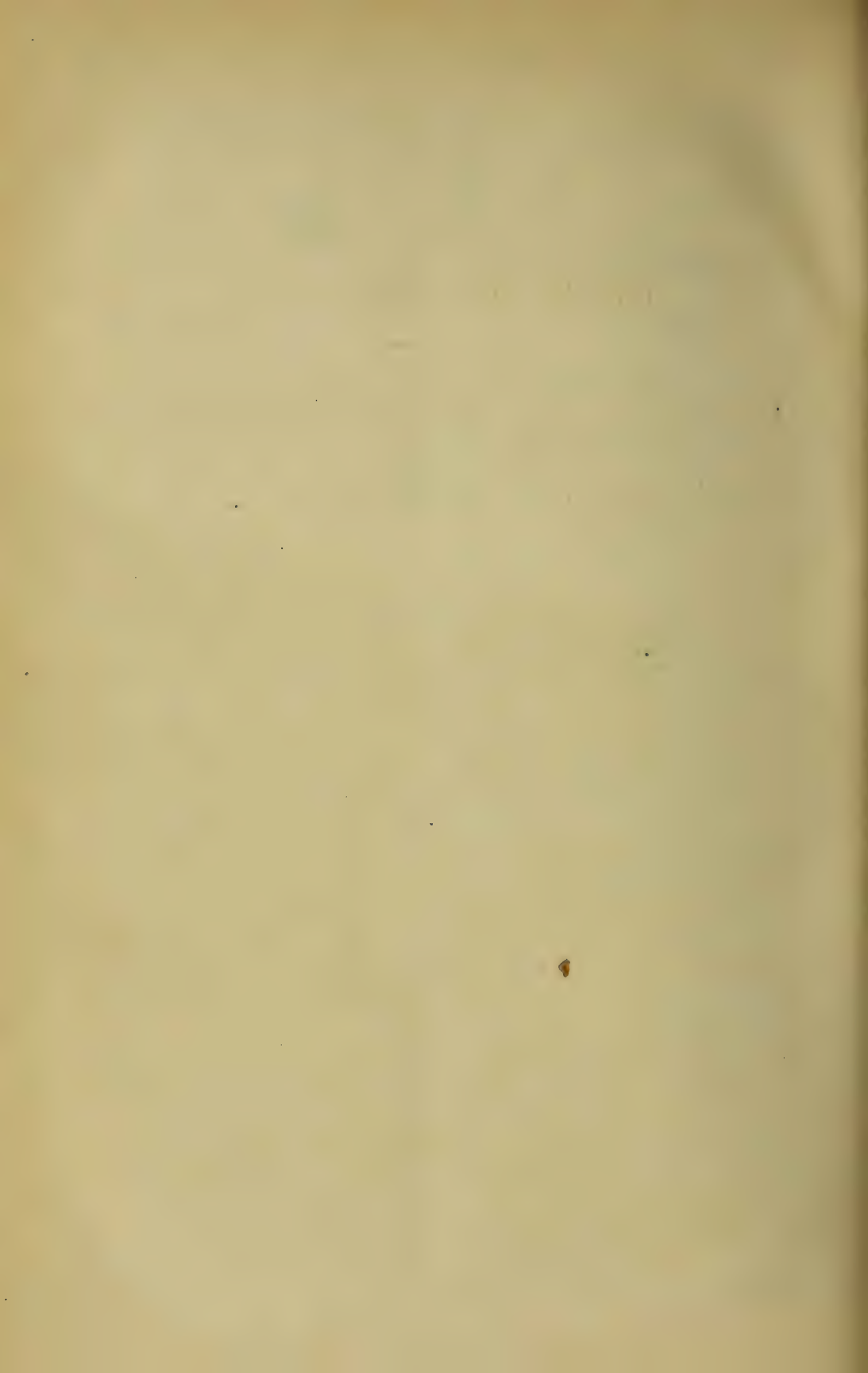
The Wurtemberg Diet, which closed on the 20th of February, adopted a new electoral law, which provides for direct and universal suffrage. A new election took place in July, resulting in a triumph of the Democratic party, to which a considerable majority in the Chamber of Deputies belong. The National party, which is favorable to a union with the North-German Confederation, elected nine members.

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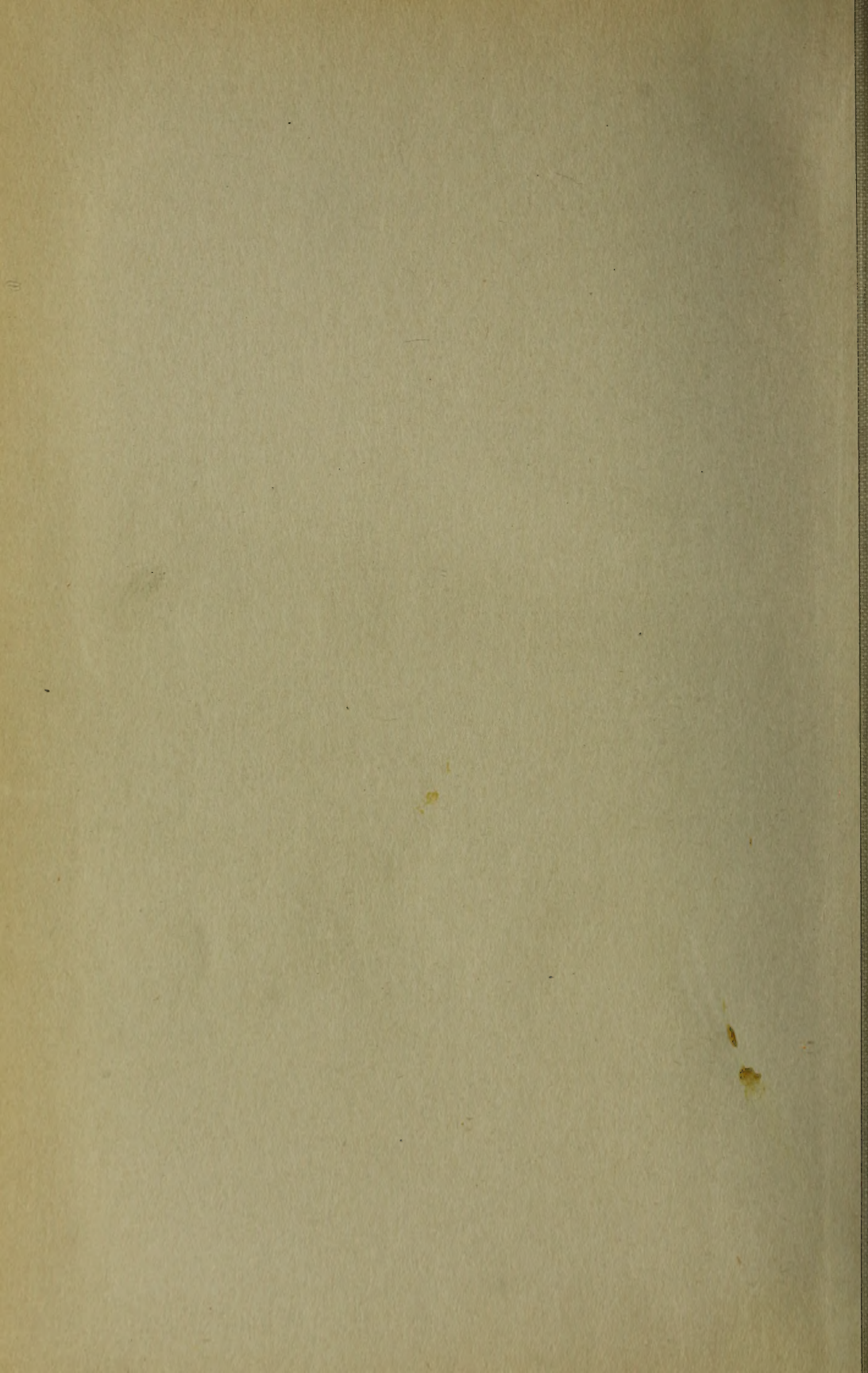
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